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A GLOSS,

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ASSISTANT PHYSICIAN TO THE ST. MARY-LE-BONE HOSPITAL.

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ROBERT HOLT

LONDON

T. N. LONDON AND O. HENRY
AND MORLEY AND HIGGINS

TO

WILLIAM SAUNDERS, M.D. F.R.S.

FELLOW OF THE ROYAL COLLEGE OF PHYSICIANS;

OF THE ANTIQUARIAN AND OTHER SOCIETIES;

THIS EDITION IS DEDICATED,

AS A MARK OF RESPECT AND ESTEEM,

BY HIS SINCERE FRIEND,

THE AUTHOR.

OF

THE UNITED STATES MARINE CORPS

AND THE UNITED STATES NAVY

IN THE MEXICAN WAR

BY

JOHN A. MURPHY

AND

JOHN A. MURPHY

JOHN A. MURPHY

P R E F A C E.

WHEN Dr. Quincy published the first edition of his *Lexicon Medicum*, mathematical principles were generally adopted to explain the actions of the animal frame: hence we find in his work a continual recurrence to them. Since his time the functions of the animal economy and the knowledge of anatomy have received successive improvements, and the fashionable follies of mathematical explications have been reduced to their proper standard. To preserve the name which Dr. Quincy so deservedly obtained, and to render his work as useful as possible, such alterations and amendments were made in every following edition, as were suited to the doctrine of the times. It nevertheless has so happened, that his work, even in the thirteenth edition, contains very many of the absurdities of his day: The anatomical explanations are given in the language of the old schools, too often tedious, and abounding with every hypothesis; the physiology of the human body has been almost wholly over looked; and

all useful nosological descriptions omitted. Similar deficiencies and useless uxuberances occur in every other department of the work; and the number of obsolete terms retained, were very considerable. When, therefore, the editor of the present edition was solicited to undertake its revision, he thought he could not do a more acceptable office to the public, than almost wholly new model it. With this view he has been careful to collect such information as may render the work generally useful. The whole of his COMPENDIOUS MEDICAL DICTIONARY has been introduced into this edition, and such deficiencies as occurred have been amended. Particular attention has been paid to the derivation of the terms; the anatomical description of the various parts, and the explanation of their functions, have been much enlarged; the diseases are considered according to the most approved nosological arrangement, and their symptoms and distinctions clearly enumerated: the materia medica and the preparations which enter the London and Edinburgh Pharmacopœias have been amply considered; the improvements of modern Chemistry every where introduced, and the terms in Surgery, Midwifery, Medical Botany, and other Branches of Natural Philosophy, as far as connected with Medical Science, have been fully treated. In doing this, the author has consulted the most eminent writers on the different branches of medicine, and has made such extracts, abridgments, and translations, as the extent of the work would admit. The learned reader will therefore readily perceive his obligations to HALLER, ALBINUS, HUNTER, CRUICKSHANK, SÆMMERING, SCARPA, MEYER,

BELL, SYMMONDS, VAUGHAN ; MURRAY, BERGIUS, WOODVILLE, SWEIDEUR, LEWIS ; CULLEN, SAUVAGE, WILSON, ROWLEY, THOMAS, WILLAN ; POTT, BELL, LATTA, CALLISEN, RICHTER ; DENMAN, OSBORNE, LAVOISIER, FOURCROY, CHAPTALL, SAUNDERS, GREN, DUNCAN, &c.

At the end is added a GLOSSARY of obsolete terms, selected from the works of QUINSEY, BLANCHARD, CASTELLI, TURTON, &c.

THE
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HOMER
TRANSLATED
BY
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A NEW MEDICAL DICTIONARY.

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A AA, ANA, (*and*, from *ana*, which signifies of each). A term in pharmacy. It is never used but after the mention of two or more ingredients, when it implies that the quantity mentioned of each ingredient should be taken, *e. g.* R. *Sal. nitri. pulv.*—*Sacchar. alb. āā* 3j. *i. e.* take salt of nitre powdered, and white sugar, of each one drachm.

ABBREVIATION, (*Abbreviatio, onis*, f.). The principal uses of medicinal abbreviations are in prescriptions; in which they are certain marks, or half words used by physicians for dispatch and conveniency when they prescribe, thus—R readily supplies the place of *recipe*—*h. s.* that of *hora somni*—*n. m.* that of *nucis moschata*—*elect.* that of *electarium*, &c. and in general all the names of compound medicines, with the several ingredients, are frequently wrote only up to their first or second syllable, or sometimes to their third or fourth, to make them clear and expressive. Thus *Croc. Anglic.* stands for *Crocus Anglicanus*—*Conf. Aromat.* for *Confectio Aromatica*, &c. A point being always placed at the end of such syllables in medicine, shews the word to be incomplete.

ABDOMEN, (*Abdomen, inis*, n. from *abdo* to hide, because it hides the viscera. It is also derived from *abdere* to hide, and *omentum*, the caul; and

A B

by others it is said to be only a termination, as from *lego*, *legumen*, so from *abdo*, *abdomen*). The abdomen is the largest cavity in the body, bounded superiorly by the diaphragm, by which it is separated from the chest; inferiorly by the bones of the pubis and *ischium*; on each side by various muscles, the short ribs and *ossa ilii*; anteriorly by the abdominal muscles, and posteriorly by the vertebræ of the loins, the *os sacrum* and *os coccygis*. Internally it is invested by a smooth membrane called *peritoneum*, and externally by muscles and common integuments.

In the cavity of the abdomen are contained

1. *Anteriorly and laterally.*
 1. The mesentery.
 2. The epiploon.
 3. The stomach.
 4. The large and small intestines.
 5. The lacteal vessels.
 6. The pancreas.
 7. The spleen.
 8. The liver and gall bladder.
2. *Posteriorly, without the peritoneum* are
 1. The kidneys.
 2. The supra renal glands.
 3. The ureters.
 4. The *receptaculum chyli*.
 5. The descending aorta.
 6. The ascending vena cava.

3. *Inferiorly in the pelvis, and without the peritoneum,*

In men,

1. The urinary bladder.
2. The spermatic vessels.
3. The *intestinum rectum*.

In women, beside the urinary bladder and *intestinum rectum*, there are

1. The *uterus*,
2. The four ligaments of the *uterus*,
3. The two *ovaria*;
4. The two Fallopian tubes,
5. The *vagina*.

The fore part of this cavity, as has been mentioned, is covered with muscles and common integuments, in the middle of which is the navel. It is this part of the body which is properly called *abdomen*; it is distinguished by anatomists into regions. See *Epigastric*, *Hypochondriac*, *Umbilical* and *Hypogastric* regions.

The posterior part of the abdomen is called the loins, and the sides the *Epicolic* regions.

ABDOMINAL HERNIA. *Hernia abdominalis*. A tumour situated on the external part of the abdomen, arising from the protrusion of part of its viscera, not through any natural opening, but through the interstices of muscles, by the parting of muscular fibres from weakness, or from an accidental wound of the abdomen.

ABDOMINAL MUSCLES. See *muscles*.

ABDOMINAL RING. *Annulus abdominalis*. Inguinal ring. An oblong, tendinous opening in both groins, through which the spermatic cord of men, and round ligaments of the uterus of women, pass. It is through this opening that the intestine or omentum falls in ruptures, forming that species of hernia called *bubonocoele*. See *Obliquus externus abdominalis*.

ABDUCENT NERVES. *Nervi abducentes*. The sixth pair of nerves are so called because they go to the *rectus externus oculi*, which muscle was formerly termed the abducent.

They arise from the *medulla oblongata*, between the *corpora pyramidalia* and *pons varolii*. They then proceed forwards, perforate the dura mater, and go out of the cranium through the superior orbital fissure, and are distributed in the *rectus externus* muscle of the bulb of the eye.

ABDUCTOR, (*Abductor*, *ōris*, m. from *ab* and *duco* to draw.) A name given to those muscles which pull back parts of the body into which they are inserted.

ABDUCTOR BREVIS ALTER. See *Abductor pollicis manus*.

ABDUCTOR INDICIS MANUS, *Abductor indicis proprius*, *Semi-interosseus* of Winslow. An internal interosseous muscle of the forefinger, situated on the hand. It arises from the superior part of the metacarpal bone and the *os trapezium* on its inside, by a fleshy beginning, runs towards the metacarpal bone of the forefinger, adheres to it, and is connected by a broad tendon to the superior part of the first phalanx of the forefinger. Sometimes it arises by a double tendon. Its use is to draw the forefinger from the rest towards the thumb and to bend it somewhat towards the palm.

ABDUCTOR INDICIS PEDIS. An internal interosseous muscle of the fore toe which arises tendinous and fleshy by two origins from the root of the inside of the metatarsal bone of the fore toe; from the outside of the root of the metatarsal bone of the great toe, and from the *os cuneiforme internum*, and is inserted, tendinous, into the inside of the root of the first joint of the fore toe. Its use is to pull the fore toe inwards from the rest of the small toes.

ABDUCTOR LONGUS POLLICIS MANUS. See *Extensor ossis metacarpi pollicis manus*.

ABDUCTOR MEDII DIGITI PEDIS. An internal interosseous muscle of the foot, which arises tendinous and fleshy from the inside of the root of

the metatarsal bone of the middle toe internally, and is inserted, tendinous, into the inside of the root of the first joint of the middle toe. Its use is to pull the middle toe inwards.

ABDUCTOR MINIMI DIGITI MANUS. *Hypothenar minor* of Winslow. *Extensor tertii internodii minimi digiti* of Douglas. *Flexor parvus minimi digiti*. A muscle of the little finger situated on the hand. It arises fleshy from the pisiform bone and from that part of the *ligamentum carpi annulare* next it, and is inserted, tendinous, into the inner side of the upper end of the first bone of the little finger. Its use is to draw the little finger from the rest.

ABDUCTOR MINIMI DIGITI PEDIS. *Parathenar major* and *Metatarsæus* of Winslow. A muscle of the little toe, which arises tendinous and fleshy from the semicircular edge of a cavity on the inferior part of the protuberance of the *os calcis*, and from the rest of the metatarsal bone of the little toe, and is inserted into the root of the first joint of the little toe externally. Its use is to bend the little toe and its metatarsal bone downwards, and to draw the little toe from the rest.

ABDUCTOR OCULI. See *Rectus externus oculi*.

ABDUCTOR POLLICIS MANUS. *Abductor*, *Thenar Riolani* of Douglas. A muscle of the thumb, situated on the hand. It arises by a broad tendinous and fleshy beginning from the *ligamentum carpi annulare*, and from the *os trapezium*, and is inserted, tendinous, into the outer side of the root of the first bone of the thumb. Its use is to draw the thumb from the fingers. Albinus names the inner portion of this muscle, *abductor brevis alter*.

ABDUCTOR POLLICIS PEDIS. *Thenar* of Winslow. A muscle of the great toe situated on the foot. It arises fleshy from the inside of the

root of the protuberance of the *os calcis*, where it forms the heel, and tendinous from the same bone where it joins the *os naviculare*; and is inserted, tendinous, into the internal sesamoid bone and root of the first joint of the great toe. Its use is to pull the great toe from the rest.

ABDUCTOR TERTII DIGITI PEDIS. An interosseous muscle of the foot that arises tendinous and fleshy from the inside and inferior part of the root of the metatarsal bone of the third toe; and is inserted, tendinous, into the inside of the root of the first joint of the third toe. Its use is to pull the third toe inwards.

ABELMOSCHUS, (*Abelmoschus*, i. m.). *Gratum moschi*. *Ægyptia moschata*. *Bamia moschata*. Musk mallow seed. The seeds of a plant called *Hibiscus abelmoschus* by Linnæus. They possess a slightish aromatic bitter taste, and are called musk seeds from their smell resembling very much that of musk. By the Arabians they are esteemed as a cordial, and are mixed with their coffee, to which they impart their fragrance. In this country they are used by the perfumers.

ABIES, (*Abies*, *ëtis*, f.) The fir. The various species of fir employed medicinally are, the *pinus picca* L. the yellow-leaved or silver fir; the *pinus abies* L. the common or red fir; the *pinus balsamea* L. the Virginia or Canada fir; and the balm of Gilead fir, called *balsamea*. The virtues of all these are similar to those given under the head of turpentine. See *Turpentine*, *Balsamum Gileadense*, *Canadense*, &c.

ABIES CANADENSIS. See *Balsamum Canadense*.

ABLACTATIO, (*Ablactatio*, *ônis*, f. from *ab*, from, and *lac*, milk). Ablactation, or the weaning of a child from the breast.

ABLUENTS, (*Abluentia*, *sc. medicamenta*, from *abluo*, to wash away). *Abstergers*. Medicines which were

formerly supposed to purify or cleanse the blood.

ABORTION, (*Abortio*, *ōnis*, f. from *aborior*, to be steril). *Ambloſis*. A miscarriage, or the expulsion of the fœtus from the uterus before the seventh month, after which it is called premature labour.

ABORTIVES, (*Abortiva*, *ſc. medica-menta*, from *aborior*, to be steril). *Ambiotics*. Medicines capable of occasioning an abortion or miscarriage in pregnant women. It is now generally believed, that the medicines which produce a miscarriage, effect it by their violent action on the system, and not by any specific action on the womb.

ABRASION, (*Abrasio*, *ōnis*, f. from *abrado*, to tear off). This word is generally employed to signify the destruction of the natural mucus of any part, as the stomach, intestines, urinary, bladder, &c. It is also applied to any part slightly worn away by attrition, as the skin, &c.

ABRŌTĀNUM, (*Abrotanum*, i. n. *ἀβροτανον*, from *α*, neg. and *ερος*, mortal, because it never decays; or from *αβρος*, soft, and *τορος* extension, from the delicacy of its texture). *Abrotanum mas.* Common southern-wood. *Artemisia abrotanum* of Linnaeus. *Artemisia fruticosa, foliis setaceis ramossissimis*. Class. *Syngenesia*. Order. *Polygamia superflua*. A plant possessed of a strong and, to most people, an agreeable smell; a pungent, bitter, and somewhat nauseous taste. It is supposed to stimulate the whole system, but more particularly the uterus. It is very rarely used unless by way of fomentation, with which intention the leaves are directed by the London college in the *decoctum pro fomento*.

ABRŌTĀNUM FEMĪNA. *Santolina*. Common lavender cotton. This plant, *Santolina chama-cyparissus; pedunculis unifloris, foliis quadrifariam dentatis* of Linnaeus, possesses antihysterical, antihelminthic, and deobstruent virtues;

and may be employed in all cases as a substitute for the *abrotanum* of our pharmacopœias.

ABRŌTĀNUM MAS. See *Abrotanum*.

ABSCESS, (*Abscessus*, *us*, m. from *abs*, and *cedo*, to retire). The words *ἀποστήμα*, aposteme, and *ἀποστασις*, impostumation; frequently used by Hippocrates, are translated by Celsus *abscessus*, and sometimes *vomica*. Hence the word abscess is generally used by modern authors to signify a suppurated phlegmon or inflammatory tumour. These words seem originally, by their derivation, to import any sort of exclusion of morbid matter: *ἀφισταμης* and *ἀφιστημι* signifying to recede or retire. Accordingly they are used by Hippocrates to express any critical removal of offending humours from the vital parts, either to some of the emunctories, for an immediate discharge, as the glands of the intestines, kidneys, or skin, whence they are eliminated by plentiful stools, urine, or sweat; or to some part where they find an easy egress by the rupture of a blood-vessel, as the uterus or nose: or to some muscular part or gland, whence they cannot be so easily expelled, and therefore stagnate and suppurate, and at last are separated in the form of pus or matter. Sometimes Hippocrates means by these words, the transmutation of one disease into another, as a quinsey into a peripneumony, or of a continued fever into a quartan, &c. And sometimes, the destruction of a part of the morbid matter of a distemper fixing upon it. Hippocrates also uses the word *ἀποστασις*, to express the fracture, or exfoliation of a bone, when the parts of it which were contiguous in a state of health, recede from each other. Paulus Ægineta seems to have limited the signification of *abscess* to suppuration, by defining *ἀποστήμα*, *abscess*, a corruption of the fleshy parts, muscles, veins, and arteries.

ABSINTHIUM, (*Absinthium*, i. n. αψιθιον, from α, neg. and ψιθος, pleasant. Several plants are distinguished by this name from the disagreeableness of their taste). Wormwood.

ABSINTHIUM MARITIMUM. Sea wormwood. *Artemisia maritima* of Linnæus. *Artemisia foliis multipartitis tomentosis, racemis cernuis, flosculis femineis ternis*. Class. Syngenesia. Order. *Polygamia superflua*. A plant which grows plentifully about the seashore, and in salt marshes. Its taste and smell are considerably less unpleasant than those of common wormwood; hence it is preferred to that plant when too offensive to the stomach. A conserve of the tops, *conserva absinthii maritimi*, is directed by the London Pharmacopœia.

ABSINTHIUM PONTICUM. See *Absinthium vulgare*.

ABSINTHIUM VULGARE. Common wormwood. *Absinthium ponticum*. *Absinthium romanum*. *Artemisia absinthium* of Linnæus. *Artemisia foliis compositis multifidis, floribus subglobosis pendulis: receptaculo villoso*. Class. Syngenesia. Order. *Polygamia superflua*. A plant, a native of Britain, possessed of a strong, disagreeable smell, and of so intensely nauseous and bitter a taste, as to be proverbial. It is a good tonic and stomachic, and is given by many as an anthelmintic. Externally it is used as an antiseptic, in fomentations. There is a tincture of the flowers ordered by the Edin. Pharm. but the most agreeable way of administering this remedy is in pills made of the extract.

ABSORBENT VESSELS. *Vasa absorbentia*. A system of small, delicate, transparent vessels, that absorb and convey a fluid to the thoracic duct, which is their trunk or termination. They are divided into lacteals and lymphatics. See *Lacteals* and *Lymphatics*.

ABSORBENTS, (*Absorbentia*, sc. *medicamenta*, from *absorbeo*, to suck up). Medicines are so termed, which have no acrimony in themselves, and destroy acidities in the stomach and bowels; such are calcined magnesia, prepared chalk, oyster-shells, crab's claws, &c.

ABSORPTION, (*Absorptio, ōnis*, f. from *absorbeo*, to suck up). A function in an animated body arranged by physiologists under the head of natural actions. It signifies the taking up of substances applied to the mouths of absorbing vessels: thus the nutritious part of the food is absorbed from the intestinal canal by the lacteals; thus mercury is taken into the system by the lymphatics of the skin, &c. The principle by which this function takes place is a power inherent in the mouths of the absorbents, a *vis insita*, dependant on the degree of irritability of their internal membrane by which they contract and propel their contents forwards.

ABSTERGENTS, (*Abstergentia*, scilicet *medicamenta*; from *abstergo*, to cleanse away). Lotions, or any application that cleanses or clears away foulness. The term is seldom employed by modern writers.

ABSTRACTION, (*Abstradio, ōnis*, f. from *abstraho*). A term employed by chymists in the process of humid distillation, to signify that the fluid body is again drawn off from the solid, which it had dissolved.

ACACIA GERMANICA. (*Acacia*, α, f. *ακακία*; from *ακαζω*, to sharpen). *Acacia nostras*. *Succus pruni sylvestris*. The inspissated juice of the sloe, which is the fruit of the *Prunus spinosa* of Linnæus. It is now fallen into disuse.

ACACIA NOSTRAS. See *Acacia Germanica*.

ACACIA VERA. *Succus acaciæ vere*. The expressed juice of the immature fruit of the *mimosa nilotica* of Linnæus. It possesses astringent virtues, and was formerly esteemed in

dysenteries and relaxations of the alimentary canal.

ACANTHUS, (*Acanthus*, *i*, *m.* *ακανθος*, from *ακανθα*, a thorn; so named from its rough and prickly surface). *Branca ursina*. The herb bears breach, or brank ursine. The leaves and root of the *Acanthus mollis foliis sinuatis inermibus* of Linnæus abound with a mucilage, which is readily extracted by boiling or infusion. The roots are the most mucilaginous. Where this plant is common it is employed for the same purposes to which althæa and other vegetables possessing similar qualities are applied among us. It is fallen into disuse.

ACANTHUS MOLLIS. The systematic name for the *Acanthus*. See *Acanthus*.

ACCĒLĒRĀTOR URINÆ, (*Accelerator*, *ōris*, *sc.* *musculus*, from *accelero*, to hasten). *Ejaculator seminis*. *Bulbo-cavernosus* of Winslow. A muscle of the penis. It arises fleshy from the *sphincter ani* and membranous part of the *urethra*, and tendinous from the *crus*, near as far forwards as the beginning of the *corpus cavernosum penis*; the inferior fibres run more transversely, and the superior descend in an oblique direction. It is inserted into a line in the middle of the bulbous part of the *urethra*, where each joins with its fellow; by which the bulb is completely closed. The use of these muscles is to drive the urine or semen forward, and by grasping the bulbous part of the *urethra*, to push the blood towards its *corpus cavernosum*, and the glands by which they are distended.

ACCESSION, (*Accessio*, *ōnis*, *f.* from *accedo*, to approach). The approach or commencement of a disease. A term mostly applied to a fever which has paroxysms or exacerbations; thus the accession of fever, means the commencement or approach of the pyrexial period.

ACCESSORIÏ OF WILLIS, (*Accessorii*, *sc.* *nervi*, from *accedo* to approach, so called from the course they take). The name given by Willis to two nerves which ascend, one on each side from the second, fourth, and fifth cervical pairs of nerves, through the great foramen of the occipital bone, and pass out again from the *cranium* through the *foramina lacerata*, with the *par vagum*, to be distributed on the *trapezius* muscle.

ACEPHĀLUS, (*Acephalus*, *i. m.*; *ακεφαλος*, from *α*, priv. *κεφαλη*, a head). A term applied to monsters born without heads.

ACERB, (*Acerbus*). A species of taste which consists in a degree of acidity with an addition of roughness; properties common to many immature fruits.

ACETĀBŪLUM, (*Acetabulum*, *i*, *n.* from *acetum*, vinegar; so called because it resembles the *acetabulum*, or old saucer, in which vinegar was held for the use of the table). The cavity of the *os innominatum* which receives the head of the thigh bone. See *os innominatum*.

ACETARIA, (*Acetaria*, *ōrum*, *pl. n.* from *acetum*, vinegar: because they are mostly made with vinegar). Sallads.

ACETATED VEGETABLE ALKALI. See *Kali acetatum*.

ACETATED VOLATILE ALKALI. See *Aqua ammoniæ acetata*.

ACETATES, (*Acetas, atis*, *m.*) Salts are so called in the new scientific chemical nomenclature, which are formed by the union of the acetic acid, or radical vinegar, with different bases. None of these have yet been introduced into the practice of physic or surgery.

ACETIC ACID. *Acidum acēticum*. This preparation of vinegar is called *acidum acetosum* in the London pharmacopœia, but *acidum aceticum* in the new chemical nomenclature. It is much esteemed to smell at in

faintings, in the crowded courts of justice, and the offensive wards of hospitals. It may also be given with advantage in putrid diseases in combination with camphire.

ACETITES, (*Acetis, itis, m*). The new chemical nomenclature gives this term to salts formed by the union of the acetous acid, or distilled vinegar, with different bases. Those at present used in the practice of physic, are the *acetis ammoniacæ liquidus*, see *aqua ammonia acetata*; the *acetis hydrargyri*, see *hydrargyrus acetatus*; the *acetis potassæ*, see *kali acetatum*; and the *acetis plumbi*, see *cerussa acetata* and *aqua lithargyri acetata*.

ACETOSA, (*Acetosa, a, f.*). Common sorrel. *Rumex acetosa* of Linnaeus. *Rumex floribus dioicis, foliis oblongis sagittatis*. Class. *Hexandria*. Order. *Trigynia*. A common plant in meadows and pastures. Its leaves have a sharp and pleasant acid taste. They are used in many places as food, and are found to be of important advantage where a refrigerant and antiscorbutic regimen is required. They are, also, of infinite service to foul ulcers, applied in the form of poultice.

ACETOSELLA. See *Lujula*.

ACETOUS ACID. *Acidum acetosum*. Distilled vinegar. This preparation of vinegar is called *acetum distillatum* by the London college, and *acidum acetosum* in the new chemical nomenclature. It is chiefly employed in pharmacy in the class of salts termed *acetites*, see *acetites*; and is of great service in the practice of surgery as a discutient in inflammatory affections. For its virtues see *acetum*.

ACETOUS FERMENTATION. See *Fermentation*.

ACĒTUM, (*Acetum, i, n*. vinegar; from *acer*, sour). A sour liquor obtained from many vegetable substances dissolved in boiling water, and from fermented and spirituous liquors, by exposing them to heat and contact with air; under which circumstances

they undergo the acid fermentation, see *fermentation*, and afford the liquor called vinegar. It is much used to season food, and is highly esteemed as an antiseptic, refrigerant, and antiscorbutic. Applied externally to inflammations, it is a very powerful resolvent. Distilled with a gentle fire, in glass vessels, so long as the drops fall free from empyreuma, it affords the *acetum distillatum* of the Pharmacopæias, whose combinations are of great use in the healing art. See *acetites*.

ACĒTUM AROMATICUM. This preparation of the Edinburgh pharmacopæia is an elegant improvement of what has been long known under the name of thieves vinegar. Its virtues are antiseptic, and it is an useful composition to smell at in crowded courts of justice, hospitals, &c.

ACĒTUM DISTILLĀTUM. See *acetum*.

ACĒTUM SCILLÆ. *Acetum scilliticum*. Vinegar of squills. This preparation of squills is employed as an attenuant, expectorant, and diuretic.

ACHILLĒA AGERĀTUM, (*αχιλλεία*, from *Achilles*, who is said to have cured Telephus with it). The systematic name for the *Ageratum* of the pharmacopæias. See *Ageratum*.

ACHILLĒA FOLIIS PINNĀTIS. See *Genipi verum*.

ACHILLĒA MILLEFOLIUM. The systematic name for the *millefolium* of the pharmacopæias. See *Millefolium*.

ACHILLĒA PTARMICA. The systematic name for the *ptarmica* of the pharmacopæias. See *Ptarmica*.

ACHILLIS TENDO, (*Tendo Achilles*; so called because as fable reports Thetis, the mother of Achilles, held him by that part when she dipped him in the river Styx, to make him invulnerable. Homer describes this tendon; and some writers suppose it was thus named by the ancients, from their custom of calling every thing thus, that had any extraordinary strength or vir-

tue. Others say it is thus named from its action in conducing to swiftness of pace, the term importing so much). The strong tendon of the *gastrocnemius* and *soleus* muscles, which is inserted into the heel. See *Gastrocnemius* and *Soleus*.

ACHMELLA. The herb and seeds of this plant, *Spilanthus achmella* of Linnæus; *Spilanthus foliis ovatis, serratis, caule erecto, floribus radiatis*, are employed in cases of calculus of the kidneys and urinary bladder. It is extremely bitter and balsamic, and is given in the form of infusion.

ACHÔRES, (*Achores, um*, pl. m. from *αχως*, *quasi αχως*, from *αχνη*, bran; from the branny scales thrown off). A disease which attacks the hairy scalp of the head, for the most part of young children, forming soft and scaly eruptions.

ACID, (*Acidum, i. n.*). Acids are defined by modern chemists to be salts of a sour taste, changing the blue colour of various vegetable pigments to a red. The word *sour*, which is usually employed to denote the simple impression, or lively and sharp sensation produced on the tongue by certain bodies, may be regarded as synonymous to the word acid. The only difference which can be established between them is, that the one denotes a weak sensation, whereas the other comprehends all the degrees of force from the least perceptible to the greatest degree of causticity: thus we say that verjuice, gooseberries, or lemons, are sour; but we use the word acid to express the impression which the nitric, sulphuric, or muriatic acids make upon the tongue. The vegetable pigments usually employed to ascertain the presence of acids are tincture of turnsole or litmus, and syrup of violets. Many acids effervesce with alkalis, but this property is not general. Acids readily combine with alkalis, earths, and metals, and form neutral salts. The characteristics, therefore, of an

acid, are, 1. A peculiar taste termed acid. 2. Its changing blue vegetable juices red. 3. Combining with alkalis, earths, and metals. Acids, according to the kingdom of nature in which they are found, are divided into mineral, vegetable, and animal. The mineral acids as yet known, are the sulphuric or vitriolic, the nitric, muriatic, carbonic, boracic, fluoric, succinic, arsenic, molybdic, tungstic, and chromic. The vegetable acids are, the acetic, oxalic, tartareous, pyrotartareous, gallic, citric, mallic, benzoic, pyroligneous, the succinic, pyromucous, camphoric, and cortic. Of the animal acids there are eight, viz. the phosphoric, lactic, saccholactic, formic, sebatic, prussic, bombic, and lithic. Experiment proves that every acid consists of a peculiar body combined with the basis of oxygen gas: hence the origin of the word oxygen, which signifies the generation of acid, it being regarded as the acidifying basis or principle of acidity. The bodies which form the other constituents of acids, are termed *bases*, or radicals of acids, and are regarded as the acidifiable bases: thus the principles of phosphoric acid are phosphorus and oxygen; those of carbonic acid, radical carbon and oxygen. If an acid basis be perfectly saturated with oxygen, the acid, thus produced, is said to be perfect; but if the basis predominate, the acid is considered as imperfect. Modern chemists distinguish the former in Latin by the syllables *icum*, in English *ic*, and the latter in Latin by *osum*, and in English by *ous*: thus the perfect acid of nitre is called *acidum nitricum*, or nitric acid; the imperfect acid of nitre, *acidum nitrosum*, or nitrous acid. There are some cases where an acid is capable of combining with an excess of oxygen, in which case it is said to be *oxygenated*; and sometimes *super-oxygenated*. If the acidifiable basis be combined with oxygen, yet without showing

any of the properties of an acid, the produce is then called an oxyd or oxyde: thus iron exposed to the air or water attracts the oxygen, and an oxyd of iron, the rust, is formed. The various acids employed medicinally are, the acetic, acetous, benzoic, carbonic, citric, muriatic, nitric, nitrous, and sulphuric.

ACID AERIAL. See *Carbonic acid*.

ACIDULOUS WATERS. Mineral waters, which contain so great a quantity of carbonic acid gaz, as to render them acidulous, or gently pungent to the taste.

ACIDS, ANIMAL. Those which are obtained from animals. See *Acid*.

ACIDS, DULCIFIED. These are now called *Æthers*. See *Æther*.

ACIDS, IMPERFECT. Those acids are so called in the scientific chemical nomenclature, which are not fully saturated with oxygen. Their names are ended in Latin by *osum*, and in English by *ous*: e. g. *acidum nitrosum*, or *nitrous acid*.

ACIDS, MINERAL. Those acids which are found to exist in minerals, as the *sulphuric*, in sulphur; the *nitric*, in nitre, &c. See *Acid*.

ACIDS, PERFECT. An acid is termed a perfect acid, in the scientific chemical nomenclature, when it is completely saturated with oxygen. Their names are ended in Latin by *icum*, and in English by *ic*: e. g. *acidum nitricum*, or *nitric acid*.

ACIDS, VEGETABLE. Those which are found in the vegetable kingdom, as the *citric*, *mallic*, *acetic*, &c. See *Acid*.

ACIDUM ACETICUM. See *Acetic acid*.

ACIDUM ACETOSUM. See *Acetous acid*.

ACIDUM BENZOICUM. See *Flores benzoës*.

ACIDUM CARBONICUM. See *Carbonic acid*.

ACIDUM CITRICUM. See *Citric acid*.

ACIDUM MURIATICUM. *Spiritus salis marini Glauberi*. Muriatic acid. Marine acid. Spirit of salt. Muriatic acid is much esteemed as an antiseptic; and therefore given with bark, &c. in putrid tending diseases. It, however, mostly proves purgative. A celebrated physician on the continent, whose success in curing typhoid fevers was unrivalled, lately published his method of cure, in consequence of a handsome annuity from the king of Prussia; which consisted in giving very large doses of this acid.

ACIDUM NITRICUM. *Nitric acid*. This acid has lately been extolled as an antisyphilitic. It may be given with advantage in mixed cases of syphilis and rheumatism: as an antiseptic it stands first in the catalogue. Infusion of roses made with it in the place of vitriolic acid is a valuable medicine. See *Nitric acid*.

ACIDUM NITROSUM. *Spiritus nitri fumans*. The nitrous acid possesses the same properties as the nitric, but in a much inferior degree.

ACIDUM SULPHURICUM. See *Acidum vitriolicum*.

ACIDUM NITROSUM DILUTUM. *Aqua fortis*. Diluted nitrous acid possesses the same properties as the nitrous acid, but in an inferior degree.

ACIDUM VITRIOLI AROMATICUM. *Elixir vitrioli acidum*. A stimulant and stomachic preparation of the Edinburgh pharmacopœia, for which the London college has substituted the *acidum vitriolicum dilutum*.

ACIDUM VITRIOLICUM. Vitriolic acid of the pharmacopœias is termed *acidum sulphuricum* in the new chemical nomenclature. It is highly esteemed as an antiseptic and antiphlogistic; and is therefore exhibited in *synochus*, *cynanche*, *scrophula*, &c. See *Sulphuric acid*.

ACIDUM VITRIOLICUM DILUTUM. The virtues of this preparation are the same as those of the *acidum vitriolicum*, only in a much inferior degree.

ACINI BILIOSI, (*Acinus*, *i*, *m.* a grape stone; so called from their supposed resemblance). The small glandiform bodies of the liver which separate the bile from the blood were formerly so called: they are now, however, more properly called *penicilli*. See *Liver*.

ACINIFORM TUNIC, (*Tunica aciniformis*; from *acinus*, a grape, and *forma*, resemblance). The uvea is so termed by some writers. See *Uvea*.

ACME, (*Acme*, *es*, *f.* ἀκμή, from α, not, and κέμω, to be weary). A term applied by physicians to that period or state of a disease in which it is at its height. The antients distinguished diseases into four stages: 1. The *arche*, the beginning or first attack. 2. *Anabasis*, the growth. 3. The *acme*, the height. 4. *Paracne*, or the decline of the disease.

ACONITUM, (*Aconitum*, *i*, *n.* from ἀκονίτης, *pulveris expers*, without soil; because this plant grows on rocks destitute of soil). Common wolf's bane. *Aconitum napellus* of Linnæus. *Aconitum foliorum laciniis linearibus superne latioribus linea exaratis*. Class. *Polyandria*. Order. *Trigynia*. This plant is a native of the mountainous and woody parts of Germany, France, and Switzerland; but is cultivated for its beauty in our flower gardens. Every part of the plant is strongly poisonous. The extract, or inspissated juice, is given in violent rheumatic, scrophulous, and venereal affections. Its virtues are sudorific, diuretic, and subvertiginous. It should be given in small doses, and gradually and cautiously increased.

ACONITUM ANTHORA. The systematic name for the *anthora* of the pharmacopæias. See *Anthora*.

ACONITUM NAPELLUS. The systematic name for the *aconitum* of the pharmacopæias. See *Aconitum*.

ACOR, (*Acor*, *ōris*, *m.* from *acer*, sharp or bitter). Acidity. This word is sometimes employed as syno-

nymous with acid; as mineral *acor*, for mineral acid.

ACÖRUS CALĀMUS. The systematic name for the *calamus aromaticus*. See *Calamus aromaticus*.

ACÖRUS PALUSTRIS. See *Gladiolus luteus*.

ACÖRUS VERUS. See *Calamus aromaticus*.

ACÖRUS VULGĀRIS. See *Gladiolus luteus*.

ACOUSTICA, (*Acoustica*, *sc.* *medicamenta*; ακουστικά, from ακούω, to hear). Remedies which are employed with a view to restore the sense of hearing when wanting or diminished.

ACRACY, (*Acrasia*, *a*, *f.* ἀκρασία; from -, priv. and κρατός, strength). Debility, or impotency, from relaxation or a lost tone of the parts.

ACRE, (ἀκρῶς, extreme). The extremity of the nose.

ACREA, (ἀκρῶς, extreme). The extremities; as the nose, arms, legs, &c.

ACRID, (*Acris*). A term employed in medicine to express a taste, the characteristic of which is pungency joined with heat.

ACRIMONY, (*Acrimonia*, *a*, *f.* from *acris*, acrid). This term is used to express a quality in substances by which they irritate, corrode, or dissolve others. It has been supposed until very lately, there were acid and alkaline acrimonies in the blood, which produced certain diseases; and although the humeral pathology is nearly exploded, the term venereal acrimony and some others are still and must be retained.

ACROMPHALION, (*Acromphalion*, *i*, *n.* ἀκρομφάλιον; from ἀκρῶς, extreme, and ομφαλῶς, the navel). The tip of the navel.

ACROPOSTHIA, (*Acroposthia*, *a*, *f.* ἀκροποσθία; from ἀκρῶς, extreme, and ποσθί, the præpuce). The extremity of the præpuce, or that part cut off in circumcision.

ACROTERIA, (*Acroteria*, *a*, *f.* *ακρωτήρια*; from *ακρος*, extreme). The extreme parts, as the hands, feet, ears, nose, &c.

ACTUAL. This word is applied to any thing endued with a property or virtue which acts by an immediate power inherent in it: it is the reverse of potential; thus, a red-hot iron or fire is called an actual cautery, in contradistinction from caustics, which are called potential cauteries. Boiling water is actually hot; brandy, producing heat in the body, is potentially hot, though of itself cold.

ACUTE DISEASE. *Morbus acutus*. A disease which is attended with an increased velocity of the blood, terminates in a few days, and is attended with danger. It is opposed to a chronic disease, which is slow in its progress, and not so generally dangerous.

ACUTENACULUM, (*Acutenaculum*, *i*, *n.*) Heister calls the *portaguille* by this name. It is the handle for a needle, to make it penetrate easily when stitching a wound.

ADAMS APPLE. See *Pomum Adami*.

ADAMS NEEDLE. The roots of this plant, *Yucca gloriosa* of Linnæus, are thick and tuberos, and are used by the Indians instead of bread; being first reduced into a coarse meal. This, however, is only in times of scarcity.

ADDEPHAGIA, (*Addephagia*, *addēphagia*; from *αδν*, abundantly, and *φαγειν*, to eat). Insatiability. A voracious appetite. See *Bulimia*.

ADDITIONAMENTUM, (*Additamentum*, *i*, *n.*). A term formerly employed as synonymous with *epiphysis*, but now only applied to two portions of the sutures of the skull. See *Lambdoidal* and *Squamous sutures*.

ADDITIONAMENTUM COLI. See *Appendicula cæci vermiformis*.

ADDUCTOR, (*Adductor*, *oris*, *m.* from *ad* and *duco*, to draw to). A name given to several muscles, whose office is to bring forwards or draw to-

gether those parts of the body to which they are annexed.

ADDUCTOR BREVIS FEMORIS.

Adductor femoris secundus of Douglas. *Triceps secundus* of Winslow. A muscle, which, with the *adductor longus* and *magnus femoris*, forms the *triceps adductor femoris*. It is situated on the posterior part of the thigh, arising, tendinous from the os pubis near its joining with the opposite os pubis below, and behind the *adductor longus femoris*, and is inserted, tendinous and fleshy, into the inner and upper part of the linea aspera, from a little below the trochanter minor, to the beginning of the insertion of the *adductor longus*. For its use, see *Triceps adductor femoris*.

ADDUCTOR FEMORIS PRIMUS.

See *Adductor longus femoris*.

ADDUCTOR FEMORIS SECUNDUS.

See *Adductor brevis femoris*.

ADDUCTOR FEMORIS TERTIUS.

See *Adductor magnus femoris*.

ADDUCTOR FEMORIS QUARTUS.

See *Adductor magnus femoris*.

ADDUCTOR INDICIS PEDIS. An external interosseous muscle of the fore-toe, which arises, tendinous and fleshy, by two origins, from the root of the inside of the metatarsal bone of the fore-toe, from the outside of the root of the metatarsal bone of the great-toe, and from the os cuneiforme internum. It is inserted, tendinous, into the inside of the root of the first joint of the fore-toe. Its use is to pull the fore-toe inwards from the rest of the small toes.

ADDUCTOR LONGUS FEMORIS.

Adductor femoris primus of Douglas. *Triceps minus* of Winslow. A muscle situated on the posterior part of the thigh, which, with the *adductor brevis* and *magnus femoris*, forms the *triceps adductor femoris*. It arises by a pretty strong roundish tendon, from the upper and interior part of the os pubis, and ligament of its synchondrosis, on the inner side of the pec-

tinalis. It is inserted, tendinous, near the middle of the posterior part of the linea aspera, being continued for some way down. For its use, see *Triceps adductor femoris*.

ADDUCTOR MAGNUS FEMORIS. *Adductor femoris tertius* of Douglas, and *Adductor femoris quartus* of Douglas. *Triceps tertius* of Winslow. A muscle situated on the posterior part of the thigh, which, with the *adductor brevis* and *longus femoris*, forms the *Triceps adductor femoris*. It arises a little lower down than the *Adductor brevis femoris*, near the symphysis of the ossa pubis; tendinous and fleshy, from the tuberosity of the os ischium; the fibres run outwards and downwards. It is inserted into almost the whole length of the linea aspera, into a ridge above the internal condyle of the os femoris; and, by a roundish, long tendon, into the upper part of that condyle, a little above which, the femoral artery takes a spiral turn towards the ham, passing between this muscle and the bone. For its use, see *Triceps adductor femoris*.

ADDUCTOR MEDII DIGITI PEDIS. An external interosseous muscle of the foot. It arises, tendinous and fleshy, from the roots of the metatarsal bones of the second and third toes. It is inserted, tendinous, into the outside of the root of the first joint of the second-toe. Its use is to pull the second-toe outwards.

ADDUCTOR METACARPI MINIMI DIGITI MANUS. *Metacarpus* of Winslow. *Flexor primi internodii minimi digiti* of Douglas. A muscle situated on the hand, which arises, fleshy, from the thin edge of the os unciforme, and from that part of the ligament of the wrist next it. It is inserted, tendinous, into the inner side and anterior part of the metacarpal bone of this finger. Its use is to bend and bring the metacarpal bone of this finger towards the rest.

ADDUCTOR AD MINIMUM DIGITUM. See *Adductor pollicis manus*.

ADDUCTOR MINIMI DIGITI PEDIS. An internal interosseous muscle of the foot. It arises, tendinous and fleshy, from the inside of the root of the metatarsal bone of the little-toe. It is inserted, tendinous, into the inside of the root of the first joint of the little-toe. Its use is to pull the little-toe inwards.

ADDUCTOR OCULI. See *Rectus internus oculi*.

ADDUCTOR POLLICIS. See *Adductor pollicis manus*.

ADDUCTOR POLLICIS MANUS. *Adductor pollicis.* *Adductor ad minimum digitum.* A muscle of the thumb, situated on the hand, which arises fleshy, from almost the whole length of the metacarpal bone that sustains the middle-finger; from thence its fibres are collected together. It is inserted, tendinous, into the inner part of the root of the first bone of the thumb. Its use is to pull the thumb towards the fingers.

ADDUCTOR POLLICIS PEDIS. *Antitibienar* of Winslow. A muscle of the great-toe, situated on the foot: it arises, by a long thin tendon, from the os calcis, from the os cuboideum, from the os cuneiforme externum, and from the root of the metatarsal bone of the second-toe. It is inserted into the external os sesamoideum, at the root of the metatarsal bone of the great-toe. Its use is to bring this toe nearer to the rest.

ADDUCTOR TERTII DIGITI PEDIS. An external interosseous muscle of the foot, that arises, tendinous and fleshy, from the roots of the metatarsal bones of the third and little-toe. It is inserted, tendinous, into the outside of the root of the first joint of the third-toe. Its use is to pull the third-toe outward.

ADĒN, (*Adn*, a gland). A gland.

ADENIFORM, (*Adeniformis*; from *adn*, a gland, and *forma*, resemblance). Glandiform, or resembling a gland. A term sometimes applied to the prostate gland.

ADENOGRAPHY, (*Adenographia*, *æ*, f. *αδηνογραφία*; from *αδην*, a gland, and *γραφειν*, to write). A treatise on the glands.

ADENOLOGY, (*Adenologia*, *æ*, f. *αδηνολογία*; from *αδην*, a gland, and *λογος*, a discourse). The doctrine of the glands. See *Glands*.

ADENOUS ABSCESS, (*Abscessus adenofus*; from *αδην*, a gland). A hard glandular abscess, which suppurates slowly.

ADEPS, (*Adeps*, *īpis*, m. et f. fat). An oily secretion from the blood into the cells of the cellular membrane. See *Fat*.

ADHÆSION, (*Adhæsiō*, *onis*, f.; from *adhæreo*, to stick to). The growing together of parts.

ADHÆSIVE INFLAMMATION. A term lately introduced into surgery, to express that species of inflammation which terminates by an adhæsiō of the inflamed surfaces; thus the pleura of the lungs, when inflamed, unites to that of the ribs.

ADIANTHUM, (*Adiantum*, *i*, n. *αδιαντον*; from *α*, neg. and *δανω*, to grow wet; so called because its leaves are not easily made wet). *Adiantum capillus veneris*. Maiden hair. This plant, *Adiantum capillus veneris*; *frondibus decompositis, foliolis alternis primis cuneiformibus lobatis pedicellatis* of Linnæus, is somewhat sweet and austere to the palate, and possesses mucilaginous qualities. A syrup, the *syrup de capillaire*, is prepared from it, which is much esteemed in France.

ADIANTHUM AURÆUM. The plant which is thus called in the pharmacopæias, is the *Polytricum commune*; *caule simplici, anthera parallelepipedâ*: the *varietas α* of *P. commune* of Linnæus. It possesses, in an inferior degree, adstringent virtues; and was formerly given in diseases of the lungs and calculous complaints.

ADIANTHUM CAPILLUS VENERIS. The systematic name for the *Adiantum*. See *Adiantum*.

ADIAPNEUSTIA, (*Adiapneustia*, *æ*, f. *αδιαπνευστία*; from *α*, priv. and *διαπνεω*, to perspire). A diminution or obstruction of the natural perspiration.

ADIPOSE MEMBRANE, (*Membrāna adipōsa*, from *adeps*, fat). The fat collected in the cells of the cellular membrane.

ADIPSIA, (*Adipsia*, *æ*, f. from *α*, neg. and *διψα*, thirst). A want of thirst. A genus of disease in the class *locales*, and order *dysorexia* of Cullen's nosology. It is always symptomatic of some disease of the *sensorium*.

ADNATA TUNICA, (*Adnata*, from *adnascor*, to grow to). *Albuginea oculi*. *Tunica albuginea oculi*. This membrane is mostly confounded with the *conjunctiva*. It is, however, thus formed: five of the muscles which move the eyes, take their origin from the bottom of the orbit, and the sixth arises from the edge of it; they are all inserted by a tendinous expansion into the anterior part of the *tunica sclerotica*; which expansion gives the whiteness peculiar to the fore part of the eye. It lies betwixt the *sclerotica* and *conjunctiva*.

ADOPTER. *Tubus intermedius*. A chemical instrument used to combine retorts to the cucurbits or matrasses in distillation, with retorts instead of receivers.

ADPONDUS OMNIUM. The weight of the whole. These words are inserted in pharmaceutical preparations or prescriptions, when the last ingredient ought to weigh as much as all the others put together.

ADSTRICTION, (*Adstrictio*, *onis*, f.) Costiveness.

ADSTRINGENTS, (*Adstringentia*, *sc. medicamenta*; from *ad*, and *stringo*, to bind). *Astringents*. In medicine are those substances, which possess a power of condensing the animal fibre. To the taste they impart a sense of dryness, and a remarkable corrugation in the parts on which they immediately act. They are administered

to restore diminished tonic power, secretions morbidly augmented, as the alvine secretions, &c. This class of medicines comprehends four orders: 1. *Styptic adstringents*, as *alumen*, *quercus*, *galla*; which are particularly adapted for the aged, those exhausted by long-continued evacuations, and those whose diseases are particularly urgent. 2. *Corrugating adstringents*, as *rosa*, *quercus*, *galla*; which suit the irritable and delicate. 3. *Indurating adstringents*, as *alkohol*, *acida*; which are applicable for every constitution. 4. *Tonic adstringents*, as exercise, cold, friction, &c. which are best calculated for the young and sanguineous. In surgery, adstringents are those substances which procure a constriction of the orifices of ruptured vessels; such are, *cuprum*, *oleum terebinthinæ*, &c.

ADVENTITIOUS. Any thing that accidentally, and not in the common course of natural causes, happens to make a part of another; as the glands in strumous cases are said to be *adventitious glands*, in distinction from those which are naturally produced. It is also used in opposition to hereditary; thus gout and scrophula are sometimes hereditary, and very often adventitious, they having never before been known in the family.

ADYNAMIA, (*Adynamia*, *α*, f. *αδυναμία*; from *α*, priv. and *δυναμις*, power). A defect of vital power. It constitutes the second order of the class *neuroses* of Cullen's nosology; and comprehends, *syncope*, *dyspepsia*, and *hypochondriasis*.

ÆDOIA, (*Ædoia*; from *αἰδώς*, modesty; or from *α*, neg. and *εἶδος*, to see; as not being decent to the sight). The pudenda, or parts of generation.

ÆDOPSOPHIA, (*Ædopsophia*, *α*, f. *αἰδοψοφία*; from *αἰδώς*, pudenda, and *ψοφία*, to break wind). A term used by *Sauvages* and *Sagar*, to signify a flatus from the bladder, or from the womb, making its escape through the vagina.

ÆGILOPS, (*Ægilops*, *ὄπισ. f. αἰγίλωψ*; from *αἶξ*, *αἶγος*, a goat, and *ὤψ*, an eye; goat's eye: so called because goats are said to be very subject to this disease). *Anchylops*. An ulcer in the internal canthus of the eye.

ÆR FIXUS. See *Carbonic acid*.

ÆROLOGIA. See *Ærologice*.

ÆROLOGICE, (*Ærologice*, *es*, f. *αερολογικη*; from *αἰρ*, air, and *λογος* a discourse). *Aerologia*. That part of medicine which treats of air, explains its properties and use in the animal œconomy, and its efficacy in preserving and restoring health.

ÆROPHOBIA, (*Ærophobi*, *αεροφοβία*; from *αἰρ* and *φοβος*, fear). According to Cælius Aurelianus, some phrenetic patients are afraid of a lucid, and others of an obscure air; and then he calls *ærophobi*.

ÆROPHOBIA, (*Ærophobia*, *α*, f. *αεροφοβία*; from *αἰρ*, air, and *φοβος* fear). A dread of air. An occasional symptom of phrenitis.

ÆRUGO PRÆPARATA, (*Æruginis*, f.). Prepared verdigris. It is much esteemed as an escharotic, with which intention the *unguentum ærginis* is formed. Mixed with an equal quantity of savine powder, it destroys venereal warts. In the new chemical nomenclature, prepared verdigris is termed *oxydum cupri viride per acidum acetosum*.

ÆSCULUS HIPPOCASTANUM, (*Æculus*, *i*, f. from *esca*, food). The systematic name for the *Hippocastanum*. See *Hippocastanum*.

ÆSTUARĪUM, (*Æstuarium*, *i*, n.). A stove for conveying heat to all parts of the body at once. A kind of vapour bath. *Ambrose Parey* calls this instrument thus, which he describes for conveying heat to any particular part. *Palmarius de morbis contagiosis* gives a contrivance under this name for sweating the whole body.

ÆSTUS VOLATICUS. Sudden heat, which soon goes off, but which soon time reddens the face.

ÆTHER, (*Æther, Æris*, m. from *αιθήρ*, a supposed fine, subtile substance or medicine). A liquor obtained by distillation from a mixture of alkohol and a concentrated acid. It is much lighter, more volatile, and more inflammable, than rectified spirit of wine; and possesses nervine, antispasmodic, stomachic, and tonic powers.

ÆTHER VITRIOLICUS. *Naptha vitrioli*. Vitriolic æther of the pharmacopæias is termed sulphuric æther in the new chemical nomenclature. It is mostly employed as an excitant, nervine, antispasmodic, and diuretic, in cases of spasms, *cardialgia*, *enteralgia*, fevers, *hysteria*, *cephalgia*, and spasmodic asthma. Externally it cures tooth-ach and violent pains of the head.

ÆTHMOID ARTERY. See *Ethmoid artery*.

ÆTHMOID BONE. See *Ethmoid bone*.

ÆTHŪSA MĒUM. The systematic name for the *meum athamanticum*. See *Meum athamanticum*.

ÆTIOLOGY, (*Ætiologia*, *a*, f. *αιτιολογία*; from *αιτιο*, a cause, and *λογος*, a discourse). The doctrine of the causes of diseases.

AFFINITY, (*Affinitas*). Chemical affinity. Powers of attraction or relation. Elective attraction. A term used by chemists to denote the continual tendency to bring principles together, which are disunited; and to retain with more or less energy, those which are already in combination. The affinities or attractions usually mentioned by chemists are the following:

AFFINITY OF AGGREGATION. Mechanical affinity. This takes place between bodies of the same kind. It is that power by which homogeneous bodies have a natural tendency to remain in contact until they be separated by the action of some superior force: thus two drops of water unite into one, and form an aggregate: thus two globules of mer-

cury, placed at a certain distance from each other, tend, by virtue of this force, to unite, and do actually enter into union; forming a sphere greater in bulk, but precisely the same in nature; *i. e.* they undergo new modifications without any sensible change being produced in their chemical qualities. According to the degree of force with which this power acts, are produced, 1. The *hard*, or *solid aggregate*. 2. The *soft aggregate*. 3. The *fluid aggregate*. 4. The *aeriform aggregate*. This affinity of aggregation is affected by heat, and by mechanical separation.

AFFINITY OF COMPOSITION. Chemical affinity. *Mixing affinity*. *Affinitas synthetica*. This is that power by virtue of which bodies of different natures unite and form new combinations: thus, water and salt, alkohol and resin, nitric acid and potash, &c. &c. unite by means of this affinity. The general principles or laws by which this power acts, are, 1. It acts on the constituent parts of bodies of different natures. 2. It acts only between the minutest particles of bodies. 3. It can unite more bodies than two. 4. It may take place between two bodies; but one, at least, of the two must be in a fluid state. 5. When two or more bodies are combined by this affinity, their temperature suffers a change at the instant of their union. 6. Two or more bodies, united by the attraction of composition, form a substance, the properties of which are different from those which each of the bodies possessed before their union. 7. The attraction of composition is measurable by the difficulty of destroying the combination formed between two or more bodies. 8. Bodies have not all the same degree of chemical attraction with regard to one another; and the degrees of this force, subsisting between different bodies, may be determined by observation.

AFFINITY, COMPOUND. When three or more bodies, on account of their mutual affinity, unite and form one homogeneous body, then the affinity is termed compound affinity or attraction: thus, if to a solution of sugar in water be added spirits of wine, these three bodies will form an homogeneous liquid by compound affinity.

AFFINITY, DOUBLE. *Double elective Attraction.* When two bodies, each consisting of two elementary parts, come into contact, and are decomposed, so that their elements become reciprocally united, and produce two new compound bodies, the decomposition is then termed, decomposition by double affinity: thus, if we add common salt, which consists of muriatic acid and soda, to nitrate of silver, which is composed of nitric acid and silver, these two bodies will be decomposed; for the nitric acid unites with the soda, and the silver with the muriatic acid, and thus may be obtained two new bodies. The common salt and nitrate of silver therefore mutually decompose each other by what is called double affinity.

AFFINITY, INTERMEDIATE. *Appropriate affinity.* *Affinity of an intermediate*—is, when two substances of different kinds, that show to one another no component affinity, do, by the assistance of a third, combine, and unite into an homogeneous whole: thus, oil and water are substances of different kinds, which, by means of alkali, combine and unite into an homogeneous substance: hence the theory of lixiviums, of washing, &c.

AFFINITY, QUIESCENT AND DIVELLENT. Mr. Kirwan employs the term *Quiescent affinity* to mark that, by virtue of which, the principles of each compound of two bodies, decomposed by double affinity, adhere to each other; and *Divellent affinity*, to distinguish that by which the principles of one body unite and change

order with those of the other; thus sulphate of potash or vitriolated tartar is not completely decomposed by the nitric acid or by lime, when either of these principles is separately presented; but if the nitric acid be combined with lime, this nitrate of lime will decompose the sulphate of potash. In this last case the affinity of the sulphuric acid with the alkali is weakened by its affinity to the lime. This acid, therefore, is subject to two affinities, the one which retains it to the alkali, called quiescent, and the other which attracts it towards the lime, called divellent affinity.

AFFINITY, RECIPROCAL. When a compound of two bodies is decomposed by a third; the separated principle being in its turn capable of decomposing the new combination.

AFFINITY, SIMPLE. *Single elective Attraction.* If a body, consisting of two component parts, be decomposed on the approach of a third, which has a greater affinity with one of those component parts than with the other, then the decomposition is termed, decomposition by simple affinity; for instance, if pure potash be added to a combination of nitric acid and lime, the union which existed between these two bodies will cease, because the potash combines with the nitric acid, and the lime being disengaged is precipitated. The reason is, that the nitric acid has a greater affinity for the pure potash than for the lime, therefore it deserts the lime to combine with the potash. When two bodies only enter into chemical union, the affinity, which was the cause of it, is also termed simple or single elective attraction; thus the solution of sugar and water is produced by simple affinity, because there are but two bodies.

AFFLATUS, (*Afflatus, us, m.*). A vapour or blast. A species of erysipelas, which attacks people suddenly

AGALACTĪA, (*Agalactia*, *a*, f. *αγαλαχία*; from *α*, priv. and *γαλα*, milk). A defect of milk in child bed.

AGALACTOS, (*Αγαλακτος*; from *α*, priv. and *γαλα*, milk). An epithet given to a woman who has no milk when she lies in.

AGALLOCHI VERI LIGNUM. See *Lignum aloes*.

AGARIC. See *Agaricus*.

AGARĪCUS, (*Agaricus*, *i*, m. *αγαρίκος*; from *Agaria*, a town in Asia; or from *Agarus*, a river in Sarmatia, now Malowonda). *Agaricus chirurgorum*. *Agaricus quercus*. *Agaric of the oak*. *Touchwood boletus*. This fungus *Boletus igniarius*; *acaulis pulvinatus levis*, *poris tenuissimis* of Linnæus, has been much used by surgeons as an external styptic. Though still employed on the continent, the surgeons in this country have very wisely declared its inefficacy.

AGARĪCUS ALBUS. The plant known by this name in the pharmacopœias, is the *Boletus laricis*. Several preparations, as trochiscs, an extract, and pills, are ordered to be made with it in foreign pharmacopœias, which are administered against phthysical complaints.

AGARĪCUS CHIRURGŌRUM. See *Agaricus*.

AGARĪCUS MUSCARIUS. This fungus is the *Agaricus muscarius*; *stipitatus*, *lamellis dimidiatis solitariis*, *stipite volvato apice dilatato basi ovato* of Linnæus. The use of this vegetable is not much known in this country. It is employed externally to itrumous, phagedenic, and fistulous ulcers, as an escharotic.

AGE. The antients reckoned six stages of life: *pueritia*, childhood, which is to the fifth year of our age;—*adolescētia*, youth, reckoned to the eighteenth, and youth properly so called to the twenty-fifth year;—*juventus*, reckoned from the twenty-fifth to the thirty-fifth year;—*virilis ætas*, manhood, from the thirty-fifth to the

fiftieth year;—*senectus*, old age, from fifty to sixty, —*crepita ætas*, decrepid age, which ends in death.

AGENESĪA, (*Agenesia*, *a*, f. *αγενισια*; from *α*, neg. and *γινωμαι*, to beget). Impotency in man. A term employed by Vogel. It is synonymous with *anaphrodisia* and *dyspermatismus*.

AGERĀTUM, (*Ageratum*, *i*, n. *αγεραιον*; from *α*, priv. and *γηραις*, *senectus*, never old, ever green). *Balsamita femina*. *Eupatorium mezues*. Maudlin. The *ageratum* of the pharmacopœias is the *Achillea ageratum foliis lanceolatis, obtusis, acute serratis* of Linnæus. It is esteemed in some countries as an anthelmintic and alterative, and is given in hepatic obstructions.

AGEUSTĪA, (*Ageusia*, *a*, f. *αγευσια*; from *α*, neg. and *γευω*, to taste). *Ageusia*. A want of, or diminished taste. A genus of disease in the class *locales*, and order *dysæsthesia*, of Cullen. It is mostly symptomatic of fever, paralysis, &c.

AGGLUTITĪO, (*Agglutitio, onis*, f.). Obstruction in the œsophagus, or a difficulty in swallowing.

AGGREGATE GLANDS, (*Glandule aggregatæ*; from *aggrego*, to assemble together). An assemblage of glands, as those of the intestines.

AGGREGATION, (*Aggregatio, onis*, f.) See *Affinity*.

AGNĪNA MEMBRĀNA. A term given by Aetius to what we now call the *amnios*.

AGNUS CASTUS, (from *αγνος*, a lamb; so called from the down upon its surface, which resembles that upon a lamb's skin; and *castus*, because the chaste matrons, at the feasts of Ceres, strewed them upon their beds, and lay upon them). The plant bearing this name in the pharmacopœias is the *Vitex agnus castus*; *foliis digitalis, serratis, spicis verticillatis* of Linneus. The seeds are the medicinal part, which have, when fresh, a fragrant

smell, and an acrid, aromatic taste: they are now fallen into disuse.

AGOMPHIASIS, (*Agomphiasis*, *is*, f. *αγομφιασις*; from *α*, neg. and *γόμενος*, compact). A loosening of the teeth.

AGŌNĪA, (*Agonia*, *a*, f. *αγωνία*; from *α*, priv. and *γονος*, an offspring). Sterility.

AGŌNĪA, (*Agonia*, *a*, f. *αγωνία*; from *αγωνίζεσθαι*, to struggle). Agony, as when there is a struggle between life and death. Also fear and sadness of mind.

AGRĪA, (*Agria*, *e*, f. *αγρία*; from *αγριος*, wild). Holly; also a malignant pustule.

AGRIMŌNĪA, (*Agrimonia*, *a*, f. *αγριμωνία*; from *αγρος*, a field, and *μονος*, alone: so named from its being the chief of all wild herbs). Common agrimony, *Agrimonia Eupatoria*; *foliis caulinis pinnatis, impari petiolata, fructibus hispidis* of Linnæus. A common plant about hedges and ditches, which possesses adstringent and corroborant qualities; and has been administered as a deobstruent in hepatic and other visceral obstructions.

AGRIMŌNĪA EUPATORĪA, (called *Eupatoria*; from *Eupator*, its inventor; or quasi *hepatorium*, *ηπατοριον*; from *ηπαρ*, the liver; because it is useful in diseases of the liver). The systematic name for the *Agrimonia* of the pharmacopœias. See *Agrimonia*.

AGRIMONY. See *Agrimonia*.

AGRIMONY, HEMP. See *Eupatorium*.

AGRIPPÆ. Those children were formerly so called who were born with their feet foremost; because Agrippa, the Roman, was said to be so born.

AGRYPNĪA, (*Agrypnia*, *a*, f. *αγρυπνία*; from *α*, priv. and *υπνος*, sleep). Without sleep.

AGUE. See *Febris intermittens*.

AIR, COMMON, (*Aer*, *aëris*, m). *Atmospherical air*. *Atmosphere*. An invisible, inodorous, compound fluid, capable of rarefaction and condensa-

tion, which every where invests the globe. It is composed of azot and oxygen gas, in the proportion of 73 of azot to 27 of oxygen in a state of mixture. Its physical properties are, fluidity, invisibility, want of taste and smell, gravity, and elasticity. The chemical properties are of two kinds, viz. the property of promoting combustion, and the power of maintaining the life of animals that respire it.

AISTHETĒRĪUM, (*Aistheterium*, *i*, n. *αισθητήριον*; from *αισθάνομαι*, to perceive). The *Sensorium commune*. See *Sensorium*.

AIX LA CHAPELLE. A town in the south of France, where there is a sulphureous water, the most striking feature of which, and what is almost peculiar to it, is the unusual quantity of sulphur it contains; the whole, however, is so far united to a gaseous basis, as to be entirely volatilized by heat: so that none is left in the residuum after evaporation. This thermal water is much resorted to on the continent, for a variety of complaints. It is found essentially serviceable in the numerous symptoms of disorders in the stomach and biliary organs, that follow a life of high indulgence in the luxuries of the table; in nephritic cases; stiffness and rigidity of the joints and ligaments, from rheumatism and gout; in palsy, and in the distressing debility which follows a long course of mercury and excessive salivation.

AJAVA. The name given by the Portuguese to a seed from the Malabar coast, which is in the East celebrated as a remedy for the colic.

AJUGA PYRAMĪDĀLIS. The systematic name for the *Consolida media* of the pharmacopœias. See *Consolida media*.

ALA, (*Ala*, *a*, f.). The arm pit.

ALÆ, (*Ala*, *a*, f.). Wings. This term is frequently applied to any part extended like a wing, as the alæ of the sphæroid bone.

ALÆ NASI. *Pinna nasi*. The lateral and moveable parts of the nose.

ALÆ VESPERTILIONUM. (*Vesperilio, ōnis, m. quod vesperi volet*). That part of the ligaments of the womb, which is between the tubes and the *ovaria*: so called from its resemblance to the wing of a bat.

ALBUGINĒA OCŪLI, (*Albuginea, sc. tunica*; from *albus*, white). See *Adnata*.

ALBUGINĒA TESTIS. (*Tunica albuginea testis*. *Albuginea*; from *albus*, white: so called on account of its white colour). The innermost coat of the testicle. It is a strong, white, and dense membrane, immediately covering the body or substance of the testicle. On its outer surface it is smooth, but rough and uneven on the inner.

ALBŪGO OCŪLI, (*Albugo, ūnis, f.* from *albus*, white). A white speck or opacity of the cornea.

ALBŪMEN, (*Albumen, ūnis, n.*). *Albumēna*. Albuminous matter. Coagulable lymph. Albumen is very abundant in the animal kingdom. It is the principal constituent part of the serum of the blood, and the lymphatic fluid. It forms the cheese in milk, and makes up the greater part of the white of eggs. It is composed of carbon, hydrogen, azot, oxygen, phosphorus, and somewhat of calcareous earth.

ALBŪMEN OVI. The white of an egg.

ALCALI. See *Alkali*.

ALCĒA ROSIA. The systematic name for the *Malva arborea*. See *Malva arborea*.

ALCHEMILLA, (*Alchemilla, æ, f.*: so called because it was celebrated by the old alchemists). Lady's mantle. The plant to which this name is given in the pharmacopœias is the *Alchemilla vulgaris, foliis lobatis* of Linnæus. It was formerly esteemed as a powerful adstringent in hemorrhages, fluor albus, &c. given internally.

ALCHEMY, (*Alchemia, æ, f.*; from the Arabic particle *al*, which is added by way of eminence, and *χῡμα*, to melt). That part of chemistry which relates particularly to the transmutation of metals.

ALCOHOL. See *Alkohol*.

ALDER TREE. See *Alnus*, and *Frangula*.

ALDER-BERRY, BEARING. See *Frangula*.

ALEMBIC, (*Alembicus, i, m.*; from the Arabian particle *al*, and *أصبع*, from *أصعد*, to ascend). Moorthead. A chemical utensil made of glass, metal, or earthenware, and adapted to receive volatile products from retorts. It consists of a body, to which is fitted a conical head, and out of this head descends laterally a beak to be inserted into the receiver.

ALEXANDERS, COMMON. This plant, *Smyrniū olusatrum* of Linnæus, was formerly cultivated for salads. It is now superceded by celery.

ALEXANDERS, ROUND LEAVED. *Smyrniū perfoliatum* of Linnæus. The blanched stalks of this species are far preferable to those of common alexanders, and are esteemed as stomachic and nervine.

ALEXIPHARMICS, (*Alexipharmica, sc. medicamenta*, from *ἀλεξω*, to expel, and *φάρμακον*, a poison). Medicines which counteract poisons.

ALGĒDO, (*Algedo, ūnis, f.*; from *αλγος*, pain). A violent pain about the anus, perinæum, testes, urethra, and bladder, arising from the sudden stoppage of a virulent gonorrhea. A term very seldom used.

ALGOR, (*Algor, ōris, m.*). A sudden chillness or rigor. A term met with in Sauvage's and Sagar's nology.

ALIENATIO MENTIS. See *Delirium*.

ALIFORMES MUSCŪLI. See *Pterigord muscles*.

ALIFORMIS; (from *ala*, a wing, and *forma*, resemblance.) Wing-like.

ALIMENTS. Those substances which taken into the stomach are fitted to afford and supply the fluid and matter of which the body is composed.

ALKALI, (*Alkali*, n. ind. and *alkalia* in the plural; so called from *kali*, a plant, from which it is obtained). *Alcali*. A term given to substances, which possess an acrid, burning, urinous smell; convert syrup of violets to a green colour; render oils miscible with water; and effervesce with certain acids. Alkalis are either *fixed*, that is, they are not reduced to the state of gas, by the most intense heat; or they are *volatile*, i. e. the common temperature is almost sufficient to change their state of aggregation: potash, or fixed vegetable alkali, and soda, or fixed mineral alkali, are of the former kind; and, of the latter, ammoniac, or volatile alkali, is the only one known. Alkalis are seldom pure; they are usually combined with carbonic acid in the form of neutral salts. In this state they are termed *mild, common, aerated, or carbonated alkalis*, to distinguish them from pure or caustic alkalis. There are only three kinds of alkalis at present known, which are distinguished in the new chemical nomenclature by the names, *potash, soda, and ammoniac*; and in the pharmacopœias, by the terms, *kali, natron, and volatile alkali*. See *Potash, Soda, and Ammoniac*.

ALKALI, CAUSTIC: *Alkali causticum*. Alkalis are so called when deprived of the carbonic acid they contain, for they then become more caustic and more violent in their action. There are two kinds, the mineral, called *soda*, or caustic mineral alkali, in the new chemical nomenclature, and *natron* in the pharmacopœias; and *potassa*, or caustic vegetable alkali, of the new chemical nomenclature, and *kali* of the pharmacopœias. The volatile alkali, or *ammoniac*, is likewise called caustic volatile alkali.

ALKALI, FIXED. Those alkalis are so called, that emit no characteristic smell, and cannot be volatilized. Two kinds of fixed alkalis have only hitherto been known, namely, the vegetable alkali, or potash; and the mineral, or soda. See *Potash* and *Soda*.

ALKALI, FOSSILE. See *Soda*.

ALKALI, MINERAL, (*Alkali Minerale*: so called because it forms the basis of marine salt, a mineral production). See *Soda*.

ALKALI, VEGETABLE, (*Alkali vegetabile*: so called because it abounds in many vegetables). See *Potash*.

ALKALI, VOLATILE, (*Alkali volatile*: so called because it is volatile, in opposition to the other alkalis, which are fixed). See *Ammoniac*.

ALKALI VOLATILE NITRATUM. See *Ammoniac*.

ALKALI VOLATILE VITRIOLATUM. See *Ammoniac*.

ALKALIZATION, (*Alkalizatio, onis, f.*). Alcalization. The impregnating any thing with an alkaline salt, as spirit of wine, &c.

ALKANNA. See *Anchusa*.

ALKANNA VERA. *Alkanna orientalis*. An oriental plant; the *Lawsonia inermis, ramis inernibus*, of Linnæus; principally employed in its native place as a dye. The root is the officinal part; which, however, is rarely met with in the shops. It possesses adstringent properties, and may be used as a substitute for the *anchusa*.

ALKEKENGİ, (*Alkekengi, Arab.*). *Halicabacum*. Winter Cherry. This plant, *Physalis alkekengi; foliis geminis integris acutis, caule herbaceo, inferne subramoso*, of Linnæus, is cultivated in our gardens. The berries are recommended as a diuretic, from six to twelve for a dose, in dropical and calculous diseases.

ALCOHOL, (*Alkohol, lis, n.* from an Arabian word, which signifies antimony: so called from the usage of the Eastern ladies to paint their eyebrows with antimouy, reduced to a

most subtle powder; which at last came to signify any thing exalted to its highest perfection). *Spiritus vini concentratus*. *Spiritus vini rectificatissimus*. Alcohol is highly rectified spirit of wine, freed from all those aqueous particles which are not essential to it by duly performed rectification. In its purest state, it is quite colourless, and clear, of a strong and penetrating smell and taste; capable of being set on fire without a wick, and burning with a flame, without leaving a residue, and without smoke and foot. Alcohol is miscible with water in all proportions. It does not freeze in any degree of coldness. It is the direct menstruum or solvent of resins. It dissolves, also, the natural balsams. As the resinous and various other parts of plants are soluble in alcohol, this fluid is made use of for extracting those parts, and for making the preparations called *elixirs*, *tinctures*, *essences*, &c.

ALLANTOID MEMBRANE, (*Membrana allantoidea*; from *αλλας*, a hogs pudding, and *ειδος*, likeness; because in some brute animals it is long and thick). A membrane of the fetus; peculiar to brutes, which contains the urine discharged from the bladder.

ALL-GOOD. *English mercury*. The vulgar name for the *Chenopodium bonus Henricus* of Linnæus; a plant which may be boiled for spinach, and which is in no degree inferior to it.

ALLIARIA, (*Alliaria*, *a*, f.; from *allium*, garlick; from its smell resembling garlick). Jack of the hedge. Sauce alone, or stinking hedge mustard. The plant to which this name is given in the pharmacopœias is the *Erysimum alliaria*; *foliis cordatis* of Linnæus; it is sometimes exhibited in humoral asthma and dyspnea with success. Its virtues are powerfully diaphoretic, diuretic, and antiscorbutic.

ALLIUM, (*Allium*, *i*, n.; from *oleo*, to smell). Garlick. *Allium sativum caule planifolio bulbifero*, *bulbo*

composito, *staminibus tricuspidatis* of Linnæus. Class. *Hexandria*. Order. *Monoecia*. It is a native of Sicily; but as it is much used, both for culinary and medicinal purposes, it is cultivated in our gardens. Every part of the plant, but more especially the root, has a pungent taste, and a peculiar offensive smell. The medicinal uses of garlick are various: it is given as an expectorant in pituitous asthmas. Its utility, as a diuretic, in dropsies, is very considerable. It is also esteemed as an antihelmintic; and the decoction of the root is of infinite service in calculous and gravelly complaints. The syrup and oxymel of garlick are expunged from our pharmacopœias, as the swallowing of the root in small pieces is considered the best way of administering it.

ALLIUM CEPA. The systematic name for the *Cepa* of the shops. See *Cepa*.

ALLIUM PORRUM. The systematic name for the *Porrum* of the pharmacopœias. See *Porrum*.

ALLIUM SATIVUM. The systematic name for *Allium*. See *Allium*.

ALLIUM VICTORĀLIS. The systematic name for the *Victoralis longa* of the pharmacopœias. See *Victoralis longa*.

ALLOTRIOPHAGIA, (*Allotriophagia*, *a*, f.; *αλλοτριοφαγια*; from *αλλοτριος*, foreign, and *φαγω*, to eat). A synonym of *pica*. See *Pica*. In Vogel's nosology it signifies the greedily eating unusual things for food.

ALLOYS. By this word chemists and artificers commonly understand any portion of base metal, or metallic mixture, which is added to combine metals by fusion into one seemingly homogeneous mass.

ALLSPICE. See *Pimento*.

ALMOND, BITTER. See *Amygdala*.

ALMOND, COMMON. See *Amygdala*.

ALMOND, SWEET. See *Amygdala*.

ALMONDS OF THE EARS. The

tonsils are vulgarly so called from their situation and resemblance. See *Tonsils*.

ALMONDS OF THE THROAT. A vulgar name for the tonsils. See *Tonsils*.

ALNUS, (*Alnus*, i, f.). The birch-tree. The juice of the fresh leaves of this plant, *Betula alnus*; *pediculis ramosis* of Linnæus, are employed to discuss the milk from the breasts of women with success.

ALOE. See *Aloes*.

ALOES, (*Aloë*, es, f. from *ablah*, a Hebrew word, signifying growing near the sea.) The deep red or brown and very bitter juice of the *Aloe perfoliata* of Linnæus. *Aloe, foliis caulinis dentatis amplexicaulibus vaginantibus, floribus corymbosis, cernuis, pedunculatis, subcylindricis. Class.* Hexandria. *Order.* Monogynia. The special character of a variety, *Aloe perfoliata socotorina*, is *Aloe socotorina, foliis longissimis et angustissimis, marginibus spinosis, floribus spicatis*. Aloes are distinguished into three species—socotrine, hepatic, and cabaline; these differ only in their respective degrees of purity, the first being the best. They are obtained in the following manner: deep incisions are made, from which the juice flows; this is decanted from its fecula, and thickened by the sun's heat, in which state it is packed in leather bags, under the denomination of *socotrine aloes*. The juice obtained by pressure from the leaves, after it is purified by standing, and dried, is the *hepatic aloes*, or *aloe barbadensis*. The same leaves, by stronger pressure, afford more juice, which, mixed with the dregs of the two foregoing, constitutes the *cabaline aloes*. The first sort contains a much less quantity of resin than the two last, which are more strongly purgative. Aloes is esteemed the best laxative for women with suppressed catamenia, and is much employed as an antihel-

mintic. The following preparations of this drug are directed in the London and Edinburgh pharmacopœias, viz. the *vinum aloes*; *tinctura aloes*; *tinctura aloes composita*; *tinctura benzoes composita*; *pulvis aloeticus*; *pulvis aloeticus cum guaiaco*; *pulvis aloeticus cum ferro*; *pulvis e scammonio cum aloes*; *pilule ex aloes*; and the *pilule ex aloes cum myrrha*.

ALOËS LIGNUM. See *Lignum aloes*.

ALPHUS, (*Alphus*, i. m. αλφος; from αλφαινω, to change; because it changes the colour of the skin). *Vitiligo alba. Morphæa alba. Lepra maculosa alba*. A species of leprosy, in which white spots appear upon the skin. It is produced by a peculiar miasma, which is endemial to Arabia.

ALSINE MEDIÀ, (*Alfine*, es, f. from αλκος, a grove). The systematic name for the plant, called chickweed; which, if boiled tender, may be eaten like spinach, and forms also an excellent emollient poultice.

ALTERATIVES, (*Alterantia*, sc. *medicamenta*; from altero, to change). Those remedies are so called, which are given with a view to re-establish the healthy functions of the animal œconomy, without producing any sensible evacuation.

ALTHÆA, (*Althæa*, f. from αλθεω, to heal; so called from its supposed qualities in healing). Marsh-mallow. *Althæa officinalis* of Linnæus. *Althæa foliis simplicibus tomentosis. Class.* Monadelphia. *Order.* Polyandria. The gluten or mucilaginous matter with which this plant abounds is the medicinal part of the plant; it is commonly employed for its emollient and demulcent qualities in coughs, hoarseness, and catarrhs. The root had formerly a place in many of the compounds in the pharmacopœias, but now it is only directed in the form of syrup.

ALTHÆA OFFICINĀLIS. The

Systematic name for the *Althæa* of the shops. See *Althæa*.

ALUDELS. Hollow spheres of stone; or earthenware, with a short neck projecting at each end, by means of which one globe might be set upon the other. The uppermost has no opening at the top. They were used in former times for the sublimation of several substances.

ALUM. See *Alumen*.

ALUMEN, (Alūmen, inis, n.). Alum. The substance directed in the pharmacopœias by this name is called in the new chemical nomenclature, *sulphas aluminæ acidulus cum potassa*, and *argilla vitriolata*, by Bergman. It is a neutral salt, formed by the combination of the earth called *alumin*, or pure clay, and sulphuric acid. The alum of commerce, and that presented for medicinal purposes, is afforded by ores which are dug out of the earth for this purpose, and manufactured by first decomposing the ore, then lixiviating it, evaporating the lixiviums, and then crystallizing the alum, which affects the form of tetrahedral pyramids, applied to each other base to base; sometimes the angles are truncated. The following kinds of alum are met with in the shops:

1. *Ice or rock alum.* This is always in very large transparent masses, and derives its name from Rocca in Syria, now called Edeffa, in which the earliest manufactory of this salt was established. This species is not very pure.

2. *Roman alum*, which is prepared in the territory of Civita-Vecchia. This species comes in lumps of the size of eggs, covered with a reddish effervescence.

Alum, when tasted at first, imparts a sweetness, but is soon felt to be strongly astringent; on account of which virtue it is of very extensive use in medicine and surgery. Internally it is given in hæmoptoe, colica pictonum, chronic pains of the bowels and encephalis. Externally it is ap-

plied as a styptic to bleeding vessels and to ulcers, where there is too copious a secretion of pus.

Alum is also applied to many purposes of life; in this country bakers mix a quantity with the bread, to render it white; this mixture renders the bread better adapted for weak and relaxed bowels; but in opposite states of the alimentary canal, this practice is highly pernicious.

Exposed to the fire, alum at first becomes liquified, a good deal of an aqueous vapour exhales from it, and it swells into a large white mass, rough and full of cavities all over its surface. This is termed burnt alum, *alumen ustum*, and is sometimes employed by surgeons to destroy fungous flesh. Besides this preparation, alum enters the *aqua aluminis composita* and the *coagulum aluminis* of the pharmacopœias.

ALUMEN USTUM. See *Alumen*.

ALUMIN. *Alumine.* Earth of alum. Pure clay. Pure alumin is an earth soft to the touch of the finger; adheres to the tongue; hardens in the fire; forms a paste with water; susceptible of combination with most acids, and contained in a large proportion in common clays, pipe-earth, schistus, steatites, and many stones. It is never found pure in its native state. With the acids it is known to form more than twenty species of neutral salts. Of these only one is used in medicine and surgery, called *alum*, or *aluminous sulphate*.

ALVEARĪUM, (Alvearium, i, n. from *alveare*, a bee-hive). That part of the meatus auditorius externus is so called which contains the wax of the ear.

ALVEŒLI, (Alveolus, i, m. from *alveare*, a bee-hive; from their resemblance to its cells). The sockets of the teeth.

ALVEUS COMMŪNIS, (Alveus, i.

m.). The common duct or communication of the ampullæ of the membranaceous semi-circular canals, is so termed by Scarpa.

ALVIDŪCA, (*Alviduca*, sc. *medicamenta*). Medicines which open the bowels.

ALVIFLUXUS. A purging.

ALVUS, (*Alvus*, i, f.). The abdomen. This term is now applied to the state of the intestinal canal; thus, when the bowels are relaxed, it is called *alvus liquida*; when costive, *alvus dura*; and when very costive, *alvus adstricta*.

AMALGAM, (*Amalgama*,; from αμν, and γαμν, to marry). A substance produced by mixing mercury with a metal.

AMARA DULCIS. See *Dulcamara*.

AMARANTH, ESCULENT. The leaves of this plant, *Amaranthus oleraceus* of Linnæus, and several other species are eaten in India the same as cabbage is here.

AMARANTHUS OLERACEUS. See *Amaranth*, *esculent*.

AMATORII, (*Amatorii*, sc. *musculi*). A term given to the muscles of the eye by which that organ is moved when ogling.

AMAURŌSIS, (*Amaurosis*, is, f. αμαυρωσις; from αμαυρω, to darken). *Gutta serena*. *Amblyopia*. A total loss of sight without any visible injury to the eye, the pupil mostly dilated and immovable. A genus of disease in the class *locales*, and order *dysæsthesiæ* of Cullen. It arises generally from compression of the optic nerves, *amaurosis compressionis*; from debility, *amaurosis atonica*; from spasm, *amaurosis spasmodica*; or from poisons, *amaurosis venenata*.

AMBER, (*Succinum*, i, n.). A beautiful bituminous substance, of a yellow or brown colour, either transparent or opaque, which takes a good polish, and, after a slight rubbing, becomes so electric, as to attract straws and small bodies; hence it was called *electrum* by the ancients, and hence

the word electricity. When powdered it emits an agreeable smell. It is dug out of the earth at various depths, and often contains insects in high preservation, a circumstance which proves that it has been liquid. Amber is also found floating on the shores of the Baltic, and is met with in Italy, Sicily, Poland, Sweden, &c. From its colour or opacity it has been variously distinguished; thus white, orange, golden, cloudy amber, &c. An oil is obtained from it, which, as well as its other preparations, is much used in medicine against spasmodic diseases.

AMBERGRIS, (*Ambragrisea*, æ, f.). A concrete, bituminous substance of a soft and tenacious consistence, marked with black and yellow spots, and of an agreeable and strong smell when heated or rubbed. It is found in very irregular masses, floating on the sea near the Molucca Islands, Madagascar, Sumatra, on the coast of Coromandel, Brazil, America, China, and Japan. Several American fishermen assured Dr. Schwediawer, that they often found this substance, either among the excrements of the *Phyfeter macrocephalus*, a species of whale, or in its stomach, or in a vessel near the stomach. The medical qualities of ambergris are stomachic, cordial, and antispasmodic. It is very seldom used in this country.

AMBLŌSIS, (*Amblosis*, is, f. αμβλωσις; from αμβλω, to cause abortion). A miscarriage.

AMBLŌTICA, (*Amblotica*, sc. *medicamenta*, αμβλωτικά; from αμβλω, to cause abortion). Medicines which were supposed to occasion abortion.

AMBLYŌPIA, (*Amblyopia*, æ, f. from αμβλυς, dull, and ὤψ, an eye). A debility or dulness of sight. An incipient amaurosis.

AMENORRHŒA, (*Amenorrhœa*, æ, f. from α, priv. μηνιαίος, monthly, and ρεω, fluo). A partial or total obstruction of the menses from other

causes than pregnancy. Dr. Cullen places this genus in the class *Locales*, and order *Epischefes*. His species are, 1. *Emansio mensium*; that is, when the menses do not appear so early as is usually expected. 2. *Suppressio mensium*, when, after the menses appearing and continuing as usual for some time, they cease without pregnancy occurring. 3. *Amenorrhœa difficilis, vel Menorrhagia difficilis*, when this flux is too small in quantity, and attended with great pain, &c.

AMENTIA, (*Amentia*, æ, f. from α, priv. and mens, the mind). Imbecility of Intellect, by which the relations of things are either not perceived, or not recollected. A disease in the class *neuroses*, and order *vesania* of Cullen. When it originates at birth it is called *amentia congenita*; when from the infirmities of age, *amentia senilis*; and when some from accidental cause, *amentia acquisita*.

AMERICAN BALSAM. See *Balsamum peruvianum*.

AMMI, (*Anmi*, n. ind. αμμι; from αμμος, sand; from its likeness to little gravel stones). The herb Bishop's-weed, of which there are two sorts, the *ammi verum* and *vulgare*.

AMMI MAJUS. The systematic name for the *ammi vulgare* of the shops. See *Anmi vulgare*.

AMMI VERUM. The seeds of this plant, *Sison ammi*; *foliis tripinnatis, radicalibus linearibus, caulinis setaceis, stipularibus longioribus* of Linnæus, have a grateful smell, somewhat like that of origanum, and were formerly administered as a carminative.

AMMI VULGARE. The seeds of this plant, *Anmi majus*; *foliis inferioribus pinnatis, lanceolatis, serratis; superioribus multifidis, linearibus*, of Linnæus, are less powerful than those of the *Sison ammi*, but were exhibited with the same views.

AMMONIA MURIATA. The article to which this name is given in the pharmacopœias, being a muriate of am-

moniac, is called in the new chemical nomenclature, *urias ammoniacæ*. It is found in great abundance in nature, and may be prepared from a variety of substances. See *Sal-ammoniac*.

AMMONIA PRÆPARATA, (*Ammonia*, æ, f.). *Prepared ammonia*. *Sal volatile salis ammoniacæ*. *Sal alkali volatile*. The article under this name in the pharmacopœias is called *carbonas ammoniacæ crystallisatus* in the new chemical nomenclature, it being a pure crystallized carbonate of ammonia. The preparation termed *sal volutilis cornu cervi*, although obtained by a different process, is in fact the same thing. It possesses stimulating, nervine, antacid virtues, and is in these points of view in high estimation in debility, typhus, ataxia, atonic spasms, paralysis, syncope, arthritis, rheumatism, &c.

AMMONIAC, (*Ammoniaca*, æ, f.). Ammoniacal gaz. The substance to which this name is given in new chemical nomenclatures, is what was formerly called *volatile alkali*. It is a fluid resembling air, and has the same transparency and elasticity; it is rather lighter however; its smell is more penetrating, and its taste is acrid and caustic: hence it produces inflammations of the eyes, catarrhs, &c. diseases to which those people who are exposed to its action, from being near putrid animal substances, urine, &c. and in laboratories, are very subject. This air, or ammoniacal gaz, chemists have ascertained to be a compound substance, consisting of hydrogen and azot. Although ammoniac has not yet been employed medicinally in its aeriform state, its compounds are not neglected. Ammoniac is readily absorbed by water; and when this fluid is saturated with it, it is termed fluor, or caustic volatile alkali, *alkali volatile causticum*, *alkali animale purum*, and in the pharmacopœias, *aqua ammoniæ puræ*. The sulphate of ammoniac, a salt formed by the combination of ammoniac with the sulphuric acid, is esteem-

ed for its diuretic and deobstruent qualities, and is described by Bergman under the title of *alkali volatile vitriolatum*, and by Glauber by the name *sal ammoniacum secretum*. Ammoniac and nitric acid form a salt, the nitrate of ammoniac, *nitrus ammoniacus*, which possesses irritating, diuretic, and deobstruent virtues, and is described by Bergman under the name of *Alkali volatile nitratum*; it is also termed *sal ammoniacus nitrosus*, and *ammonia nitrata*. The direct combination of muriatic acid with ammoniac forms the muriate of ammoniac; see *Ammonia muriata* and *Sal-ammoniac*. Besides these there are the *aqua ammonia*, the *aqua ammonia acetata*, and the *spiritus ammonia compositus*, in which the ammoniac is the chief ingredient. See *Aqua ammonia*, *Aqua ammonia acetata*, and *Spiritus ammonia compositus*.

AMMŌNIACUM, (*Ammoniacum*, i, n. *αμμωνιακον*; so called from *Ammonia*, from whence it was brought). *Gum-ammoniac*. A concrete gummi-resinous juice, composed of little lumps, or tears, of a strong and somewhat ungrateful smell, and nauseous taste, followed by a bitterness. There has, hitherto, been no information had concerning the plant which affords this drug. It is imported here from Turkey, and from the East Indies. Internally ammoniacum is given in asthma, and difficulty of expectoration. In large doses it proves purgative. Externally, made into a plaster with acetum scillæ, it produces pustules, filled with a tenacious pus, and is a powerful resolvent in inflammation of the chest, knee, &c.

AMMONIACUM GUMMI. See *Ammoniacum*.

AMŌMUM, (*Amomum*, i, n. from an Arabian word signifying a pigeon, whose foot it was thought to resemble). *Amomum verum*. A fruit about the size of a grape, of a strong and grateful aromatic taste and penetrating smell, mostly given as a carminative. ♀

AMŌMUM CARDAMŌMUM. The systematic name for the *cardamomum minus*. See *Cardamomum minus*.

AMŌMUM GRANUM PARADĪSI. The systematic name of the plant which affords the grains of paradise. See *Grana paradisi*.

AMŌMUM ZINGĪBER. The systematic name of a plant which affords ginger. See *Zingiber*.

AMNĒSIA, (*Amnesia*, e, f. from α, priv. *μνησις*, memory). *Amnesia*. Forgetfulness, mostly a symptomatic affection.

AMNESTĪA, (*Amnesia*, e, f. *αμνησις*; from α, priv. and *μνησις*, memory). Forgetfulness. See *Amnesia*.

AMNĪOS, (*Amnios*, or *on*, i, m. et n. from *αμνιον*, a vessel which the ancients used for the reception of blood in sacrifices). The innermost membrane of the membranaceous ovum of the foetus.

AMPHĒMĒRĪNOS, (*αμφημερινος*, from *αμφι*, about, *ημερα*, a day). *Ampherina*. A quotidian fever. A species of ague.

AMPHIARTHROSIS, (*Amphiarthrosis*, is, f. *αμφιαρθρωσις*; from *αμφι*, both, and *αρθρωσις*, an articulation). A species of connexion of bones, which admits of an obscure motion, as is observed in the metacarpal and metatarsal bones, and the vertebrae.

AMPHIBĪUS, (*αμφιβιος*; from *αμφι*, *ambo*, and *βιος*, *vita*). Animals are thus called, that live both on land and in the water). The *amphibious* animals, according to Linnæus, are a class whose heart is furnished with one ventricle and one auricle, in which respiration is in a considerable degree voluntary.

AMPHIBLESTROIDĒS, (*Amphiblestroides*, is, f. *αμφιβλεστοειδης*; from *αμφιβλεστον*, a net, and *ειδος*, a resemblance). The retina. See *Retina*.

AMPULLA, (*Ampulla*, e, f. *αμφολλα*; from *αναβελλε*, to swell out). Albellied vessels are so called in chemistry, as bolt-heads, receivers, cucurbits &c.

AMPULLA. In anatomy this term applied by Scarpa to the dilated portions of the membranaceous semicircular canals, just within the vestibulum.

AMPUTATIO, (*Amputatio, onis, f.* from *amputo*, to cut off). A surgical operation, which consists in the removal of a limb or viscus; thus we say the leg, a finger, the penis, &c. when cut off, are amputated; but when the making of a tumor, or excrescence, is said to be dissected out or removed.

AMYGDALA, (*Amygdala, æ, f.* from *αμυγδαλον*; from *αμυσσω*, to lancinate; so called because after the green husk removed from the fruit, there appear upon the shell certain fissures, as were lacerations). Almonds. The kernels of the fruit of the almond-tree, *Amygdalus communis* of Linnæus. *Amygdalus foliis serraturis infimis glandosis, floribus sessilibus geminis.* *Class.* Mandriaria. *Order.* Monogynia. A native of Barbary. The same tree produces either bitter or sweet almonds. Sweet almonds are more in use as food than medicine. They afford, on expression, a great proportion of oil, which, from being more agreeable to the palate than the other, is preferred for internal use, to loosen and relax the solids, in tickling coughs, hoarseness, costiveness, nervous pains, &c. Externally it is used in tensions and rigidities of particular parts. An emulsion of sweet almonds possesses the emollient qualities of the oil.

AMYGDALÆ. The almonds of the tree. See *Tonfills*.

AMYGDALÆ AMARÆ. See *Amygdalus*.

AMYGDALUS COMMUNIS. The systematic name of the plant which affords both sweet and bitter almonds. *Amygdala*.

AMYGDALÆ DULCES. See *Amygdalus*.

AMYGDALUS PERSICA. The sys-

tematic name of the common plum tree. See *Persica*.

AMYLUM, (*Amylum, i, n.* from *αμυλον*; from *α*, priv. and *μυλν*, a mill; because it was formerly made from wheat without the assistance of a mill). Starch. The white substance which subsides from the water that is mixed with wheaten flour. The starch-makers suffer it to remain in the water for a time after it has become acid, which makes it very white and soft to the touch, and scarcely sensible to the taste. As starch forms the greatest part of flour, it cannot be doubted but that it is the principal alimentary substance contained in our bread. Starch is frequently employed in clysters against diarrhœas. Externally surgeons apply it as an absorbent in erysipelas.

AMYRIS ELEMIFERA, (*Amyris, f.* from *α*, intensive, and *μυρον*, ointment or balm; so called from its use or smell). The systematic name of the plant from which, it is supposed, we obtain the resin called *gum elemi*. See *Elemi*.

AMYRIS OPOBALSAMUM. The systematic name of the plant from which the balsam of Mecca is obtained. See *Balsamum Gileadeuse*.

ANACARDIUM OCCIDENTALE, (*Anacardium, i, n.* from *ανακαρδιον*; from *ανα*, without, and *καρδια*, a heart; without heart; because the pulp of the fruit instead of having the seed inclosed, as is usually the case, has the nut growing out of the end of it). The cashew-nut. The oil of this nut is an active caustic, and employed as such in its native country; but neither it, nor any part of the fruit, is used medicinally in this country.

ANACARDIUM ORIENTALE. *Anacardium* or Malaca bean. The fruit or nut so called in the pharmacopœias is of a shining black colour, heart-shaped, compressed, and about the size of the thumb nail. It is the produce of the *Sciennia tomentosa*;

foliis cordato-ovatis, subtus tomentosis of Linnæus. It is now deservedly forgot in this country.

ANACARTHARSIS, (*Anacartharsis*, is, f. *ανακαρτάρσις*; from *ανα*, and *καθαίρωμαι*, to purge up). An expectoration of pus.

ANÆSTHESIA, (*Anæsthesia*, *a*, f. *ἀναίσθησια*; from *α*, priv. and *αἰσθάνομαι*, to feel). Loss of the sense of touch. A genus of disease in the class *locales*, and order *dysæsthesiæ* of Cullen.

ANAGALLIS, (*Anagallis*, f. *ἀνὰ γαλήνῃ*; from *ἀνὰ γαλήνῃ*, to laugh; because by curing the spleen, it disposes persons to be cheerful). This plant, *Anagallis arvensis*; *foliis indivisis, caule procumbente*, of Linnæus, is small and delicately formed, and does not appear to possess any particular properties.

ANAGALLIS ARVENSIS. The systematic name for the *anagallis* of the shops. See *Anagallis*.

ANALEPTICS, (*Analeptica*, *sc. medicamenta*, *ἀναληπτικά*; from *ἀνάλαμψαι*, to recruit, to recover). Those substances used for food and medicine which are calculated, from their properties, to restore strength when impaired by sickness.

ANALYSIS, *Analysis*, is, f. *ἀναλύσις*; from *ἀναλύναι*, to resolve). Although the processes and experiments which chemists have recourse to be extremely numerous and diversified, yet they may be reduced to two species, which comprehend the whole art of chemistry. The first is, *analysis*, or decomposition; the second, *synthesis*, or composition. In *analysis* the parts of which bodies are composed are separated from each other: thus, if you reduce cinnabar, which is composed of sulphur and mercury, and exhibit these two bodies in a separate state, you say you have decomposed, or analyzed cinnabar. But if, on the contrary, several bodies be mixed together, and a new substance be produced, the process is then termed chemical composition, or *synthesis*:

thus, if by fusion and sublimation you combine mercury with sulphur, and produce cinnabar, the operation termed chemical composition, or composition by synthesis.

ANĀNAS, (*Ananas*, n.) The egg-shaped pine-apple. The plant which affords this fruit, is the *Bromelia ananas foliis ciliato-spinig mucronatis spica comosa* of Linnæus. It is used principally as a delicacy at the table, and is also given with advantage as a refrigerant in fevers.

ANAPHALANTIĀSIS, (*Anaphalantiāsis*, is, f. *ἀναφαλάντιαισι*; from *ο φαλάντι*, bald). A thinness of hair upon the eye-brows.

ANAPHRODISIA, (*Anaphrodisia*, f. *ἀναφροδισια*; from *α*, priv. and *ἀφροδισια*, the feast of Venus). Impotence. A genus of disease in the class *locales*, and order *dysorexiæ* of Cullen. It either arises from paralysis, *anaphrodisia paralytica*; or from gonorrhœa, *anaphrodisia gonorrhœica*.

ANAS DOMESTICA. The duck. The flesh of this bird is difficult of digestion, and requires that warm and stimulating condiments be taken with it to enable the stomach to digest it.

ANASARCA, (*Anasarca*, *a*, f. *ἀνασάρκα*, through, and *σάρξ*, flesh, the flesh). A species of dropsy, or a serous humour, spread between the skin and flesh, or rather a general accumulation of lymph in the cellular system. Dr. Cullen ranks this as a species of disease, in the class *Cachexia*, and the order *Intumescencia*. He enumerates the following species, viz. 1. *Anasarca serosa*, as when the discharge of serum is suppressed; 2. *Anasarca oppilata*, as when the blood-vessels are considerably plugged, which happens to many pregnant women, &c. 3. *Anasarca exanthematica*, this happens after ulcers, various other disorders, and particularly the *Erysipelas*. 4. *Anasarca anæmica*, happens when the blood is re-

tremely poor from considerable loss of it. 5. *Anasarcha debiliū*, when feebleness is induced by long aërs, &c.

ANASTALTICA, (*Anastaltica*, *sc. dicamenta*, ἀνασταλτικά; from ἀναστella, to contract). Styptics. Adstringents.

ANASTOMŌSIS, (*Anastomosis*, *is*, *f. εστρωσις*; from ἀνα, through, and ἄνω, a mouth). The communication of vessels with one another.

ANATOMY, (*Anatōmīa*, *a*, *Anatome*, *es*, *f. ανατομία*, or ἀνατομή; from ἀνα, and τέμνω, to cut up). *Aneromy*. The dissection of the human body, to expose the structure, situation, and uses of every part.

ANATOMY, COMPARATIVE. *Zoomy*. The dissection of brutes, fishes, polypi, plants, &c. to illustrate, or compare them with, the structure and functions of the human body.

ANCHORĀLIS PROCESSUS, (*Anchoralis*; from ἄνω, the elbow). See *Tracoid process*.

ANCHOVY PEAR. This fruit, the produce of the *Grias cauliflora* of Linnaeus, is eaten by the inhabitants of Jamaica, as a pleasant and refrigerant fruit.

ANCHŪSA, (*Anchusa*, *a*, *f. ανχουσις*; from ἄνω, to strangle; from its supposed constringent quality; or, as others say, because it strangles ferns).

ANCHŪSA OFFICINĀLIS. The systematic name for the *buglossum* of the shops. See *Buglossum*.

ANCHŪSA TINCTORIA. The systematic name for the anchusa or alnna of the pharmacopœias. See *anchusa*.

ANCHYLOMERISMA, (*Anchylomerisma*, *atis*, *n. ανκυλομερισμα*; from ἀνκυλωμαι, to bend). Sagar uses this term to express a concretion or growing together of the soft parts.

ANCHYLŌSIS, (*Anchylosis*, *is*, *f.*

ανκυλωσις; from ἀνκυλωμαι, to bend). A stiff joint.

ANCON, (*Ancon*, *ōnis*, *m. αγκών*; from ἀγκαζομαι, to embrace, ἀπο τῆς ἀγκισθῆς ἑτέρω ὀφειωτῇ ὀφειον; because the bones meeting, and there uniting, are folded one into another). The elbow.

ANCONĒUS, (*Anconeus* *sc. musculus*; from αγκών, the elbow). *Anconeus minor* of Winslow. *Anconeus vel Cubitalis Riolani* of Douglas. A small triangular muscle situated on the back part of the elbow. It arises from the ridge and from the external condyle of the humerus by a thick, strong, and short tendon: from this it becomes fleshy, and after running about three inches obliquely backwards, it is inserted by its oblique fleshy fibres into the back part or ridge of the ulna. Its use is to extend the forearm.

ANCONĒUS EXTERNUS. See *Triceps extensor cubiti*.

ANCONĒUS INTERNUS. See *Triceps extensor cubiti*.

ANCONĒUS MAJOR. See *Triceps extensor cubiti*.

ANCONĒUS MINOR. See *Anconeus*.

ANCONOID PROCESS, (*Processus anconoides*; from αγκών, the elbow). A process of the cubit. See *Ulna*.

ANCYLOBLEPHARON, (*Ancycloblepharon*, *i*, *n. ανκυλοβλεφαρον*; from ἀγκυλη, a hook, and βλεφαρον, an eyelid). A disease of the eye, by which the eyelids are closed together.

ANCYLOGLOSSUM, (*Ancyloglossum*, *i*, *n. ανκυλογλωσσον*; from ἀγκυλη, a hook, and γλωσσα, the tongue). A contraction of the frænulum of the tongue. Tongue-tied.

ANCYLŌSIS, (*Ancylosis*, *is*, *f. ανκυλωσις*; from ἀγκυλος, crooked). *Anchylosis*. A contraction of the joints impeding their motion.

ANEMŌNE HEPATICA. The systematic name for the *hepatica nobilis*

of the pharmacopæias. See *Hepatica nobilis*.

ANEMONE, MEADOW. See *Pulsatilla nigricans*.

ANEMONE NEMOROSA. The systematic name of the *ranunculus albus* of the pharmacopæias. See *Ranunculus albus*.

ANEMONE PRATENSIS. The systematic name for the *pulsatilla nigricans* of the pharmacopæias. See *Pulsatilla nigricans*.

ANETHUM, (*Anethum*, i, n. ἀνθον; from ἀνευ, afar, and θειω, to run; so called because its roots run out a great way). Common dill. *Anethum graveolens* of Linnæus. *Anethum fructibus compressis*. Class. Pentandria. Order. Monogynia. This plant is a native of Spain, but cultivated in several parts of England. The seeds of dill are directed for use by the London and Edinburgh Pharmacopæias; they have a moderately warm, pungent taste, and an aromatic, but sickly smell. There is an essential oil, and a distilled water, prepared from them, which are given in flatulent colics and dyspepsia. They are also said to promote the secretion of milk.

ANETHUM FENICULUM. The systematic name for the *feniculum dulce* of the shops. See *Feniculum dulce*.

ANETHUM GRAVEOLENS. The systematic name for the *Anethum* of the shops. See *Anethum*.

ANEURISM, (*Aneurisma*, ātis, n. ἀνευρισμα; from ἀνευρυνω, to dilate). A præternatural dilatation of an artery. A genus of disease ranked by Cullen in the class *locales*, and order *tumores*. There are three species of aneurism: 1. The *true aneurism*, *aneurisma verum*, which answers to the above definition, and is known by the presence of a pulsating tumour. 2. The *spurious aneurism*, *aneurisma spurium*, which is a collection of blood in the cellular membrane from a ruptured artery. 3. The *varicose aneurism*, *aneurisma varicosum*: this was first described by Dr.

W. Hunter. It happens when the brachial artery is punctured in opening a vein: the blood then rushes into the vein, which becomes varicose. Aneurisms may happen in any part of the body, except the latter species which can only take place where a vein runs over an artery.

ANEURISMA SPURIUM. See *Aneurism*.

ANEURISMA VARICOSUM. See *Aneurism*.

ANEURISMA VLPUM. See *Aneurism*.

ANGEIOTOMY, (*Angiotomia*, æ, f. ἀγγειοτομία; from ἀγγειον, a vessel, and τέμνω, to cut). The dissection of the blood-vessels of an animal body; also the opening of a vein or an artery.

ANGELICA, (*Angelica*, æ, f. called from its supposed angelic virtues). Garden angelica. *Angelica archangelica* of Linnæus. *Angelica foliorum impari lobato*. Class. Pentandria. Order. Digynia. A plant, native of Lapland, but cultivated in our gardens. The roots of angelica have a fragrant, agreeable smell, and a bitterish, pungent taste. The stalks, leaves, and seeds, which are also directed in the pharmacopæias, possess the same qualities, though in an inferior degree. Their virtues are aromatic and carminative. A sweetmeat is made by the confectioners of the root, which is extremely agreeable to the stomach, and is surpassed only by that of ginger.

ANGELICA ARCHANGELICA. The systematic name for the *angelica* of the shops. See *Angelica*.

ANGELICA, GARDEN. See *Angelica*.

ANGELICA SATIVA. See *Angelica sylvestris*.

ANGELICA SYLVESTRIS. *Angelica sativa*. Wild angelica. *Angelica sylvestris*; *foliis æqualibus ovato-lanceolatis serratis* of Linnæus. This species of angelica possesses similar properties to the garden species, but in a much in-

rior degree. It is only used when the latter cannot be obtained. The seeds, powdered and put into the hair, kill lice.

ANGELICA, WILD. See *Angelica sylvestris*.

ANGELINÆ CORTEX. The tree from which this bark is procured is a native of Grenada. It has been recommended as an anthelmintic for children.

ANGINA, (*Angina*, *a*, *f*. from *αγγω*, to strangle; because it is often attended with a sense of strangulation). A fore throat. See *Cynanche*.

ANGINA PECTORIS. *Syncope angiosa*. An extremely dangerous disease, which seizes those who are subject to it, when walking, with a very painful sensation in the breast, threatening immediate suffocation, and often inducing syncope; but the moment they stand still all the uneasiness vanishes. A few months after the disease has taken place, the fits will not cease instantaneously on standing still, and they take place in almost all situations, sitting still, or a-bed, as well as when walking about. The duration of the paroxysm is uncertain: at first, it goes off on being still; it then continues some time after with great palpitation of the heart; and, at length, does not leave the patient for some hours. It frequently happens that persons die soon after the attack of a fit; but cases are related where induced some other disease, which terminated in lingering illness. In all cases the seat of pain is about the sternum and heart; and very frequently there is a fixed pain in the left arm, near the insertion of the deltoid muscle. The proximate cause of this disease is not known. Ossification of the coronary arteries of the heart, and accumulation of fat about that organ, the mediastinum, pericardium, and diaphragm, have been observed in those who have died under the disease.

ANGIOLOGY, (*Angiologia*, *a*, *f*. *αγγ*

γειολογεια; from *αγγειον*, a vessel, and *λογος*, a discourse). The doctrine of the vessels of the human body.

ANGUSTURÆ CORTEX, (*Angustura*, *a*, *f*.). A bark imported from Angustura, in South America. Its external appearances vary considerably. The best is not fibrous, but hard, compact, and of a yellowish brown colour, and externally of a whitish hue. When reduced into powder it resembles that of Indian rhubarb. It is very generally employed as a febrifuge, tonic, and adstringent. In intermittents it is by many preferred to the Peruvian bark; and has been found useful in diarrhoea, dyspepsia, and scrofula. It is thought to be the bark of the *Brucea antidysenterica* or *ferruginea*.

ANIMAL, (*Animal*, *alis*, *n*.). An organized body endowed with life and voluntary motion.

ANIMAL ACTIONS. *Adiones animales*. Those actions, or functions, are so termed, which are performed through the means of the mind. To this class belong the external and internal senses, the voluntary action of muscles, voice, speech, watching, and sleep.

ANIMAL HEAT. Heat is essentially necessary to life. That of a man in health is from about 94° to 100° of Fahrenheit. It appears to depend upon the absorption of oxygen in the lungs.

ANIMĒ, OR ANIMÆ, GUMMI. The substance which bears this name in the shops is a resin, the produce of the *Hymenaea courbaril* of Linnæus. It is seldom ordered in the practice of the present day, and is only to be met with in the collections of the curious.

ANIMI DELIQUIUM, (from *animus*, the mind, and *delinquo*, to leave). Fainting. *Lipothymia*. See *Syncope*.

ANIMUS. This word is to be distinguished from *anima*; the former expresses the faculty of reasoning, and the latter the being in which that faculty resides.

ANISE. See *Anisum*.

ANĪSUM, (*Anisum*, i, n. *ανισον*; from *α*, neg. and *ισον*, equal). *Anisum vulgare*. Anise. *Pimpinella anisum* of Linnæus. *Pimpinella, foliis radicalibus trifidis incis.* Class. *Pentandria*. Order. *Digynia*. A native of Egypt. Anise-seeds have an aromatic smell, and a pleasant, warm, and sweetish taste. An essential oil and distilled water are prepared from them, which are employed in flatulences and gripes, to which children are more especially subject, also in weakness of the stomach, diarrhœas, and loss of tone in the primæ viæ.

ANĪSUM SINENSE. See *Anisum stellatum*.

ANĪSUM STELLĀTUM. *Anisum sinense*. *Semen badian*. The plant which affords these seeds is the *Illicium anisatum* of Linnæus. They are used with the same views as those of the *Pimpinella anisum*. The same tree is supposed to furnish the aromatic bark called *cortex anisi stellati* or *cortex lavola*.

ANĪSUM VULGĀRE. See *Anisum*.

ANNULAR, (*Annularis*). Like a ring; thus, annular bone, &c.

ANNULAR BONE. *Circulus ossis*. A ring-like bone placed before the cavity of the tympanum in the fœtus.

ANNULAR CARTILAGES. See *Cricoid cartilages*.

ANNULĀRIS DIGITUS. The ring finger. The one between the little and middle finger.

ANNULĀRIS PROCESSUS. See *Pons varolii*.

ANODYNES, (*Anōdŷna*, *ανωδυνα*; from *α*, priv. and *οδυνη*, pain). *Narcotics*. *Hypnotics*. *Opiates*. *Paragorics*. *Antalgics*. Those medicines are so termed which ease pain and procure sleep.

ANOMALOUS. This term is often applied to those diseases whose symptoms do not appear with that regularity generally observed in diseases. A disease is also said to be anomalous when the symptoms are so varied as not

to bring it under the description of any known affection.

ANORCHĪDES, (*Anorchis, idis*, f. *ανορχις*; from *α*, priv. and *ορχις*, the testicle). Children are so termed which come into the world without testicles. This is a very common occurrence. The testicles of most male infants at the time of birth are within the abdomen. The time of their descent is very uncertain, and instances have occurred where they had not reached the scrotum at the age of ten and fifteen.

ANOREXĪA, (*Anorexia, æ*, f. from *α*, priv. and *ορεξις*, appetite). A want of appetite, without loathing of food. Cullen ranks this genus of disease in the class *locales*, and order *dysorexia*; he believes it to be generally symptomatic, but enumerates two species, viz. the *anorexia humoralis* and the *anorexia atonica*.

ANOSMĪA, (*Anosmia, æ*, f. *ανωσμία*; from *α*, neg. and *ωσ*, to smell). A loss of the sense of smelling. This genus of disease is arranged by Cullen in the class *locales*, and order *dysæsthesiæ*. When it arises from a disease of the Schneiderian membrane, it is termed *anosmia organica*; and when from no manifest cause, *anosmia atonica*.

ANSER DOMESTĪCUS. The tame goose. The flesh of this bird is sometimes similar to that of the duck, and requires the assistance of spirituous and stimulating substances, to enable the stomach to digest it. Both are very improper for weak stomachs.

ANSERINA, (*Anserina*; from *anser*, a goose; so called, because geese eat it). Wild tansey or goose grass. *Argentia*. This herb, *Potentilla anserina, foliis dinnatis serratis, caule repente, pedunculis unifloris* of Linnæus, was formerly used as an astringent in laxity of the intestines and phthical complaints, but is now fallen into disuse.

ANTACIDS, (*Antacida, sc. medica*

menta; from *anti*, against, and *acidus*, acid). Those medicines that have the power of destroying acidities in the stomach and intestines. The remedies which possess this power are comprehended in two orders. 1. *Eccoproptic antacids*, as *magnesia alba*, *tartarum solubile*, *sapo*, and all alkaline preparations, which are also calculated to remove costiveness. 2. *Restringent antacids*, as *creta*, *oculi cancrorum*, and *testa osfreorum*, which are to be selected when there is a looseness of the bowels.

ANTAGONIST MUSCLES, (*Musculi antagonisii*; from *αντι*, against, and *αγωνίζω*, to strive). Muscles are so called, which act in opposition to others.

ANTALGICA, (*Antalgica*, *sc. medicamenta*, *ανταλγικά*; from *αντι*, against, and *αλγος*, pain). Remedies which ease pain.

ANTALKALINES, (*Antalkalina*, *sc. medicamenta*; from *anti*, against, and *alkali*, an alkali). Medicines which possess the power of neutralizing alkalis.

ANTERIOR AURIS. One of the common muscles of the ear, situated before the the external ear. It arises, thin and membranous, near the posterior part of the *zygoma*, and is inserted into a small eminence on the back of the helix, opposite to the concha, which it draws a little forwards and upwards.

ANTERIOR INTERCOSTAL NERVE. *Splanchnic nerve*. A branch of the great intercostal that is given off in the thorax.

ANTERIOR MALLÆI. See *Laxator tympani*.

ANTHELMINTICS, (*Anthelmintica*, *sc. medicamenta*, *ανθελμιντικά*; from *αντι*, against, and *ελμινς*, a worm). *Anthelmintics*. Medicines which procure the removal of worms from the human stomach and intestines. This class of medicine comprehends four orders. 1. *Venenous anthelmintics*, as

mercurial preparations, *tin*, and *sulphur*, which are principally adapted to strong and robust habits, those in the prime of life, and where there is a degree of torpor of the intestines. 2. *Lubricating anthelmintics*, as *common and linseed oil*, which are best calculated for reduced habits. 3. *Tonic anthelmintics*, as, *sabina*, *tanacetum*, and *santonium*, which are principally adapted for children and delicate habits. 4. *Cathartic anthelmintics*, as *scammonium*, *jalappa*, *aloë*, and *gambogia*. The constitutions in which these are to be preferred are the strong and robust, and those in the prime of life.

ANTHEMIS COTŪLA, (*Cotula*, a dim of *cos*, a whetstone; so called from its leaves resembling a whetstone). The systematic name for the plant called *Cotula fetida* in the pharmacopœias. See *Cotula fetida*.

ANTHEMIS NOBĪLIS, (*Anthemis*, *ανθιμις*; from *ανθος*, a flower). The systematic name for the *chamæmelum* of the shops. See *Chamæmelum*.

ANTHEMIS PYRĒTHRUM. The plant is so called from which we obtain the pyrethrum of the pharmacopœias. See *Pyrethrum*.

ANTHOPHYLLI, (*Anthophyllus*, *i. m.* *ανθοφυλλον*; from *ανθος*, a flower, and *φυλλον*, a leaf; so called from the fragrance of the flowers and the beauty of the leaves). Cloves are so termed when they have been suffered to grow to maturity.

ANTHŌRA, (*quasi anti-thora*, *ανθωρα*; from *αντι*, against, and *θορα*, monkshood; so called because it is said to counteract the effects of the thora or monkshood). Wolfsbane. The root is the part of this plant (*Aconitum anthora*; *floribus pentagynis*, *foliorum laciniis linearibus* of Linnæus), which is employed medicinally. Its virtues are similar to those of the *aconitum*, see *Aconitum*.

ANTHOS FLORES. The flowers of the *rosmarinus* are so termed in some pharmacopœias.

ANTHRAX, (*Anthrax, acis, m. ἀνθράξ*, a burning coal). *Carbunculus*. An hard and circumscribed inflammatory tubercle like a boil, which sometimes forms on the cheek, neck, or back, and in few n days becomes highly gangrenous. It then discharges an extremely fetid sanies from under the black core, which, like a burning coal, continues destroying the surrounding parts. It is supposed to arise from a peculiar miasma, and is most common in warm climates.

ANTI, (*ἄντι*, against). There are many names compounded with this word, as *antiasthmatics*, *antihysterics*, *antidysenterics*, &c. which signify medicines against the asthma, hysterics, dysentery, &c.

ANTIDOTE, (*Antidotus, i, f. ἀντίδοτος*; from *ἄντι*, against, and *δίδωμι*, to give). A remedy. A medicine which possesses the property of expelling the the mischiefs of another, as of poison.

ANTILYSSUS, (*Antilyssus, ἀντιλυσσος*; from *ἄντι*, against, and *λύσσα*, the madness caused by the bite of a mad dog). Medicines against the bite of a mad dog.

ANTIMONIUM, (*Antimonium, i, n. Ἀντίμονιον*). The origin of this word is very obscure. The most received etymology is, from *ἄντι*, against, and *μοναχός*, a monk; because Valentine, by an injudicious administration of it, poisoned his brother monks). *Stibium*. See *Antimony*.

ANTIMONIUM CALCINATUM.—*Calx antimonii. Antimonium diaphoreticum*. This preparation of antimony, termed *oxydum stibii album*, in the new chemical nomenclature, is greatly fallen into disuse. Its virtues are diaphoretic and alterative.

ANTIMONIUM MURIATUM. *Butyrum antimonii. Causlieum antimoniale. Butter of antimony*. This preparation of antimony, called in the new chemical nomenclature *urias stibii hyperoxygenatus*, is employed to destroy warts, carcinomatous excrescences, syphiloma, &c.

ANTIMONIUM TARTARISATUM. Tartarus emeticus. Tartarus antimonialis. Tartar emetic, given in small doses, is nauseating, cathartic, sudorific, deobstruent, and antispasmodic, promoting absorption. Internally, it is exhibited in bilious fevers, foulness of the stomach, retrocedent and atonic exanthemata, abdominal physconia, tumour of the testicle, paralysis, amaurosis, pituitous diseases of the lungs, rheumatism, and soporose diseases. When given in very small doses, so as to create nausea, it is recommended in tabes, laxation, and incarcerated hernia. Externally, in the form of powder, or dissolved in water, it is applied by a pencil to warts and obstinate ulcers: it is also given in the form of clyster, with a view to produce irritation in soporose diseases, apoplexy, ileus, and hernia incarcerated. The powder mixed with saliva, and rubbed on the scrobiculus cordis, excites vomiting. The best antidote against the bad effects of too large a quantity of this and other antimonial preparations, is a decoction of the bark of cinchona. See also *Antimony*.

ANTIMONIUM VITRIFACTUM. Glass of antimony. See *Antimony*.

ANTIMONY. Antimonium. Stibium. A brittle and ponderous femimetal of a grayish sparkling white colour, bearing a strong resemblance to tin or silver. It appears to consist of laminæ, arranged one over another, and its surface exhibits a kind of crystals in the form of stars or fern-leaves. If taken into the stomach it proves a very active vomit and purge. It is rarely met with in nature, but mostly prepared by art. It is generally combined with sulphur, and in that state is found in great abundance in Hungary, Bourbon, Auvergne, and Poitou. This is what is commonly but improperly called antimony, for in propriety of language it is an ore or *sulphur of antimony*. It is of a blackish gray colour, in plates or needles of

various sizes, and friable. Sulphur of antimony melts very readily, loses its sulphur in the operation, and the metal combines gradually with the oxygen of the atmosphere, forming a *gray oxyd of antimony*, which, if urged with fire, melts into a transparent substance, called the *glass of antimony*, or *vitreous oxyd of sulphurated antimony*; and, if the oxyd contain a large proportion of sulphur (for it does not wholly lose it by melting), it produces an opaque glass, or *liver of antimony*, so called from its red colour, like that of the liver of animals. If the *gray oxyd* be heated in a crucible, with an equal quantity of black flux, and a little black soap and oil, it is reduced to pure antimony, or, as it is termed in commerce, *regulus of antimony*. The semimetal, when melted in open vessels, is very quickly oxydated. It suffers no alteration from combustible matters; is not much altered by the air, its surface being only a little tarnished, and earthy substances have no power of action on it. These are the principal properties of this semimetal; but as its ore, sulphur of antimony, is commonly used in a great number of pharmaceutical preparations, it may not be amiss to remind the reader of this particular. Beat in a mortar to a powder, and levigated, with the addition of a little water, upon a hard and polished, but not calcareous stone, into as fine a dust as possible, and then dried, it forms the *antimonium præparatum*, or *sulphuretum sibi nigrum*; powdered, and burnt in an earthen vessel, until it no longer emits a sulphureous smoke, and then put into a covered crucible, and exposed to a strong heat, it melts, and forms the *antimonium vitrifactum*. Powdered and mixed with nitre, in the proportion of eight ounces to two pounds, and cast by degrees into a red-hot crucible, and burnt for about half an hour, it affords the *antimonium calcinatum*, or *oxydum sibi album*. Similar to this

preparation is the celebrated James's powder, as a substitute for which the London College have ordered the *pulvis antimonialis (phosphas calcis sibiatus)*, made by throwing into a red-hot pot an equal quantity of crude sulphur of antimony and hartshorn shavings, and agitating it until they become of an ash colour. The matter is then to be put into a crucible with another inverted upon it, and kept in a red heat for two hours. It is then to cool, and be reduced to a fine powder. The *crocus of antimony* is prepared by mixing a pound of powdered antimony and nitre, and one ounce of sea salt, by degrees, into a red-hot crucible, and melting them with an augmented heat, and when cold separating the scoriæ. If one pound of vitriolic acid be poured into a retort, and a mixture of one pound of this crocus of antimony, with two pounds of dry sea salt, be added by degrees thereto, and distilled in the same bath, the product is the *urias sibi hyperoxygenatus*, called *antimonium muriatum*, or butter of antimony, in the Lond. Pharm. The *antimonium tartarifatum*, or tartarified antimony, *tartris potassæ acidulus sibiatus*, is made by boiling for about a quarter of an hour, a mixture of one pound and a half of the crocus with two pounds of crystals of tartar, and two gallons of water. The liquor is then to be filtered, and the strained liquor set by to crystalize. Besides these preparations there are the *wine of antimony*, and the *tartarified wine*. The former is made by digesting one ounce of powdered vitrified antimony with a pint and a half of Spanish white wine; the latter by dissolving two scruples of the tartarified antimony in two ounces of boiling water, and then adding eight ounces of Spanish white wine. With regard to the use of antimony in medicine, it is very considerable, though not so general

as in former times. *Calcined antimony* is esteemed as an alterative and diaphoretic. *Muriated antimony* is employed by surgeons as a very powerful caustic for destroying warts and fungous flesh, and especially venereal excrescences. The *prepared antimony* is alterative and diaphoretic in small doses. *Antimonium tartarifatum* is used in common as a vomit in the dose of from one to four grains. Dissolved in water, and given, with or without nitre, in the dose of an eighth of a grain every four hours, it cures inflammatory affections, as synocha, pleuritis, &c. acting as a very powerful diaphoretic. In pneumonia it is exhibited in nauseating doses as an expectorant. The *vitriified antimony* is emetic in the dose of from a quarter of a grain to a grain and a half. *Pulvis antimonialis*, supposed to be the same as James's powder, is given as a febrifuge in the dose of from three to five grains, and is a powerful diaphoretic. *Antimonial wine* in small doses, gut. xx to xxx, is a febrifuge, diaphoretic, and alterative. ʒij to ʒß proves a useful emetic in whooping cough, &c. The *tartarified antimonial wine* is also emetic, ʒij to ʒiv, and a good febrifuge and diaphoretic in doses of from fifteen to forty drops.

ANTIPHLOGISTIC. A term applied to those medicines, plans of diet, and other circumstances, which tend to oppose inflammation, or which, in other words, weaken the system by diminishing the activity of the vital power.

ANTIRRHINUM, (*Antirrhinum*, i. n. ἀντίρρινον; from ἀντί, against, and ρίς, the nose; so called because it represents the nose of a calf).

ANTIRRHINUM LINARIA. The systematic name for the *linaria* of the pharmacopœias. See *Linaria*.

ANTISCORBUTICS, (*Antiscorbutica*, sc. *medicamenta*; from *anti*, against, and *scorbutus*, the scurvy). Those medicines which cure the scurvy. To

this class belong oxygen gaz, acids, vegetables, bark, &c.

ANTISEPTICS, (*Antiseptica*, sc. *medicamenta*, ἀντισηπτικά; from ἀντί, against, and σήπω, to putrefy). Those medicines which possess a power of preventing animal substances from passing into a state of putrefaction, and of obviating putrefaction when already begun. This class of medicine comprehends four orders. 1. *Tonic antiseptics*, as *cinchona*, *Angustura cortex*, *chamæmelum*, &c. which are suited for every condition of body, and are, in general, preferable to other antiseptics, for those with relaxed habits. 2. *Refrigerating antiseptics*, as *acids*, which are principally adapted for the young, vigorous, and plethoric. 3. *Stimulating antiseptics*, as *wine* and *alcohol*, best adapted for the old and debilitated. 4. *Antispasmodic antiseptics*, as *camphora* and *assafœtida*, which are to be selected for irritable and hysterical habits.

ANTISPASMODICS, (*Antispasmodica*, sc. *medicamenta*, ἀντισπασμωδικά; from ἀντί, against, and σπασμός, a spasm). Those medicines which possess the power of allaying inordinate motions in the system, particularly those involuntary contractions which take place in muscles, naturally subject to the command of the will. The medicines referable to this class are divided into two orders. 1. *Stimulating antispasmodics*, as *alkali volatile*, *olea essentialia*, *liquor æthereus*, which are to be given to the melancholic and those with torpid habits. 2. *Sedative antispasmodics*, as *camphora*, *moschus*, and *opium*, which are preferred to the former for sanguine and irritable habits.

ANTITHENAR, (*Antithenar*, ἀντιθέναρ; from ἀντί, against, and θέναρ, the palm of the hand). A muscle of the foot. See *Adductor pollicis pedis*.

ANTITRAGICUS, (*Antitragicus*, sc. *musculus*). One of the proper muscles of the ear, whose use it is, to turn up the tip of the antitragus a little out-

wards, and to depress the extremity of the antithelix towards it.

ANTITRĀGUS, (*Antitragus*, i, m. from *αντι*, and *τραγος*, the tragus). An eminence of the outer ear, opposite to the tragus.

ANTRUM OF HIGHMORE, (*Antrum*, i, n.). *Antrum genæ*. *Sinus maxillaris pituitarius*. A large cavity in the middle of each superior maxillary bone, between the eye and the roof of the mouth, lined by the mucous membrane of the nose, and first described by Highmore.

ANTS, ACID OF. See *Formic acid*.

ANUS, (*Anus*, i, m. *anus*, *quasi onus*, as carrying the burden of the bowels). The fundament. Also the small opening of the third ventricle of the brain, which leads into the fourth.

AORTA, (*Aorta*, α, f. *αορτη*; from *αερ*, air, and *τηρεω*, to keep; so called because the ancients supposed that only air was contained in it). The great artery of the body, which arises from the left ventricle of the heart, forms a curvature in the chest, and descends into the abdomen; and from which all the other arteries arise, except the pulmonary arteries. See *Artery*.

APARINE, (*Aparine*, es, f. *Απαρινη*; from *ρινη*, a file; because its bark is rough, and rasps like a file). Cleavers, or goose-grass. This plant, which is common in our hedges and ditches, is the *Galium aparine*; *foliis obovatis lanceolatis carinatis scabris retrorsum aculeatis, geniculis venosis, fructu hispido*, of Linnæus. The expressed juice has been given with advantage as an aperient and diuretic in incipient dropsies; but the character in which it has of late been chiefly esteemed, is that of an anticarcinomatous remedy. A tea-cup full, gradually increased to half a pint two or three times a-day, has been known to cure cancers.

APERIENS PALPEBRARUM RECTUS. See *Levator palpebræ superioris*.

APERIENTS, (*Aperientia*, sc. me-

dicamenta; from *aperio*, to open). Eccoprotics. Laxatives. Medicines which gently open the bowels; such as *magnesia*, *electuarium de cassia*, *electuarium de senna*, *kali vitriolatum*, &c.

APERTOR OCULI. See *Levator palpebræ superioris*.

APEPSIA, (*Apepsia*, α, f. *απεψια*; from α, priv. and *πεπω*, to digest). Indigestion.

APEX, (*Apex*, icis, m.). The extremity of a part; as the apex of the tongue, apex of the nose, &c.

APHONIA, (*Aphonia*, α, f. *αφωνια*; from α, priv. and *φωνη*, the voice). A suppression of the voice, without either syncope or coma. A genus of disease in the class *locales*, and order *dyscinesia* of Cullen. When it takes place from a tumour of the fauces, or about the glottis, it is termed *aphonia gutturalis*; when from a disease of the trachea, *aphonia trachealis*; and when from a paralysis, or want of nervous energy, *aphonia atonica*.

APHRODISIACS, (*Aphrodisiaca*, sc. *medicamenta*, *αφροδισιακα*; from *αφροδισια*, venery). Medicines which excite a desire for venery, as the *meloe vesicatorius* Linn.

APHTHÆ, (*Aphthæ*, arum, f. *αφθαι*; from *απλω*, to inflame). The thrush. A disease to which children are very subject. It appears in small white ulcers upon the tongue, gums, and around the mouth and palate. It is ranked by Cullen in the class *pyrexia*, and order *exanthemata*.

APIUM, (*Apium*, i, n.). Smallage. The root, seeds, and fresh plant, *Apium graveolens foliolis caulinis cuneiformibus, umbellis sessilibus* of Linnæus, are aperient and carminative.

APIUM GRAVEOLENS. The systematic name for the *apium* of the pharmacopœias. See *Apium*.

APIUM PETROSĒLINUM. The systematic name for the *petroselinum* of the pharmacopœias. See *Petroselinum*.

APOCENŌSIS, (*Apocnōsis*, is, f. *αποκένωσις*; from *απο*, and *κενωω*, to evacuate). A superabundant flux of blood or other fluid without pyrexia. The name of an order in the class *locales* of Cullen.

APOLEPSIS, (*Apolepsis*, is, f. *αποληψις*; from *απο*, and *λαμβάνω*, to take from). An interception, suppression, or retention of urine, or any other natural evacuation.

APONEURŌSIS, (*Aponeurosis*, is, f. *απονευρωσις*; from *απο*, from, and *νευρον*, a nerve; from an erroneous supposition of the ancients, that it was formed by the expansion of a nerve). A tendinous expansion.

ΑΡΟΦΗΨΙΣ, (*Arophysis*, is, f. *αροφυσις*; from *απο*, and *φύω*, to grow). A process of a bone, as the nasal apophysis of the frontal bone, &c.

APOPLEXIA, (*Apoplexia*, *a*, f. *απoplexia*; from *αποπλησσω*, to strike or knock down; because persons, when seized with this disease, fall down suddenly). Apoplexy. A sudden abolition, in some degree, of the powers of sense and motion, with sleep, and sometimes snoring; the respiration and motion of the heart remaining. Cullen arranges it in the class *neuroses*, and order *comata*. When it takes place from a congestion of blood it is termed *apoplexia sanguinea*; and when there is an abundance of serum, as in persons of a cold temperament, *apoplexia serosa*; if it arise from water in the ventricles of the brain, it is called *apoplexia hydrocephalica*; if from a wound, *apoplexia traumatica*; if from poisons, *apoplexia venenata*; if from the action of suffocating exhalations, *apoplexia suffocata*; if from passions of the mind, *apoplexia mentalis*; and when it is joined with catalepsy, *apoplexia cataleptica*.

APOSTĒMA, (*Apostema*, *ātis*, *αποστημα*; from *αφίστημι*, to recede). The term given by the ancients to abscesses in general. See *Abscess*.

APOTHECARIUS, (*Apothecarius*, *i*,

m.; from *απο*, cum, with, and *τιθημι*, pono, to put; so called from his employ being to prepare, and keep in readiness the various articles in the *Materia Medica*, and to compound them for the physician's use). An apothecary. In every European country except Great Britain, the *apothecary* is the same as in England we name the *druggist* and *chemist*.

APOZEM, (*Apozema*, *ātis*, *n.* *αποζημα*; from *αποζέω*, to boil). A decoction.

APPENDICŪLACÆCI VERMIFORMIS. A vermicular process, about four inches in length, and the size of a goose-quill, which hangs to the intestine cæcum of the human body.

APPENDICŪLÆ EPIPLŌICÆ. *Appendices coli adiposæ*. The small appendices of the colon and rectum, which are filled with adipose substance. See *Intestines*.

APPLE, COMMON THORN. See *Stramonium*.

APPLES. The common crab tree, *Pyrus malus* of Linnæus, is the parent of all the vast variety of apples at present cultivated. Apples, in general, when ripe, afford a pleasant and easily digestible fruit for the table; but, when the stomach is weak, they are very apt to remain unaltered for some days, and to produce dyspepsia. Sour fruits are to be considered as unwholesome, except when boiled or baked, and rendered soft and mellow by the addition of sugar.

APRICOT. The fruit of the *Prunus armeniaca* of Linnæus. When ripe they are easily digested, and are considered as a pleasant and nutritious delicacy.

APYREXIA, (*Apyrexia*, *a*, f. *απυρεξια*; from *a*, priv. and *πυρεξια*, a fever). Apyrexia. Without fever. The intermission of feverish heat.

AQUA, (*Aqua*, *a*, f. water). Water. See *Water*.

AQUA ALUMINIS COMPOSITA. *Aqua aluminosa Bateana*. This pre-

paration is employed externally as a detergent. It forms a useful collyrium if properly diluted, and is an excellent injection for the cure of Leucorrhœa.

AQUA AMMONIÆ. *Spiritus salis ammoniaci.* This preparation is called *carbonas animoniacæ liquidus* in the new chemical nomenclature. Similar to this in composition and virtues is the *liquor volatilis cornu cervi*. They are highly esteemed for their stimulating, nervine, antacid virtues, and are administered in debility, typhus, ataxia, atonic spasms, paralysis, syncope, arthritis, rheumatism, &c. They are also employed externally with fixed oils, in paralysis, indolent tumours, internal inflammations, and a variety of affections.

AQUA AMMONIÆ ACETATÆ. *Acetis ammoniacalis.* *Spiritus Mindereri.* This preparation is called *Acetis ammoniacæ liquidus* in the new chemical nomenclature, it being a neutral salt in solution, formed by the combination of acetous acid with ammoniac. It is much esteemed as possessing nervine, diaphoretic, diuretic, and deobstruent virtues.

AQUA AMMONIÆ PURÆ. *Spiritus salis ammoniaci cum calce.* Water saturated with ammoniacal gaz. It is much used to smell at in faintings, &c. and possesses the same properties as ammoniacal gaz. See *Ammoniac*.

AQUA ANETHI. *Aqua seminum anethi.* For the virtues of this distilled water, see *Anethum*.

AQUA CALCIS. Lime-water. It is given internally in cardialgia, spasms, diarrhœa, and convulsions of children, arising from acidity or ulcerated intestines, intermittent fevers, &c. Externally it is applied to burns and ulcers.

AQUA CINNAMŌMI. *Aqua cinnamomi simplex.* Distilled cinnamon water. For its virtues see *Cinnamomum*.

AQUA CUPRI AMMONIATI. *Aqua sapphirina.* This preparation is em-

ployed by surgeons to stimulate and clear foul ulcers.

AQUA CUPRI VITRIOLATI COMPOSITA. This preparation of the Edinburgh pharmacopœia, is used externally to stop hæmorrhages of the nose.

AQUA DISTILLATA. See *Water*.

AQUA FENICULI. For the virtues of distilled fennel water see *Fœniculum*.

AQUA FORTIS. See *Acidum nitrosus dilutum*.

AQUA KALI. *Oleum tartari per deliquium.* *Lixivium tartari.* This is the liquid carbonate of pot-ash, *carbonas potassæ liquidus*. It possesses antacid virtues, and is a good antidote against arsenic taken into the stomach. It is also given with advantage in convulsions and spasms, from acidity in the stomach of children, in calculous diseases, gouty affections, scrophula, aphthæ, &c. The carbonate of soda is milder, and perhaps a preferable remedy for general use. See *Carbonas sodæ*.

AQUA KALI PURI. *Lixivium saponarum.* This possesses diuretic and lithontriptic virtues, enveloped in weak broths or mucilaginous drinks. Diluted in tepid water, in the proportion of three drops to two ounces, it serves as an efficacious detergent in *Xerophthalmia*.

AQUA LITHARGYRI ACETATI. *Acetum lithargyri.* *Extractum saturni.* This is the celebrated *extract of Goulard*. It is called *acetis plumbi liquidus* in the new chemical nomenclature. It is principally employed by surgeons in the *aqua lithargyri acetati composita*, &c. externally, as a resolvent against inflammatory affections.

AQUA LITHARGYRI ACETATI COMPOSITA. *Aqua vegeto-mineralis.* *Goulard's vegeto-mineral water.* The virtues of this water, are resolvent, refrigerant, and sedative.

AQUA MENTHÆ PIPERITIDIS. See *Mentha piperitis*.

AQUA MENTHÆ SATIVÆ. *Aqua menthæ vulgaris simplex.* See *Mentha sativa*.

AQUA PIMENTO. *Aqua piperitidis Jamaicensis.* For the virtues of this distilled water see *Pimento*.

AQUA PULEGII. *Aqua pulegii simplex.* For its virtues see *Pulegium*.

AQUA ROSÆ. *Aqua rosarum damascenarum.* Distilled rose water is employed only as a pleasant vehicle for other medicines, colyria, &c.

AQUA ZINCI VITRIOLATI CUM CAMPHORA. *Aqua vitriolica camphorata.* This, when properly diluted, is an useful collyrium for inflammations of the eyes, in which there is a weakness of the parts. Externally it is applied by surgeons to scorbutic and phagedenic ulcerations.

AQUÆ MINERÆLES. See *Waters, mineral*.

AQUÆDUCT OF FALLOPIUS. A canal in the petrous portion of the temporal bone, first accurately described by Fallopius.

AQUATICA NUX. See *Tribulus aquaticus*.

AQUEOUS HUMOUR OF THE EYE. *Humor aqueus.* The very limpid watery fluid which fills both chambers of the eye.

AQUIFOLIUM, (*Aquifolium*, i. n. from *acus*, a needle, and *folium*, a leaf; so called on account of its prickly leaf). The leaves of this plant, *Ilex aquifolium*; *foliis ovatis acutis spinosis* of Linnæus, have been known to cure intermittent fevers; and an infusion of the leaves, drank as tea, is said to be a preventative against the gout.

AQUILA ALBA. One of the names given to calomel. See *Calomelas*.

AQUILEGIA, (*Aquilegia*, æ, f. from *aqua*, water, and *lego*, to gather; so called from the shape of its leaves, which retain water). The herb columbine. The seeds, flowers, and the whole plant, *Aquilegia vulgaris*; *nectarium incurvis*, of Linnæus, have been used medicinally, the first in exan-

themalous diseases, the latter chiefly as an antiscorbutic. Though retained in several foreign pharmacopœias, their utility appears to be forgot in this country.

AQUULA, (*Aquula*, æ, f. dim. of *aqua*). A small quantity of very fine and limpid water; thus it is applied to the pellucid water, which distends the capsule of the crystalline lens, and the lens itself.

ARABIC, GUM, (*Gummi Arabicum*, n.; so called from its being brought from Arabia). This gum exudes, in a liquid state, from the bark of the trunk of the *Mimosa nilotica* of Linnæus (*mimosa, spinis stipularibus patentibus, foliis bipinnatis: partialibus extimis glandula intertinctis, spicis globosis pedunculatis*), in a similar manner to the gum which is found upon the cherry-trees in this country. That of a pale yellowish colour is most esteemed. Gum arabic is neither soluble in spirit nor in oil, but in twice its quantity of water it dissolves into a mucilaginous fluid, of the consistence of a thick syrup, and in this state answers many useful pharmaceutical purposes, by rendering oily, resinous, and pinguious substances miscible with water. The glutinous quality of gum arabic renders it preferable to other gums and mucilages as a demulcent in coughs, hoarsenesses, and other catarrhal affections. It is also very generally employed in ardor urinæ, diarrhœas, and calculous complaints.

ARACHNOID MEMBRANE, (*Membrana arachnoidæa*, f. from *αράχνη*, a spider, and *ειδος*, likeness; so named from its resemblance to a spider's web). A thin membrane of the brain, without vessels and nerves, situated between the dura and pia mater, and surrounding the cerebrum, cerebellum, medulla oblongata, and medulla spinalis. The term is also applied by some writers to the tunic of the crystalline lens and vitreous humour of the eye.

ARBOR VITÆ. The cortical substance of the cerebellum is so disposed, that, when cut transversely, it appears ramified like a tree, from which circumstance it is termed *arbor vitæ*.

ARBOR VITÆ. The leaves and wood of this tree, *Thuya occidentalis*; *strobilis lævibus, squamis obtusis*, of Linnæus, were formerly in high estimation as resolvents, sudorifics, and expectorants, and were given in phthical affections, intermittent fevers, and dropsies.

ARBÛTUS UVA URSI. The systematic name for the officinal woolly headed burdock. See *Uva ursi*.

ARCANUM, (*Arcanum*, i. n. a secret). A medicine whose preparation or efficacy, is kept from the world, to enhance its value. With the chemists it is a thing secret and incorporeal; it can only be known by experience, for it is the virtue of every thing, which operates a thousand times more than the thing itself.

ARCTIUM, (*Arctium*, i. n. ἀρκτικός; from ἀρκτος, a bear; so called from its roughness).

ARCTIUM LAPPA. (Called *lappa*, ἀπο το λαβειν, from its seizing the garments of passengers). The systematic name for the *bardana*. See *Bardana*.

ARÊOLA, (*Areola*, æ, f. a dim. of *area*, a void space). A small brown circle, which surrounds the nipples of females. During and after pregnancy it becomes considerably larger.

ARGENTUM, (*Argentum*, i, n. from ἀργεῖον, white). See *Silver*.

ARGENTUM NITRATUM. *Cauticum lunare.* *Lunar caustic.* This preparation of silver is called *nitrus argenti fusus* in the new chemical nomenclature. Its virtues are corrosive and adstringent. Internally it is exhibited in very small quantities in epilepsy; and externally it is employed to destroy fungous excrescences, callous ulcers, fistulas, &c. In the latter disease it is injected in the quantity

of from two grains to three dissolved in an ounce of water.

ARGENTUM VIVUM. See *Hydrargyrum*.

ARGILLACEOUS EARTH. *Terra argillacea.* Clay. See *Alumin*.

ARISTÖLÖCHIA, (*Aristolochia*, æ, f. from ἀριστος, good, and λοχια or λοχεια, parturition; so called because it was supposed to be of sovereign use in disorders incident to child-birth). *Long-rooted birthwort.* *Aristolochia longa* of Linnæus. *Aristolochia, foliis cordatis petiolatis integerrimis obtusiusculis, caule infirmo, floribus solitariis.* Class. *Gynandria.* Order. *Hexandria.* The root of this plant only is in use; it possesses a somewhat aromatic smell, and a warm bitterish taste, accompanied with a slight degree of pungency. The virtues ascribed to this root by the ancients were very considerable, and it was frequently employed in various diseases, but particularly in promoting the discharge of the *lochia*: hence its name. It is now very rarely used, except in gouty affections, as an aromatic stimulant.

ARISTÖLOCHIA ANGUICIDA.—Snake-killing birthwort. The juice of the root of this plant, *Aristolochia anguicida*; *foliis cordatis, acuminatis; caule volubili, fruticoso; pedunculis solitariis; stipulis cordatis*, of Linnæus, has the property of so stupefying serpents, that they may be handled with impunity. One or two drops are sufficient, and if more be dropt into the mouth they become convulsed. So ungrateful is the smell of the root to those reptiles, that it is said they immediately turn from it. The juice is also esteemed as a preventative against the effects usually produced by the bite of venomous serpents.

ARISTOLOCHIA CLEMATITIS.—(Called *clematitis*, κληματίτις; from κλημα, a tendril, from its climbing up trees or any thing it can fasten upon with its tendrils). The systematic name of the *aristochia vulgaris* of the

pharmacopœias. See *Aristolachia vulgaris*.

ARISTOLOCHĪA FABACĒA. The root of this plant, *Fumaria bulbosa*; *caule simplici, bracteis longitudine florum*, of Linnæus, was formerly given to restore suppressed menses, and as an anthelmintic.

ARISTOLOCHĪA LONGA. The systematic name for the aristolochia of our pharmacopœias. See *Aristolochia*.

ARISTOLOCHĪA ROTUNDA. The root of this species, *Aristolochia rotunda, foliis cordatis, subsessilibus, obtusis; caule infirmo; floribus solitariis*, of Linnæus, is used indiscriminately with that of the *aristolochia longa*. See *Aristolochia*.

ARISTOLOCHĪA SERPENTĀRIĀ. The systematic name for the *serpentaria virginiana* of the pharmacopœias. See *Serpentaria virginiana*.

ARISTOLOCHĪA TENUIS. See *Aristolochia vulgaris*.

ARISTOLOCHĪA TRILOBĀTA.—Three-lobed birthwort. The root and every part of this plant, *Aristolochia trilobata; foliis trilobis, caule volubili, floribus maximis*, is diuretic, and is employed in America against the bite of serpents.

ARISTOLOCHĪA VULGĀRIS. *Aristolochia tenuis*. An extract is prepared from this species, *Aristolochia clematitis; foliis cordatis; caule erecto; floribus axillaribus confertis*, of Linnæus, by the Wertemberg pharmacopœia, and the plant is retained in that of Edinburgh. It is esteemed as possessing antipodagric virtues.

ARMORACĪA, (*Armoracia, æ, f.* from *Armorica*, the country from whence it was brought). See *Raphanus rusticus*.

ARNĪCA, (*Arnica, æ, f. αρνικη*; from *αρ*, a lamb; because of the likeness of the leaf of this plant to the coat of the lamb). *Doronicum Germanicum*. Mountain arnica. *Arnica montana* of Linnæus. *Arnica, foliis ovatis integris; caulinis geminis oppositis*. Class. Syn-

genesia. Order. *Polygamia superflua*. The flowers of this plant are very generally employed on the continent. Of the advantages derived from their use in paralytic and other affections depending upon a want of nervous energy, there are several proofs; and their extraordinary virtues, as a febrifuge and antiseptic, have been highly extolled. Much caution is necessary in regulating the dose, as it is a medicine very apt to produce vomiting and much uneasiness of the stomach.

ARNĪCA MONTĀNA. The systematic name for the *arnica* of the pharmacopœias. See *Arnica*.

ARNĪCA SUEDENSIS. See *Conyza media*.

ARNOTTO. See *Galeana*.

ARŌMA, (*Aroma, ātis, n. αρωμα*; from *αρ*, intensely, and *ω*, to smell). *Spiritus rector*. Each plant has its characteristic smell. This odorant principle is called by the moderns *aroma*. Water charged with aroma is called the distilled water of the substance made use of; thus lavender and peppermint waters are water impregnated with the aroma of the lavender and peppermint.

AROMATICS, (*Aromatica, αρωματικα*; from *αρωμα*, an odour). A term applied to all medicines which have a grateful spicy scent, and an agreeable pungent taste, as cinnamon bark, cardamoms, &c.

ARQUEBUSADE. *Aqua sclopetaria*. This is a French word, implying good for a gun-shot wound. The name of a spirituous water distilled from a farrago of aromatic plants.

ARRACK. A spirituous liquor distilled from rice, and drank in the rice countries as we do brandy in this island. Its effects on the animal economy are the same. See *Brandy*.

ARROWHEAD. The roots of this plant, *Sagittaria sagittifolia* of Linnæus, are said to be esculent, but it must be in times of very great scarcity.

ARROW ROOT. *Indian arrow root.*

ARSĒNIAS, (*Arsenias*, *ātis*, m. from *arsenicum*, arsenic). An arseniate or arsenical salt. Arseniates are formed by a combination of arsenic acid with different bases, as arseniate of ammoniac, which is produced by the union of ammoniac with arseniac acid.

ARSENIC, (*Arsenicum*, *i*, n.). A metal of tin found in black masses, almost without lustre and very heavy. Its aspect, however, and fracture are sometimes brilliant, rainbow-coloured, and scaly, when it is called *testaceous arsenic*. Sometimes it is found extremely pure, and is then termed *virgin arsenic*; this is known by its ponderosity, and diffusing the smell of garlic when exposed to heat on burning coals. It is also met with in the form of a whitish dust or oxyd of arsenic. It is often combined with sulphur, forming what is called orpiment or realgar. *Orpiment* is found in yellow, brilliant, micaceous masses, sometimes approaching to a green colour. *Realgar* is of a red colour, more or less lively and transparent, and sometimes crystallized in bright needles. The white ore of arsenic, called *mispickel*, or *arsenical pyrites*, is sometimes found crystallized in cubic crystals, but mostly without any determinate form. Arsenic is also found intermingled amongst the ores of cobalt, antimony, tin, iron, copper, and silver. Saxony affords the arsenic used in this country. *Pure arsenic*, commonly called regulus of arsenic, is of a blackish gray colour, reflects the colours of the rainbow, is very ponderous and friable; combined by combustion, or otherwise, with oxygen, it forms an oxyd, formerly called the calx of arsenic: and if superoxydated, which is generally done by means of the nitric acid, it affords an acid, called the *arseniac acid*, which combined with different bases, form a class of salts termed *arseniates*. Arsenic, and its various preparations, are the most active of all poisons; never-

theless it is a very valuable article in the materia medica. It is very generally used as a tonic in intermittents and hysterical complaints. The following is Dr. Fowler's method of preparing it for internal use. Take of powdered arsenic and prepared kali, each sixty-four grains, boil them gently in a Florentine cask, or other glass vessel, with half a pound of distilled water, until the arsenic is dissolved; to this solution, when cold, add half an ounce of compound spirit of lavender, and as much water as will make the whole equal to a pint, or fifteen ounces and half in weight. The dose of this solution is as follows: From two years old to four, gut. ij. or iij. to v; from five to seven, gut. v to viij; from eight to twelve, gut. viij to x; from thirteen to eighteen, gut. x to xij; from eighteen, and upwards, gut. xij. These doses may be repeated once in eight or twelve hours, diluted with thick gruel or barley water. Arsenic has long been the favourite escharotic amongst quacks who pretend to cure cancer, and it enters into the celebrated Plunket's caustic. The following plan should be pursued when arsenic has been swallowed in a quantity sufficient to endanger the life of the person. A vomit of white or blue vitriol should be exhibited immediately, and large quantities of water, in which the hepar sulphuris is dissolved, swallowed. The stomach having been thus emptied, a mixture, containing the hepar sulphuris, so as to have about a scruple to a dose, should be exhibited, frequently alternating with milk, butter, or castor oil.

ARSENICAL ACID. *Acidum arsenicum*. Arsenic acid. This is prepared by distilling six parts of nitrous acid from one of the calx of arsenic. See *Arsenic*.

ARTEMISIA, (*Artemisia*, *a*, f. *αρτεμισια*; so called from a queen of that name, who first used it; or from *απλεμς*, Diana; because it is used in secret

disorders of women, over which she presided).

ARTEMISIA ABROTANUM. The systematic name for the *abrotanum* of the pharmacopœias. See *Abrotanum*.

ARTEMISIA ABSYNTHIUM. The systematic name for the *absynthium vulgare* of the pharmacopœias. See *Absynthium vulgare*.

ARTEMISIA JUDIACA. The systematic name for the *Santonicum* of the pharmacopœias. See *Santonicum*.

ARTEMISIA MARITIMA. The systematic name for the *absynthium maritimum* of the pharmacopœias. See *Absynthium maritimum*.

ARTEMISIA PONTICA. The systematic name for the *absynthium ponticum*. See *Absynthium Ponticum*.

ARTEMISIA RUPESTRIS. The systematic name for the *genipi album* of the pharmacopœias. See *Genipi album*.

ARTEMISIA VULGARIS. Mugwort. This plant, *Artemisia, foliis pinnatifidis planis incisus subius tomentosus, racemis simplicibus recurvatis floribus radio quinquefloro*, of Linnæus, is slightly bitter, and although in high esteem in former days, is now almost wholly forgotten. By beating and rubbing the dried tops of this plant, the Japanese prepare a soft substance, which they call moxa. See *Moxa*.

ARTERIÆ ADIPOSÆ. The arteries which secrete the fat about the kidneys are so called. They are branches of the capsular and diaphragmatic, renal and spermatic arteries.

ARTERIÆ VENOSÆ. The four pulmonary veins were so called by the ancients.

ARTERIÖSUS DUCTUS. See *Ductus arteriosus*.

ARTERIOTOMY, (*Arteriotomia*, *a*, *f*. from *αρτηρια*, an artery, and *τομω*, to cut). The opening of an artery. This operation is only performed on the temporal artery.

ARTERY, (*Arteria*, *a*, *f*. from *αηρ*, air, and *τηναι*, to keep; because the ancients believed they carried the finer

parts of the blood, mixed with air). Arteries are membranous pulsating canals, which gradually become less as they proceed from the heart. They are composed of three membranes, a common or external, a muscular, and an internal one, which is very smooth. They originate from the heart; the pulmonary artery from the right ventricle, and the aorta from the left: the other arteries are all branches of the aorta. Their termination is either in the veins, or in capillary exhaling vessels, or they anastomose with one another. It is by their means that the blood is carried from the heart to every part of the body, for nutrition, preservation of life, generation of heat, and the secretion of the different fluids. The action of the arteries, called the pulse, corresponds with that of the heart, and is effected by the contraction of their muscular, and great elasticity of their innermost coat.

A Table of the Arteries.

All the arteries originate from the pulmonary artery and the aorta.

The *pulmonary artery* emerges from the right ventricle of the heart, soon divides into a right and left branch, which are distributed by innumerable branches through the lungs.

The *aorta* arises from the left ventricle of the heart, and supplies every part of the body with blood in the following order.

- a. It first forms an *arch*;
- b. It then descends along the spine, and
- c. It divides into the two *iliacs*.

a. The ARCH OF THE AORTA gives off three branches.

I. The *arteria innominata*, which divides into the *right carotid* and *right subclavian*.

II. The *left carotid*.

III. The *left subclavian*.

I. The *carotids* are divided into *external* and *internal*.

The *external carotids* give off

1. The *thyroid*,

2. The *lingual*,
3. The *labial*,
4. The *inferior pharyngeal*,
5. The *occipital*,
6. The *posterior auris*,
7. The *internal maxillary*, from which the *spinous artery of the dura mater*, the *lower maxillary*, and several branches about the *palate and orbit* arise,
8. The *temporal*.

The *internal carotid* affords

1. The *ophthalmic*,
2. The *middle cerebra*,
3. The *communicans*, which inosculates with the *vertebra*.

II. The *subclavians* give off the following branches:

1. The *internal mammary*, from which the *thymic*, *comes phrenici*, *pericardiac*, and *phrenico-pericardiac arteries* arise,
2. The *inferior thyroid*, which gives off the *tracheal*, *ascending thyroid*, and *transversalis humeri*,
3. The *vertebral*, which proceeds within the *vertebrae*, and forms within the *cranium* the *basilary artery*, from which the *anterior cerebelli*, the *posterior cerebri*, and many branches about the *brain* are given off,
4. The *cervicalis profunda*,
5. The *cervicalis superficialis*,
6. The *superior intercostal*,
7. The *supra-scapular*.

As soon as the *subclavian* arrives at the *arm-pit*, it is called the *axillary artery*; and when the latter reaches the *arm*, it is called the *brachial*.

The *axillary artery* gives off

1. Four *mammary arteries*,
2. The *sub-scapular*,
3. The *posterior circumflex*,
4. The *anterior circumflex*, which ramify about the *shoulder joint*.

The *brachial artery* gives off

1. Many *lateral branches*,
2. The *profunda humeri superior*,
3. The *profunda humeri inferior*,
4. The *great anastomosing artery*, which

ramifies about the *elbow-joint*;

The *brachial artery* then divides, about the bend of the *arm*, into the *ulnar and radial arteries*, which are ramified to the ends of the *fingers*.

The *ulnar artery* gives off

1. Several *recurrent branches*,
2. The *common interosseal*, of which the *dorsal ulnar*, the *pulmaris profunda*, the *palmary arch*, and the *digitals*, are branches.

The *radial artery* gives off

1. The *radial recurrent*,
2. The *superficialis volæ*, and then divides into the *palmaris profunda* and the *digitals*.

b. The *DESCENDING AORTA* gives off,

In the *breast*,

1. The *bronchial*,
2. The *æsofageal*,
3. The *intercostals*,
4. The *inferior diaphragmatic*;

Within the *abdomen*,

1. The *cæliac*, which divides into three branches:
 1. The *hepatic*, from which are given off, before it reaches the *liver*,
 - a. The *duodeno-gastric*, which sends off the *right gastro-epiploic* and the *pancreatico-duodenal*,
 - β. The *pilorica superior hepatica*;
 2. The *coronaria ventriculi*,
 3. The *splenic*, which emits the *great and small pancreatics*, the *posterior gastric*, the *left gastro-epiploic*, and the *vasa brevia*;

2. The *superior mesentric*,
3. The *emulgents*,
4. The *spermatics*,
5. The *inferior mesentric*,
6. The *lumbar arteries*,
7. The *middle sacral*.

c. The *aorta* then bifurcates into the *ILIACS*, each of which divide into *external and internal*.

The *internal iliac*, called also *hypo-gastric*, gives off

1. The *lateral sacrals*,
2. The *gluteal*,

3. The *ischiatric*,
4. The *pubical*, from which the *external hæmorrhoidal*, the *perineal*, and the *arteriæ penis* arise,
5. The *obturatory*.

The *external iliac* gives off, in the groin,

1. The *epigastric*,
2. The *circumflexa iliaca*;

It then passes under Poupart's ligament, and is called the *femoral artery*, and sends off

1. The *profunda*,
2. The *ramus anastomoticus magnus*, which runs about the knee joint;

Having reached the ham, where it gives off some small branches, it is termed the *popliteal*. It then divides into the *anterior* and *posterior tibial*.

The *tibialis antica* gives off

1. The *recurrent*,
2. The *internal malleolar*,
3. The *external malleolar*,
4. The *tarseal*,
5. The *metatarseal*,
6. The *dorsales externa halicus*.

The *posterior tibial* sends off

1. The *nutritia tibiæ*,
2. Many small branches,
3. The *internal plantar*,
4. The *external plantar*, from which an arch is formed, that gives off the *digitals of the toes*.

ARTHANITA, (*Arthanita*, *a*, f. *αρθανιτα*; from *αρος*, bread; because it is the food of swine). The herb sow-bread. See *Cyclamen*.

ARTHRITIS, (*Arthritis*, *idis*, f. from *αρθρον*, a joint). The gout. A disease arranged by Cullen in the class *pyrexia*, and order *phlegmasia*. It begins with an excruciating pain in the part, which swells and inflames, induces a high degree of fever, and mostly terminates by resolution or the deposition of a chalky matter. The species of this complaint are *arthritis regularis*, *arthritis atonica*, *arthritis retrogradâ*, and *arthritis aberrans*.

ARTHRŌDIA, (*Arthrodia*, *a*, from

αρθρον, to articulate). A species of *diarthrosis*, or moveable connexion of bones, in which the head of one bone is received into the superficial cavity of another, so as to admit of motion in every direction, as the head of the humerus with the glenoid cavity of the scapula.

ARTHRŌDYNIA, (*Arthrodynia*, *a*, f. from *αρθρον*, a joint, and *δυνω*, pain). Chronic pains in the joints, without pyrexia. It is one of the terminations of acute rheumatism. See *Rheumatismus*.

ARTHROPUŌSIS, (*Arthropuosis*, *is*, f. *αρθροπυωσις*; from *αρθρον*, a joint, and *πυω*, pus). A collection of pus in a joint. It is, however, frequently applied to other affections as, *lumbago psoadica*, &c.

ARTICHOKE. See *Cinara*.

ARTICHOKE, FRENCH. See *Cinara*.

ARTICHOKE, JERUSALEM. Although formerly in estimation for the table, this plant, *Helianthus tuberosus* of Linnæus, is now neglected, it being apt to produce flatulency and dyspepsia.

ARTICULATION, (*Articulatio*, *onis*, f. from *articulus*, a joint). The connexion of one bone with another. There are three genera of articulations, viz. *diarthrosis*, or moveable connexion; *synarthrosis*, or immoveable connexion; and *symphysis*, or mediate connexion. See *Diarthrosis*, *Synarthrosis*, and *Symphysis*.

Table of the Connexions of Bones.

I. *Diarthrosis*, or moveable connexion. This genus contains five species:

1. *Enarthrosis*,
2. *Arthrodia*,
3. *Ginglymus*,
4. *Trochoides*,
5. *Amphiarthrosis*.

II. *Synarthrosis*, or immoveable connexion. This genus comprehends three species:

1. *Suture*,

2. *Harmony,*
3. *Gomphōsis.*

III. *Symphysis*, or *mediate connexion*, which has five species:

1. *Synchondrōsis,*
2. *Syffarcōsis,*
3. *Syneurōsis,*
4. *Syndesmōsis,*
5. *Synostōsis.*

ARUM, (*Arum*, i, n. from the Hebrew word *jaron*, which signifies a dart, so named because its leaves are shaped like a dart; or from *αρα*, injury). Common arum, or wake-robin. *Arum maculatum* of Linnæus. *Arum acaule, foliis hastatis integerrimis, spadice clavato.* Class. *Gynandria.* Order. *Polyandria.* The root is the medicinal part of this plant, which, when recent, is very acrimonious. It is employed as a stimulant in chlorotic, rheumatic, and paralytic cases, mixed with oleaginous or mucilaginous substances to sheath its acrimony. The London Pharmacopœia directs a conserve to be made of the fresh root.

ARUM, COMMON. See *Arum*.

ARUM MACULATUM. The systematic name for the *arum* of the pharmacopœias. See *Arum*.

ARYTÆNO-EPIGLOTTIDÆUS. A muscle composed of a number of fibres running between the arytænoid cartilage and epiglottis. It pulls the side of the epiglottis towards the external opening of the glottis, and when both act, they pull it close upon the glottis.

ARYTÆNOID CARTILAGE, (*Cartilago arytænoidæa*; from *αρυτæνα*, a funnel, and *εἶδος*, shape). The name of two cartilages of the larynx.

ARYTÆNOIDÆUS MINOR. See *Arytænoidæus obliquus*.

ARYTÆNOIDÆUS MAJOR. See *Arytænoidæus transversus*.

ARYTÆNOIDÆUS OBLIQUUS. *Arytænoidæus minor* of Douglas. A muscle of the glottis, which arises from the base of one arytænoid cartilage, and crossing its fellow, is inserted near

the tip of the other arytænoid cartilage. It is a muscle that is occasionally wanting; but when present, and both muscles act, their use is to pull the arytænoid cartilages towards each other.

ARYTÆNOIDÆUS TRANSVERSUS. *Arytænoidæus major* of Douglas. An azygos, or single muscle of the glottis, that arises from the side of one arytænoid cartilage, from near its articulation with the cricoid to near its tip. The fibres run across, and are inserted in the same manner into the other arytænoid cartilage. Its use is to shut the glottis, by bringing the two arytænoid cartilages, with their ligaments, nearer to each other.

ASAFÆTIDA (*Asafetida*, æ, f. from the Hebrew word *asa*, to heal). Gum asafetida. The plant which affords this gum-resin is the *Ferula asafetida* of Linnæus, (*Ferula foliis alternatim sinuatis obtusis.* Class. *Petandria.* Order. *Digynia*), which grows plentifully on mountains in the provinces of Chorasaan and Laar in Persia. The process of obtaining it is as follows: the earth is cleared away from the top of the roots of the oldest plants; the leaves and stalks are then twisted away, and made into a covering, to screen the root from the sun; in this state the root is left for forty days, when the covering is removed, and the top of the root cut off transversely; it is then screened again from the sun for forty-eight hours, when the juice it exudes is scraped off, and exposed to the sun to harden. A second transverse section of the root is made, and the exudation suffered to continue for forty-eight hours, and then scraped off. In this manner it is eight times repeatedly collected in a period of six weeks. The juice thus obtained has a bitter, acrid, pungent taste, and is well known by its peculiar nauseous smell, the strength of which is the surest test of its goodness. It is highly esteemed as an antihysterical, nervine,

and stimulating remedy, and is much used in hysteria, hypochondriasis, dyspepsia, &c.

ASARABACCA. See *Asarum*.

ASĀRUM, (*Asarum*, i, n. from α, neg. and σαίνω, to adorn; because it was not admitted into the ancient coronal wreaths). *Asarabacca*. *Asarum europæum* of Linnaeus. *Asarum foliis reniformibus obtusis binis*. Class. *Dodecandria*. Order. *Monogynia*. It is a native of England, but not very common. The leaves of this plant are extremely acrid, and are occasionally used, when powdered, as a sternutatory. The plant was formerly very generally employed internally as well as externally.

ASĀRUM EUROPÆUM. The systematic name for the *asarum* of the pharmacopœias. See *Asarum*.

ASCĀRIS, (*Ascaris*, i, dis, f.). There are several kinds of worms distinguished by this term; but those which claim a place here as belonging only to the human body, are, 1. *Ascaris vermicularis*, the thread or man worm, which is very small and slender, not exceeding half an inch in length: they inhabit the rectum. 2. *Ascaris lumbricoides*, the long and round worm, which is a foot in length, and about the breadth of a goose-quill.

ASCĪTES, (*Ascites*, e, m. from ασκός, a sack, or bottle). Dropsy of the belly. A tense, but scarcely elastic, swelling of the abdomen from the accumulation of water. Cullen ranks this genus of disease in the class *cachexiæ*, and order *intumescencia*. He enumerates two species: 1. *Ascites abdominalis*, when the water is in the cavity of the peritonæum, which is known by the equal swelling of the parietes of the abdomen. 2. *Ascites siccatas*, or encysted dropsy, in which the water is encysted, as in the ovary; the fluctuation is here less evident, and the swelling is at first partial.

ASCLEPIAS, (*Asclepias*, adis, f. ἀσκληπία; from *Asclepias*, its discover-

er, or from *Æsculapius*, the god of medicine). The herb swallow-wort. See *Vincetoxicum*.

ASCLEPIAS VINCETOXICUM. Official swallow-wort, or tame poison. The systematic name for the *vincetoxicum* of the pharmacopœias. See *Vincetoxicum*.

ASH. See *Fraxinus*.

ASPALATHI LIGNUM. See *Lignum aloes*.

ASPĀRAGUS, (*Asparagus*, i, m. ἀσπράγγος, a young shoot, before it unfolds its leaves).

ASPĀRAGUS OFFICINĀLIS. The systematic name for the officinal *asparagus*. See *Asparagus*.

ASPĒRA ARTERĪA. See *Trachea*.

ASPERŪLA ODORĀTA. The systematic name for the officinal *matrisylva*. See *Matrisylva*.

ASPHODĒLUS, (*Asphodelus*, i, m. ἀσφοδελός; from ἀσπίς, a serpent, and δειλός, fearful, because it destroys the venom of serpents; or from σποδελός, ashes, because it was formerly sown upon the graves of the dead). Daffodil. This plant, *Asphodelus racemosus*; *caule nudo, foliis ensiformibus carinatis levibus*, of Linnæus, was formerly supposed to be efficacious in the cure of sordid ulcers. It is now wholly laid aside.

ASPHODĒLUS RACEMŌSUS. The systematic name for the officinal *asphodelus*. See *Asphodelus*.

ASPHYXIĀ, (*Asphyxia*, e, f. ἀσφυξία; from α, priv. and σφυξίς, a pulse). The state of the body, during life, in which the pulsation of the heart and arteries cannot be perceived. There are several species of asphyxia enumerated by different authors.

ASPLENĪUM RUTA MURARIĀ. The systematic name for the *ruta muraria* of the pharmacopœias. See *Ruta muraria*.

ASPLENĪUM SCOLOPENDRĪUM. The systematic name for the *scolopendrium* of the pharmacopœias. See *Scolopendrium*.

ASPLENIUM TRICHOMANES.—The systematic name for the *trichomanes* of the pharmacopœias. See *Trichomanes*.

ASSA DULCIS. See *Benzoinum*.

ASSES MILK. This is preferred to cows and other kinds of milk in phthical cases, and where the stomach is weak, as containing less oleaginous particles, and being more easily converted into chyle.

ASSIMULATION, (*Affimilatio, onis*, f. from *ad*, and *similis*, to make like to). The conversion of the food into nutriment.

ASTACUS FLUVIATILIS. The officinal crab.

ASTHENIA, (*Asthēnia, æ*, f. *ασθενεια*; from *ασθενεω*, priv. and *σθενος*, strength). Extreme debility.

ASTHMA, (*Asthma, ātis*, n. *ασθμα*; from *ασθμαζειν*, to breathe with difficulty). Difficult respiration, returning at intervals, with a sense of stricture across the breast, and in the lungs; a wheezing, hard cough, at first, but more free towards the close of each paroxysm, with a discharge of mucus, followed by a remission. It is ranked by Cullen in the class *neuroses*, and order *spasmi*. There are three species of asthma: 1. *Asthma spontaneum*, when without any manifest cause. 2. *Asthma plethoricum*, when it arises from plethora. 3. *Asthma exanthematicum*, originating from the repulsion of some humour.

ASTRAGĀLUS, (*Astragalus, i*, m. *αστραγαλος*, a cockal, or die; because it is shaped like the die used in ancient games). A bone of the *tarsus*, upon which the tibia moves. It is placed posteriorly and superiorly in the tarsus, and is formed of two parts, one large, which is called its body, the other small, like a process. The part where these two unite is termed the neck.

ASTRAGĀLUS EXCAPUS. Stemless milk vetch. The root of this plant, *Astragalus excapus*; *acaulis excapus leguminibus lunatis, foliis villosis*

of Linnæus, is said to cure confirmed syphilis, especially when in the form of nodes and nocturnal pains.

ASTRAGĀLUS TRAGĀCANTHA. The systematic name for the plant which affords the gum tragacanth. See *Tragacantha*.

ASTRINGENTS. See *Adstringents*.

ATAXIA, (*Ataxia, æ*, f. *αταξια*; from *α*, neg. and *τασσω*, to order). Want of regularity in the symptoms of a disease, or of the functions of an animal body.

ATHAMANTA CRETENSIS. The systematic name for the *daucus creticus* of the pharmacopœias. See *Daucus creticus*.

ATHAMANTA OREOSELINUM.—The systematic name for the officinal *oreoselinum*. See *Oreoselinum*.

ATHERŌMA, (*Atheroma, ātis*, n. *αθηρωμα*, pulse, pap). An encysted tumour that contains a soft substance of the consistence of a poultice.

ATLAS, (*Atlas, antis*, m. *ατλας*; from *ατλαν*, to sustain, because it sustains the head; or from the fable of Atlas, who was supposed to support the world upon his shoulders). The name of the first cervical vertebra. This vertebra differs very much from the others. See *Vertebræ*. It has no spinous process which would prevent the neck from being bent backwards, but in its place it has a small eminence. The great foramen of this is much larger than that of any other vertebra. Its body, which is small and thin, is nevertheless firm and hard. It is somewhat like a ring, and is distinguished into its *great arch*, which serves in the place of its body, and its *small posterior arch*. The atlas is joined superiorly to the head by ginglymus; and inferiorly, to the second cervical vertebra, by means of the inferior oblique processes and the odontoid process by trochoides.

ATMOSPHERE, (*Atmosfera, æ*, f. from *αμος*, vapour, and *σφαιρα*, a circle). The gaseous, or aeriform fluid,

which every where invests the surface of the globe. See *Air atmospheric*.

ATMOSPHERIC AIR. See *Air atmospheric*.

ATONIC. Relaxed, diminution of strength, weakness, debility.

ATONY, (*Atonia*, *a*, f. *ατονια*; from *α*, neg. and *τείνω*, to extend). A defect of muscular power.

ATRIPLEX FŒTIDA. *Atriplex olida*. *Vulvaria*. The very fetid smell of this plant, *Cenopodium vulvaria*; *foliis integerrimis rhombeo ovatis, floribus conglomeratis axillaribus*, of Linnæus, induced physicians to exhibit it in hysterical diseases. It is now superseded by more active preparations.

ATRIPLEX HORTENSIS. The systematic name for the *atriplex sativa* of the pharmacopœias. See *Atriplex sativa*.

ATRIPLEX SATIVA. The herb and seed of this plant, *Atriplex hortensis caule erecto herbaceo, foliis triangularibus*, of Linnæus, have been exhibited medicinally, but the practice of the present day appears to have totally rejected them.

ATRŒPA BELLADONNA. The systematic name for the *belladonna* of the pharmacopœias. See *Belladonna*.

ATRŒPA MANDRAGŒRA. The systematic name for the plant which affords the *radix mandragoræ* of the pharmacopœias. See *Mandragora*.

ATROPHY, (*Atropia*, *a*, f. *ατροφία*; from *α*, neg. and *τρέφω*, to nourish). Emaciation and weakness, but without hectic fever. This disease is arranged by Cullen in the class *cachexiæ*, and order *marcores*. When it takes place from too copious evacuations, it is termed *atrophia inanitorum*; when from famine, *atrophia famelicorum*; when from corrupted nutriment, *atrophia cacoehymica*; and when from an interruption in the digestive organs, *atrophia debiliū*.

ATTENUANTS, (*Attenuantia*, *sc. medicamenta*; from *attenuo*, to make thin). Diluents. Those substances

are so termed, which possess a power of imparting to the blood a more thin and more fluid consistence than it had previous to their exhibition; such are, *aqua*, *serum lactis*, &c.

ATTOLLENS AUREM, (*Attollens*; from *attollo*, to lift up). A common muscle of the ear, which arises, thin, broad, and tendinous, from the tendon of the occipito-frontalis, from which it is almost inseparable, where it covers the aponeurosis of the temporal muscle; and is inserted into the upper part of the ear, opposite to the antihelix. Its use is to draw the ear upwards, and to make the parts into which it is inserted, tense.

ATTRACTION, (*Attractio*, *onis*, f. from *attraho*, to attract). See *Affinity*.

AUDITORY NERVE. See *Nervus auditorius*.

AUDITORY NERVES. *Nervi auditorii*. The seventh pair of nerves, which are distributed on the organ of hearing. See *Portio mollis*.

AUDITORY PASSAGE. See *Meatus auditorius externus* and *internus*.

AURA, (*Aura*, *a*, f. *αὔρα*; from *αὔω*, to breathe). Any subtle vapour or exhalation.

AURA EPILEPTICA. A sensation which is felt by epileptic patients, as if a blast of cold air ascended from the lower parts towards the heart and head.

AURA SEMINIS. The extremely subtle and vivifying portion of the semen virile, that ascends through the Fallopian tubes, to impregnate the ovum in the ovarium.

AURANTIUM, (*Aurantium*, *i*, n. *ab aureo colore*, from its golden colour). *Aurantium Hispalense*. The Seville orange. The plant which affords this fruit is the *Citrus aurantium*, *petiolis alatis, foliis acuminatis*, of Linnæus. Class. *Polyadelphia*. Order. *Icosandria*. The leaves, flowers, and exterior rind are directed for medicinal use. The latter possesses stomachic and stimulant qualities, and

is ordered in tinctures, conserves, and syrups. The leaves and flowers are very seldom used.

AURICŪLA, (*Auricula*, *a*, f. dim. of *auris*, the ear). The external ear, upon which are several eminences and depressions, as the *helix*, *antihelix*, *tragus*, *antitragus*, *conchæ auriculæ*, *scapha*, and *lobulus*.

AURICŪLA JUDÆ. *Fungus sambucinus*. A membraceous fungus, *Peziza auriculæ*; *concaua rugosa auriformis* of Linnæus, which resembles the human ear. Its virtues are adstringent, and it is generally employed in form of decoction, as a gargle for relaxed fore throats.

AURICŪLA MURIS. See *Pilosella*.

AURICULŒ CORDIS. The auricles of the heart. See *Heart*.

AURICULĀRIS, (*Auricularis*, *sc. digitus*; from *auris*, the ear). The little finger; so called because people generally put it into the ear, when the hearing is obstructed.

AURIPIGMENTUM. Yellow orpiment. See *Arsenic*.

AURIS, (*Auris*, *is*, f. from *aura*, air, as being the medium of hearing). The ear, or organ of hearing. See *Ear*.

AUSTERE. A rough adstringent taste.

AVĒNA, (*Avena*, *a*, f. from *aveo*, to covet; because cattle are so fond of it). Oats. *Avena sativa* of Linnæus. Oatmeal is very generally employed in emollient poultices.

AVĒNA SATĪVA. The systematic name for the *avena* of the pharmacopœias. See *Avena*.

AVENS, COMMON. See *Caryophyllata*.

AVICENNĪA TOMENTŌSA. The systematic name for the plant which affords the *Anacardium orientale* of the pharmacopœias. See *Anacardium orientale*.

AVIGATO PEAR. This delicious fruit, the produce of the *Laurus persica* of Linnæus, when ripe melts in

the mouth like marrow, which it greatly resembles in flavour. It is supposed to be the most nutritious of all the tropical fruits, and grows in vast abundance in the West Indies and New Spain. The unripe fruit have but little taste; yet being very salubrious, are often eaten with salt and pepper. The sailors, when they arrive at the Havannah and those parts, purchase them in great quantities; and chopping them into small pieces with green capscums and a little salt, regale themselves heartily with them. They are esteemed also for their antidiysenteric qualities, and are prepared in a variety of ways for the tables of the rich.

AXILLA, (*Axilla*, *a*, f.). The cavity under the upper part of the arm, called the arm-pit.

AXILLARY ARTERIES. *Arteriæ axillares*. The axillary arteries are continuations of the subclavians, and give off, each of them, in the axilla, four mammary arteries, the subscapular, and the posterior and anterior circumflex arteries, which ramify about the joint.

AXILLARY NERVE. Articular nerve. A branch of the brachial plexus, and sometimes of the radial nerve. It runs outwards and backwards around the neck of the humerus, and is lost in the muscles of the scapula.

AXILLARY VEINS. *Venæ axillares*. The axillary veins receive the blood from the veins of the arm, and evacuate it into the subclavian vein.

AXIS, (*Axis*; from *ago*, to act). See *Dentatus*.

AXUNGĪA, (*Axungia*, *a*, f. from *axis*, an axle-tree, and *unguo*, to anoint). Hog's lard.

AZORIAN FENNEL. See *Finochio*.

AZOT, (*Azotum*, *i*, n. from *a*, priv. and *ζωω*, to live; because it is unfit for respiration). Azot. Phlogisticated air. Mephitic air. Nitrogen. Alcaligen. Mofette. A taste-

less and inodorous element, which exists in great quantities in the atmosphere, and is obtained largely from the fibrous parts of animals, and from nitre. If the latter be subjected to certain chemical processes, it is decomposed into two different bodies: of these, the one is white, yellow, or red, and known by the name of nitric, or nitrous acid. Renewed decomposition resolves this acid into oxygen, and the substance we term azot. Thus obtained, the azot is a simple elementary substance, not distinctly perceptible to the human senses, but the reality of the existence of which is known by its compositions, &c. One of its most remarkable combinations is with light and heat, when it forms what chemists call gaz azot, azotic gaz, or nitrogen gaz, phlogisticated air, or atmospheric me-

phites. Of this compound there exists always in the atmosphere a proportion equal to no less than seventy-two parts out of a hundred. It is lighter than atmospheric air, instantly extinguishes burning tapers, and acts with great energy and rapidity in destroying the life of animals.

AZOT, GAZEUS OXYD OF. See *Gazeous oxyd of azot*.

AZYGOS, (Αζυγος; from α, priv. and ζυγος, a yoke; because it has no fellow). Several muscles, veins, bones, &c. are so called.

AZYGOS VEIN. *Vena azygos. Vena sine pari*. This vein is situated in the right cavity of the thorax, upon the dorsal vertebræ. It receives the blood from the vertebral, intercostal, bronchial, pericardiac, and diaphragmatic veins, and evacuates it into the vena cava superior.

B.

B A

BACCÆ BERMUDENSES.— See *Saponaria nucula*.

BACCÆ NORLANDICÆ. The fruit of the *Rubus arcticus*; *foliis alternatis, caule inermi unifloro* of Linnæus. They are recommended by Linnæus as possessing antiseptic, refrigerant, and antiscorbutic qualities.

BACHER'S PILLS. A celebrated medicine in France for the cure of dropsies. Their principal ingredient is the extract of the *melampodium*, or black hellebore.

BADIAN SEMEN. See *Anisum stellatum*.

BALĀNUS MYREPSICA. See *Ben nux*.

BAGNIGGE WELLS. The water of this place is classed by Dr. Saunders amongst the *simple saline waters* which contain a considerable quantity of Epsom salt, and are taken in the dose of a pint as an easy purgative.

BALAUSTINE FLOWER. See *Granatum*.

B A

BALAUSTIUM, (*Balaustium, i, n.*). *Flores balaustiorum*. Balaustine flower. A large rose-like flower, of a deep red colour; the produce of the plant from which we obtain the *granatum*. See *Granatum*.

BALBUTIES, (*Balbuties, ei, f. balbus, stammering*). A defect of speech, and properly that sort of stammering where the patient sometimes hesitates, and immediately after speaks precipitately. See *Psellismus*.

BALDMONEY. See *Meum athamanticum*.

BALM. See *Melissa*.

BALM OF GILEAD. See *Moldavica*.

BALM OF GILEAD FIR. See *Balsamea*.

BALM OF MECCA. See *Balsamum gileadense*.

BALM, TURKEY. See *Moldavica*.

BALNEUM, (*Balneum, i, n.*). A bath. See *Bath*.

BALNEUM MARIÆ. See *Bath, chemical*.

BALNĒUM MARIS. The same as *balneum marie*. See *Bath chemical*.

BALNĒUM SICCUM. See *Bath chemical*.

BALLOON. *Balon. Ballon. Balloon.* A large glass receiver in the form of a hollow globe. For certain chemical operations *ballons* are made with two necks placed opposite to each other; one to receive the neck of a retort, and the other to enter the neck of a second *balloon*: this apparatus is called *enfiladed balloons*. Their use is to increase the whole space of the receiver, because any number of these may be adjusted to each other. The only one of these vessels which is generally used, is a small oblong *balloon* with two necks, which is to be luted to the retort, and to the receiver or great *balloon*; it serves to remove this receiver from the body of the furnace, and to hinder it from being too much heated.

BALSAM. A balsam is a fluid, odorous, combustible substance, that communicates a sweet taste to water, and contains a concrete acid, which may be obtained by sublimation or decoction. Chemists are not agreed as to the difference between balsam and resin.

BALSAM, ARTIFICIAL. Compound medicines are thus termed which are made of a balsamic consistence and fragrance. They are generally composed of expressed or ætherial oils, resins, and other solid bodies, which give them the consistence of butter. The basis, or body of them, is expressed oil of nutmeg, and frequently wax, butter, &c. They are usually tinged with cinnabar and saffron.

BALSAM, CANARY. See *Moldavica*.

BALSAM OF CANADA. See *Balsamum canadense*.

BALSAM OF COPAIVÆ. See *Balsamum Copaivæ*.

BALSAM, NATURAL. A Resin, which has not yet assumed the concrete form, but still continues in a

fluid state, is so called, as common turpentine, balsamum copaiva, peruvianum, toluatanum, &c.

BALSAM, PERUVIAN. See *Balsamum peruvianum*.

BALSUM OF TOLU. See *Balsamum toluatanum*.

BALSAM, TURKEY. See *Moldavica*.

BALSAMEA. The balm of Gilead fir. The tree formerly so called in the pharmacopœias, is the *Pinus balsamea* of Linnæus: it affords the Canada balsam. See *Balsamum canadense*.

BALSAMICS. A term generally applied to substances of a smooth and oily consistence, which possess emollient, sweet, and generally aromatic qualities.

BALSAMITA MAS. *Tanacetum hortense. Costus hortorum.* Costmary, or alecost. The plant which bears this name in the pharmacopœias, is the *Tanacetum balsamita; foliis ovatis, integris ferratis* of Linnæus. A fragrant smelling herb, somewhat like that of mint; formerly esteemed as a corroborant, carminative, and emmenagogue.

BALSAMITA FEMINA. See *Ageratum*.

BALSĀMUM AMERICĀNUM. See *Balsamum peruvianum*.

BALSĀMUM BRASILIENSE. See *Balsamum copaibæ*.

BALSĀMUM CANĀDENSE. Canada balsam. One of the purest turpentines, procured from the *Pinus balsamea* of Linnæus, and imported from Canada. For its properties see *Turpentines*.

BALSĀMUM COPAIVÆ. *Balsamum brasiliense. Balsamum copaibæ. Balsamum de copaibu.* A yellow resinous juice, of a moderately agreeable smell, and a bitterish biting taste, that remains a long time in the mouth. It is obtained from the *Copaifera officinalis* of Linnæus, Class. *Decandria*, Order. *Monogynia*, by making deep

incisions near the the base of its trunk. The juice flows so freely as to afford twelve pounds in about three hours. Balsam of Copaiva, like most other balsams, is nearly allied to the turpentine, with which it is always mixed in the shops. It was formerly thought to be a very efficacious remedy. It determines very powerfully to the kidneys, and impregnates the urine with its qualities. It is given principally in gonorrhœas, phthisis pulmonalis, fluor albus, and in nephritic complaints.

BALSĀMUM GILĒADENSE. *Balsamum de Mecca. Balsamum meccanum. Balsamum verum.* This resinous juice, obtained by making incisions into the bark of the *Amyris gileadensis* of Linnæus (*Amyris foliis ternatis integerrimis, pedunculis unifloris lateralibus*. Class. *Octandria*. Order. *Monogynia*), is of a light yellow colour, of a bitter, acrid, adstringent taste, and of a very strong smell, resembling that of lemons. The chief mark of its goodness is said to be founded on this, that when dropped on water, it spreads itself all over the surface, forming a thin pellicle, tough enough to be taken up upon the point of a pin, and, at the same time, impregnating the water with its smell and flavour. Its virtues are similar to those of the Canada and Copaiva balsams. The fruit of this tree is termed *carpobalsamum* in the pharmacopœias; and the wood or branches, *xylobalsamum*.

BALSĀMUM DE MECCA. See *Balsamum gileadense*.

BALSĀMUM INDĪCUM. See *Balsamum peruvianum*.

BALSĀMUM MECCĀNUM. See *Balsamum gileadense*.

BALSĀMUM MEXĪCĀNUM. See *Balsamum peruvianum*.

BALSĀMUM PERUVĪĀNUM. *Balsamum indicum. Balsamum mexicanum. Balsamum americanum.* Balsam of Peru. The tree which produces this

resinous fluid is described by the younger Linnæus by the name of *Myroxylon peruiferum*. Class. *Decandria*. Order. *Monogynia*. Two species of this balsam are imported into this country—the *common* or *black*, and the *white*. The first, which is chiefly used, is about the consistence of a syrup, of a dark, opaque, reddish brown colour, inclining to black, and of an agreeable aromatic smell, and a very hot pungent taste. The *white* balsam, called also *white storax*, is brought over in gourd-shells, and is of a pale yellow colour, thick and tenacious, becoming, by age, solid and brittle. They are esteemed as warm nervine medicines, and are sometimes used by surgeons in certain conditions of wounds and ulcers.

BALSĀMUM PERUVĪĀNUM ALBUM. See *Balsamum peruvianum*.

BALSĀMUM PERUVĪĀNUM NIGRUM. See *Balsamum peruvianum*.

BALSĀMUM RACKASIRA. This balsam, which is inodorous when cold, but of a smell approaching to that of Tolu balsam when heated, is brought from India in gourd shells. It is slightly bitter to the taste, and adheres to the teeth on chewing. It is supposed by some to be factitious. It is never prescribed in this country.

BALSĀMUM TOLUTĀNUM. *Balsam of Tolu.* This juice, which is considered as a true balsam by modern chemists, is of a reddish, yellow, transparent colour; in consistence thick and tenacious; by age it becomes so hard and brittle, that it may be rubbed into a powder between the finger and thumb. Its smell is extremely fragrant, somewhat resembling that of citrons: its taste is warm and sweetish; on being chewed it adheres to the teeth. Thrown into the fire it immediately liquefies, takes flame, and disperses an agreeable odour. The tree which affords this balsam, from incisions of its bark, is

the *Toluifera balsamum* of Linnæus, Class. *Decandria*. Order. *Monogynia*, which grows in South America, between Carthagenæ and Honduras. Tolu balsam possesses corroborant, stomachic, and nervine qualities. It has been chiefly used as a pectoral, and is directed in the pharmacopœias in the *syrupus toluitanus*, *tinctura tolu-tana*, and *syrupus balsamicus*.

BALSAMUM VERUM. See *Balsamum gileadense*.

BAMBOO CANE. The young shoots of this plant, *Arundo bambos* of Linnæus, are prepared by the natives of both Indies, with vinegar, garlic, &c. into a very excellent pickle, which promotes appetite and assists digestion.

BAMIA MOSCHATA. See *Abelmoschus*.

BANANA. The fruit of this tree, *Musa sapientum* of Linnæus, which is much cultivated in the American islands, has an agreeable delicious taste, and is eaten as dessert either before or after dinner. They are very wholesome.

BANCIA. See *Elaphoboscum*.

BANGUE. An Italian plant, whose stalks resemble that of hemp. Its seeds and leaves are heating, and strangely affect the imagination. Aphrodisiac qualities are also attributed to them.

BANILIA. See *Vanilla*.

BARBARÆA. The leaves of this plant, *Erysimum barbaræa*; *foliis lyratis, extimo subrotundo* of Linnæus, may be ranked amongst the antiscorbutics: they are seldom used.

BARBA CAPRIÆ. See *Ulmariæ*.

BARBA HIRCI. See *Tragopogon*.

BARBA JOVIS. See *Sedum majus*.

BARBADOES CHERRY. The fruit of the *Malpighia glabea* of Linnæus. They are of a red colour, of the size of small cherries, and are gathered and eaten by the inhabitants of the West India islands, particularly Barbadoes. In moderate quantity they

are considered as wholesome, though very inferior to cherries.

BARBADOES NUT. See *Ricinus major*.

BARBADOES TAR. See *Petroleum barbadense*.

BARBERRY. See *Berberis*.

BARDANA, (*Bardana*, æ, f. from *bardus*, foolish; because silly people are wont to make garments of its burrs, that they might stick to whatever they come near). *Happa major*. *Personata*. Burdock. *Arctium lappa* of Linnæus. *Arctium foliis cordatis inermibus petiolatis*. Class. *Syngenesia*. Order. *Polygamia æqualis*. A plant which grows about waste grounds, and in hedges. The pharmacopœia directs the root for medicinal use; it has no smell, but tastes sweetish, and mixed, as it were, with a slight bitterness and roughness. It does not appear to possess those qualities which have been attributed to it; yet, as a diuretic and pectoral, in form of decoction, it has some claim to our attention.

BAREGE WATER. This is classed among the hot sulphureous waters; and is recommended against several cutaneous diseases.

BARK. A term very frequently employed to signify peruvian bark. See *Cinchona*.

BARK, CARRIBÆAN. See *Cinchona jamaicensis*.

BARK, JAMAICA. See *Cinchona jamaicensis*.

BARK, PERUVIAN. See *Cinchona*.

BARK, RED. See *Cinchona rubra*.

BARK, YELLOW. See *Cinchona flava*.

BARLEY. See *Hordeum*.

BARLEY, CAUSTIC. See *Cavendishia*.

BARLEY, PEARL. See *Hordeum perlatum*.

BARILLA, (*Barilla*, æ, f.). *Carbonas sodæ alcalescens impurus*. *Sal alkalinus fixus fossilis*. *Natron*. *Soda*. *Anatron*. *Nitrum antiquorum*. *Aphroni-*

trum. Baurach. Natron. Mineral alkali. Mineral fixed alkaline salt. The plant from which this impure mineral alkali is principally procured, is the *Salsola kali* of Linnæus (*Salsola herbacea decumbens, foliis subulatis spinosis scabris, calycibus marginatis axillaribus*. Class. *Pentandria*. Order. *Digynia*), which is cultivated on the coast of the Mediterranean. It may be obtained in Britain from a variety of plants, but principally from the *salsola kali, salicornia europæa, zosteria maritima, triglochin maritimum, chenopodium maritimum, atriplex portulacoides*, and *littoralis, plantago maritima, tamarix gallica, eryngium maritimum, sedum telephum, dipsacus fullonum, &c.* Good barilla is firm, hard, heavy, porous, dry, and sounds on percussion: it is of a bluish colour, and imparts a flavour at first slightly resembling that of a violet. The plants, about the time the seeds become ripe, are pulled up by the roots, and exposed in a suitable dry place, where they are tied up in bundles, and burned in an oven constructed for the purpose, where the ashes are continually stirred, while hot. The saline matter falls to the bottom, and, on becoming cold, forms a hard, solid mass, which is afterwards broken into pieces of convenient size for exportation.

BARNET WATER. A saline purgative spring, much weaker than the water of Epsom.

BARTHOLINES GLANDS. See *Sublingual glands*.

BARYTES, (*Baryta, æ, f. or barytes, etis, f.* from *βαρυς, ἄ, υ, heavy*). *Cauk. Calk. Terra ponderosa. Baryt.* Ponderous earth. Heavy earth. A very heavy earth, that is seldom met with pure in nature, but mostly in composition with the sulphuric acid. It hath acquired its name from its extraordinary specific gravity, which is, according to Kirwan, somewhat more than 4000, that is, it is somewhat more than four times as heavy as an equal measure of water. Pure bary-

tes, obtained by a proper process, from its natural compounds, appears in a pulverent form, very fine and white. It does not affect the tongue with any discernible taste. By some modern chemists barytes is supposed to be a compound substance, and actually a metallic oxyd. Mr. Fourcroy suspects it to be a compound of gazazot with some other substance. In combination with acids this earth forms the following species of neutral salts used medicinally: 1. *Sulphate of barytes*, called *terra ponderosa*, and ponderous spar, which is found in great abundance in nature with metallic ores. 2. *Muriate of barytes*. *Terra ponderosa salita* of Bergman. A neutral salt formed of this earth and the muriatic acid. Taken internally in large doses, it is poisonous; but given in small doses, it is esteemed by some physicians as possessing antiscrofulous virtues. Any portion, however small, of the sulphuric acid, may be detected in mineral waters, by this salt, 3. *Carbonate of barytes*, a salt found in nature, which possesses some singular properties, and seems to bear a resemblance to common chalk. It is the *terra ponderosa aerata* of Bergman. If taken internally it is acrid and poisonous, and very frequently proves emetic.

BASALTES, (*Basaltes, Βασαλτης*. In the Ætheopic tongue this word means *iron*, which is the colour of the stone). Some regard this fusible substance as a volcanic production, others have supposed that it was formed of water. The Giant's Causeway, in the county of Antrim, in Ireland, and the rock of Pereniere, near St. Sautdoux, in Auvergne, are formed of these stones. The distinctive characters of basaltes are, a regular form, hardness sufficient to give fire with the steel; and a cinereous, gray colour, inclining to black.

BASES, ACIDIFIABLE. See *Acid*.

BASIL. See *Basilicum*.

BASILARE OS, (*Basilaris*; from

βασιλευς, a king). Several bones were so termed by the ancients, as the sphenoid and occipital bones.

BASILARY ARTERY. *Arteria basilaris*. An artery of the brain. So called because it lies upon the basilar process of the occipital bone. It is formed by the junction of the two vertebral arteries within the skull, and runs forwards to the sella turcica along the *pons varolii*, which it supplies, as well as the adjacent parts, with blood.

BASILARY PROCESS. *Processus basilaris*. Cuneiform process. See *Occipital bone*.

BASILIC VEIN, (*Basilicus*, βασιλικός, royal. Many parts and compositions have this epithet from their eminence). *Vena basilica*. The large vein that runs in the internal part of the arm, and evacuates its blood into the axillary vein. The branch which crosses, at the head of the arm, to join this vein, is called the *basilic median*. They may either of them be opened in the operation of blood-letting.

BASILICUM. *Ocimum*. Basil. The plant which bears this name in the pharmacopœias, is the *Ocimum basilicum*; *foliis ovatis, glabris; calycibus ciliatis* of Linnæus. It is supposed to possess nervine qualities, but is seldom employed but as a condiment to season high dishes, to which it imparts a grateful odour and taste.

BASIO-CERATO-CHONDRO-GLOSSUS. See *Hyo-glossus*.

BASIO-GLOSSUM. See *Hyo-glossus*.

BASIO-PHARYNGEUS. See *Constrictor pharyngis medius*.

BASIS, (*Basis*, is, f. βάσις; from βασι, to go: the support of any thing upon it stands or goes). This word is very frequently applied anatomically to the body of any part, or to that part from which the other parts appear, as it were, to proceed, or by which they are supported.

BASTARD PLEURISY. Rheumatism of the muscles of the side.

BATH, CHEMICAL. When the vessels in which bodies are exposed to the action of heat, are not placed in immediate contact with the fire, but receive the required degree of heat by another intermediate body, such apparatus is termed *balneum*, or bath. They have been variously named, as dry, vapour, &c. Modern chemists distinguish three kinds: 1. *Balneum arenae*, or the sand bath. This consists merely of an open iron, or baked clay sand pot, whose bottom is mostly convex and exposed to the furnace. Finely sifted sea sand is put into this, and the vessel containing the substance to be heated, &c. in the sand bath, immersed in the middle. 2. *Balneum mariae*, or the water bath. This is very simple, and requires no particular apparatus. The object is to place the vessel containing the substance to be heated in another containing water; which last must be of such a nature as to be fitted for the application of fire, as a common still or kettle. 3. *The vapour bath*. When any substance is heated by the steam or vapour of boiling water, chemists say it is done by means of a vapour bath.

BATH WATER. Chemical analysis shows that it contains a good deal of calcareous salts, which render it hard and unfit for domestic purposes; that it holds in solution but little, if any neutral alkaline salts, and therefore is scarcely saline; that it is in a very slight degree impregnated with carbonic acid; in a still slighter with iron, and, as it should appear, only when hot from the spring; and that it holds suspended a small portion of siliceous earth. The diseases for which these celebrated waters are resorted to are very numerous; in most of them the bath is used along with the waters as an internal medicine. The general indications for the use of this medicinal water are in cases where a gentle stimulus is required. The cases

to which it is more particularly suited are mostly of the chronic kind. This water is recommended in chlorosis, in complicated diseases brought on by a long residence in hot climates, affecting the secretion of the bile, the functions of the stomach and alimentary canal, in dyspepsia from a long course of high and intemperate living; in jaundice, gout, rheumatism unattended with inflammation, and several other disorders which give rise to many varieties of paralysis.

BATRACHIUM. See *Geranium batrachoides*.

BAULDMONEY. See *Meum athamanticum*.

BAURACH. See *Barilla*.

BAY-CHERRY. See *Lauro-cerasus*.

BAY-LEAVES. See *Laurus*.

BAY-LEAVED PASSION FLOWER. The plant so called, is the *Passiflora laurifolia* of Linnæus, a native of Surinam, where the fruit grows to the size of a small lemon, which it greatly resembles. Its flavour is delicately acid, and much esteemed to quench thirst, strengthen the stomach; and is a salutary fruit in gastric affections, fevers, &c.

BDELLIUM, (*Bdellium*, i. n. Heb). A gummy, resinous juice, the produce of an oriental tree. All we know of it, is that it is imported from Arabia and the East Indies, in pieces of various sizes; externally of a dark reddish brown colour, not unlike myrrh; internally clear, and somewhat resembling glue. It is never met with in the shops of this country; but is said to possess diuretic and deobstruent qualities.

BEAN. The common bean is the seed of the *Vicia faba* of Linnæus, a native of Egypt. There are many varieties. Beans are very wholesome and nutritious to those whose stomachs are strong and accustomed to the coarser modes of living. With delicate stomachs they produce flatulency, dys-

pepsia, cardialgia, &c. especially when old.

BEAN, FRENCH. See *Bean*, kidney.

BEAN, KIDNEY. The seed and pericard of the *Phaseolus vulgaris* of Linnæus, which when young and well boiled are easy of digestion and delicately flavoured. They are less liable to produce flatulency than peas.

BEAN, MALACA. See *Anacardium orientale*.

BEAN, ST. IGNATIUS'S. See *Faba indica*.

BEARS-BREECH. See *Acanthus*.

BEARSFOOT. See *Helleboraster*.

BEARS WHORTLEBERRY. See *Uva ursi*.

BECCABUNGA, (*Becabunga*, *a*, *f*, from *back bungen*, German; because it grows in rivers). Brooklime speedwell. *Veronica becabunga* of Linnæus. *Veronica racemis lateralibus, foliis ovatis planis, caule repente*. Class. *Dianthia*. Order. *Monogynia*. This plant is very common in ditches and shallow streams. Its leaves are somewhat bitter, and are said to possess antiscorbutic qualities. The juice is directed by the London Pharmacopœia in the *succus cochleariæ compositus*.

BEDEGUAR. *Spongia rose*. The rough excrescence found on the branches of the *Rosa canina* of Linnæus, which are produced by a species of *ischneumon*, irritating the plant, and forming a nest in the excrescence.

BEDSTRAW, LADIES. See *Aperine*.

BEE. *Apis*. This insect was formerly exhibited, after being dried and powdered, internally as a diuretic. It is to the industry of bees we are indebted for those valuable articles, honey and wax. See *Honey* and *Wax*.

BEECH-TREE. See *Fagus*.

BEET, RED. See *Beta rubra*.

BEET, WHITE. A variety of the red beet. The juice and powder of

the root are good to excite sneezing, and will bring away a considerable quantity of mucus.

BEHEN ALBUM. The root which bears this name in the pharmacopœias, is obtained from the *Centaurea behen*; *calycibus scariosis*; *foliis radicalibus lyratis, lobis oppositis*; *caulinis amplexicaulibus* of Linnæus. An aromatic odor, a glutinous and gently styptic taste, and a white colour are its properties. It is never used in this country.

BEHEN RUBRUM. The officinal root so called is of a deep red colour; and obtained from the *Statice limonium*; *scapo paniculato, tereti*; *foliis lævibus, enerviis, subtus mucronatis* of Linnæus. It possesses adstringent and strengthening properties.

BELA-AYE CORTEX. The bark of a tree growing in Madagascar, called *bela-aye*. It is thin, of a yellowish colour externally, reddish within, and to the taste slightly bitter and adstringent. It is said to be very efficacious in the cure of diarrhœas.

BELLADONNA, (*Belladonna*, æ, f. from *bella donna*, handsome lady. Italian. It is so called, because the ladies of Italy use it to take away the too florid colour of their faces). *Solanum melanocerasus*. *Solanum lethale*. Deadly nightshade, or dwale. *Atropa belladonna, caule herbaceo, foliis ovatis integris* of Linnæus. Class. *Pentandria*. Order. *Monogynia*. This plant has been long known as a strong poison of the narcotic kind, and the berries have furnished many instances of their fatal effects, particularly upon children that have been tempted to eat them. The leaves were first used externally, to discuss scirrhus and cancerous tumours, and from the good effects attending their use, physicians were induced to employ them internally for the same disorders; and there are a considerable number of well-authenticated facts, which prove them a very serviceable and important re-

medy. The dose, at first, should be small, and gradually and cautiously increased. Five grains are considered a powerful dose, and apt to produce dimness of sight, vertigo, &c.

BELLIS MAJOR. *Bupthalmum majus*. *Leucanthemum vulgare*. *Consolida media*. *Oculus bovis*. Ox-eye daisy. The pharmacopœial name for the plant described by Linnæus *Chrysanthemum leucanthemum*; *foliis amplexicaulibus, oblongis, superne serratis, inferne dentatis*. The flowers and herb were formerly esteemed in asthmatic and phthical diseases, but have now deservedly fallen into disuse.

BELLIS MINOR. The *Bellis perennis*; *scapo nudo* of Linnæus; called common daisy: was formerly directed in pharmacopœias by this name. Although the leaves and flowers are rather acrid, and are said to cure several species of wounds, they are never employed by modern surgeons.

BELLIS PERENNIS. The systematic name for the *bellis minor* of the pharmacopœias.

BEN NUX. Βαλανος μυρσικη. Βαλανος αιγυπια. *Glans unguentaria*. *Been nux*. *Balanus migresica*. Ben nut. A whitish nut, about the size of a small filberd, of a roundish triangular shape, including a kernel of the same figure covered with a white skin; the fruit of the *Guilandina moringa*; *inermis, foliis subbinnatis, foliolis inferioribus ternatis* of Linnæus. They were formerly employed to remove obstructions of the *primæ viæ*. The oil afforded by expressing these nuts, is used by the Italians in several ointments: it is said to be particularly serviceable in allaying the itching of the *prurigo senilis*.

BENGALÆ RADIX. See *Coffum-niar*.

BENGAL QUINCE. This fruit, the produce of the *Erateva marmelos* of Linnæus, which grows spontaneously in several parts of India, is about the size of an orange, and covered with

a hard bony shell, containing a yellow viscous pulp, of a most agreeable flavour; this is scooped out, and being mixed with sugar and orange, is brought to the tables of the grandees in India, who eat it as a great delicacy. It is also esteemed as a sovereign remedy against dysentery.

BENIT-HERB. See *Caryophyllata*.

BENJAMIN. See *Benzoinum*.

BENJAMIN FLOWERS. See *Benzoic acid*.

BEN NUT. See *Ben nux*.

BENZOATS, (*Benzoas, tis, m.*). Salts, formed by the union of the benzoic acid with certain bases; as *benzoat of allumin, &c.*

BENZOIC ACID. *Acidum benzoicum*. *Flores benzoës* of the pharmacopœias. Benjamin flowers. Besides the process given in the pharmacopœias to obtain it from gum benzoe, it may also be obtained from many other resins and balsams; as the balsams of Peru, tolu, storax, &c.

BENZOINUM, (*Benzoinum, i. n. Arab.*). *Benzoe*. *Benjoinum*. *Assa dulcis*. Gum benjamin. This substance is classed, by modern chemists, among the balsams. There are two kinds of benzoin: *benzoe amygdaloides*, which is formed of white tears, resembling almonds, united together by a brown matter; and *common benzoin*, which is brown and without tears. The tree which affords this balsam is the *Styrax benzoin*, according to the London Philosophical Transactions (*Styrax foliis oblongis acuminatis, subtus tomentosis, racemis compositis longitudine foliorum*. *Dryander*. Class. *Decandria*. Order. *Monogynia*), from which it is obtained by incisions. The benzoin of the shops is usually in very large brittle masses. When chewed, it imparts very little taste, except that it impresses on the palate a slight sweetness; its smell, especially when rubbed or heated, is extremely fragrant and agreeable. It has rarely been

used medicinally in a simple state, but its preparations are much esteemed against inveterate coughs and phthical complaints. The acid of benzoin is employed in the *tinctura opii camphorata*, and a tincture is directed to be made of the balsam.

BERBERIS, (*Berberis, is, f.* An Arabic name, used by Averrhoes and the officinal writers). *Oxycantha Galeni*. *Spina acida*. *Crespinus*. Common barberry. This tree, *Berberis vulgaris*; *pedunculis racemosis*; *spinis triplicibus* of Linnæus, is a native of England. The fruit or berries, which are gratefully acid and moderately astringent, are said to be of great use in biliary fluxes, and in all cases where heat, acrimony, and putridity of the humours prevail. The filaments of this shrub possess a remarkable degree of irritability; for on being touched near the base with the point of a pin, a sudden contraction is produced, which may be repeated several times.

BERBERIS VULGARIS. The systematic name for the *berberis* of the pharmacopœias. See *Berberis*.

BERBERRY. See *Berberis*.

BERGAMOTE. *Essentia de cedra*. A species of citron, produced at first casually by an Italian's grafting a citron on a stock of a bergamot pear-tree; whence the fruit produced by this union, participated both of the citron-tree and the pear-tree. The essence prepared from this fruit is called essence of bergamote.

BERMUDAS BERRY. See *Saponaria nucula*.

BETA RUBRA. Red beet. The species of beet directed to be used in the pharmacopœias by this name, is the *Beta vulgaris*; *floribus congestis* of Linnæus. The root of this plant is frequently eaten by the French; it may be considered as nutritious and antiscorbutic, and forms a very elegant pickle with vinegar. The root and leaves, although formerly em-

ployed medicinally as laxatives and emollients, are now forgotten.

BETA VULGARIS. The systematic name for the red beet of the pharmacopœias. See *Beta rubra*.

BETONICA, (*Betonica*, *æ*, *f*. Corrupted from *Vettonica*, which is derived from the *Veetones*, an ancient people of Spain). *Betonica purpurea*. *Vetonica cordi*. Wood betony. This plant, *Betonica officinalis*; *scica interrupta*, *corollarum labii lacinia intermedia emarginata* of Linnæus, is common in our woods and heaths. The leaves and tops have an agreeable, but weak smell; and to the taste they discover a slight warmth, accompanied with some degree of adstringency and bitterness. Like many other plants, formerly in high medical estimation, betony is now almost entirely neglected. Antonius Musa, physician to the Emperor Augustus, filled a whole volume with enumerating its virtues, stating it as a remedy for no less than forty-seven disorders; and hence in Italy the proverbial compliment, *You have more virtues than betony*.

BETONICA AQUATICA. *Scrophularia aquatica*. Greater water figwort. Water betony. The leaves of this plant, *Scrophularia aquatica*; *foliis cordatis obtusis, petiolatis, decurrentibus*; *caule membranaceo angulato*; *racemis terminalibus* of Linnæus, are celebrated as correctors of the ill flavour of fenna. They were, also, formerly in high estimation against piles, tumours of a scrophulous nature, inflammations, &c.

BETONICA PAULI. See *Veronica*.

BETONICA VULGARIS. The systematic name of the *betonica* of the pharmacopœias. See *Betonica*.

BETONY, PAULS. See *Veronica*.

BETONY WATER. See *Betonica aquatica*.

BETŪLA, (*Betula*, *æ*, *f*.). Birch. The juice, leaves, and bark of this tree, *Betula alba*; *foliis ovatis, acu-*

minatis, serratis of Linnæus, have been employed medicinally. If the tree be bored early in the spring, there issues by degrees a large quantity of limpid, watery, sweetish juice: it is said that one tree will afford from one to two gallons a-day. This juice is esteemed as an antiscorbutic, deobstruent, and diuretic. The leaves and bark are used externally as resolvents, detergents, and antiseptics.

BETŪLA ALBA. The systematic name for the *betula* of the pharmacopœias. See *Betula*.

BETŪLA ALNUS. The systematic name for the *alnus* of the pharmacopœias. See *Alnus*.

BEZETTA CÆRULÆA, (*Bezetta*, *æ*, *f*.). *Succus heliotropii*. *Lacmus seu tornea*. *Lacca cærulea*. *Litmus*. The juice of the *Croton tinctorium*; *foliis rhombeis repandis, capsulis pendulis, caule herbaceo* of Linnæus. It is much used by chemists as a test. See *Tests*.

BEZOAR, (*Bezoar*; from *pa-zah* Persian, a destroyer of poison). *Bezoard*. A preternatural or morbid concretion formed in the bodies of land animals. Several of these kinds of substances were formerly celebrated for their medicinal virtues, and distinguished by the names of the countries from whence they came, or the animal in which they were found. They were considered as high alexipharmics, in so much so, that other medicines, possessed, or supposed to be possessed of alexipharmic powers, were called *bezoardics*. These virtues, however, are in the present day justly denied them, as they produce no other effects than those common to the saline particles which they contain, and which may be given to greater advantage from other sources.

BEZOAR OCCIDENTALE. Occidental bezoar. This concretion is, said to be found in the stomach of an animal of the stag kind, a native of

Peru, &c. It is of a larger size than the oriental bezoar, and sometimes as large as a hen's egg: its surface is rough, and the colour green, greyish, or brown. For its virtues see *Bezoar*.

BEZOAR ORIENTĀLE. *Lapis bezoar orientalis*. Oriental bezoar stone. This concretion is said to be found in the pylorus, or fourth stomach of an animal of the goat kind, which inhabits the mountains of Persia. It is generally about the size of a kidney bean, of a roundish or oblong figure, smooth, and of a shining olive or dark greenish colour. For its virtues see *Bezoar*.

BEZOAR MICROCOSMICUM. See *Calculus humanus*.

BEZOAR PORCINUM. *Lapis porcinus*. *Lapis malacensis*. *Bezoar hystricis*. *Pedro del porco*. Porcupine bezoar. This concretion, of a roundish figure, pale purplish colour, soft consistence, and slippery to the touch, is said to be found in the gall bladder of an Indian porcupine, in the province of Malacca. For its virtues see *Bezoar*.

BEZOAR SIMIÆ. *Lapis simiæ*. Bezoar of the monkey. This species is about the size of a hazel nut, and of a very dark green colour. It is found in the stomach of certain monkeys common in the Brazils. For its virtues see *Bezoar*.

BIBITORIUS, (*Bibitorius*, *sc. musculus*; from *bibo*, to drink; because by drawing the eye inwards towards the nose, it causes those who drink to look into the cup). See *Rectus internus oculi*.

BICEPS, (*Biceps*, *ipitis*; from *bis*, twice, and *caput*, a head). Many muscles have this denomination from their having two distinct heads or origins.

BICEPS. See *Biceps flexor cruris*.

BICEPS BRACHIÏ. See *Biceps flexor cubiti*.

BICEPS CRURIS. See *Biceps flexor cruris*.

BICEPS EXTERNUS. See *Triiceps extensor cubiti*.

BICEPS FLEXOR CRURIS. *Biceps cruris* of Albinus. *Biceps* of Winslow and Douglas. A muscle of the leg, situated on the hind part of the thigh. It arises by two distinct heads; the first, called *Longus*, arises, in common with the semitendinosus, from the upper and posterior part of the tuberosity of the os ischium. The second, called *Brevis*, arises from the linea aspera, a little below the termination of the glutæus maximus, by a fleshy acute beginning, which soon grows broader as it descends to join with the first head, a little above the external condyle of the os femoris. It is inserted by a strong tendon into the upper part of the head of the fibula. Its use is to bend the leg. This muscle forms what is called the outer ham-string; and, between it and the inner, the nervus popliteus, arteria, and vena poplitea, are situated.

BICEPS FLEXOR CUBITI. *Biceps brachii* of Albinus. *Coraco-radialis*, seu *biceps* of Winslow. *Biceps internus* of Douglas. A muscle of the fore-arm, situated on the fore part of the os humeri. It arises by two heads. The first and outermost, called *Longus*, begins tendinous from the upper edge of the glenoid cavity of the scapula, passes over the head of the os humeri within the joint, and, in its descent without the joint, is enclosed in a groove near the head of the os humeri, by a membranous ligament that proceeds from the capsular ligament and adjacent tendons. The second or innermost head, called *Brevis*, arises, tendinous and fleshy, from the coracoid process of the scapula, in common with the coracobrachialis muscle. A little below the middle of the fore-part of the os humeri these heads unite. It is inserted by a strong roundish tendon into the tubercle on the upper end of the radius internally.

Its use is to turn the hand supine, and to bend the fore-arm. At the bending of the elbow, where it begins to grow tendinous, it sends off an aponeurosis, which covers all the muscles on the inside of the fore-arm, and joins with another tendinous membrane, which is sent off from the triceps extensor cubiti, and covers all the muscles on the outside of the fore-arm, and a number of the fibres, from opposite sides, decussate each other. It serves to strengthen the muscles, by keeping them from swelling too much outwardly, when in action, and a number of their fleshy fibres take their origin from it.

BICEPS INTERNUS. See *Biceps flexor cubiti*.

BICORN, (*Bicornis*; from *bis*, twice, and *cornu*, an horn). An epithet sometimes applied to the os hyoides, which has two processes or horns; and likewise, in former times, to muscles that had two terminations.

BICUSPIS, (*Bicuspis, idis*; from *bis*, twice, and *cuspis*, a spear). The name of those teeth which have double points or fangs. See *Teeth*.

BIFURCATED, (*Bifurcus*; from *bis*, twice, and *furca*, a fork). A vessel, or nerve, is said to bifurcate when it divides into two branches; thus the bifurcation of the aorta, &c.

BIGASTER, (*Bigaster*; from *bis*, twice, and *gaster*, a belly). A name given to muscles which have two bellies.

BILE. *Bilis.* A bitter fluid, secreted in the glandular substance of the liver; in part flowing into the intestines, and in part regurgitating into the gall bladder. The secretory organ of this fluid is the vascular *glomeruli*, called the penicilli of the liver, which terminate in very minute canals, called biliary ducts.—(See *Liver*). The biliary ducts exonerate their bile into the *ductus hepaticus*, which conveys it into the *ductus communis choledochus*, from whence it is

in part carried into the duodenum. The other part of the bile regurgitates through the cystic duct (see *Gall bladder*), into the gall bladder; for hepatic bile, except during digestion, cannot flow into the duodenum, which contracts when empty; hence it necessarily regurgitates into the gall bladder. The branches of the *vena porta* contribute most to the secretion of bile; its peculiar blood, returning from the abdominal viscera, is supposed to be, in some respects, different from other venal blood, and to answer exactly to the nature of bile. It is not yet ascertained clearly whether the florid blood in the hepatic artery, merely nourishes the liver, or whether, at the same time, it contributes a certain principle, necessary for the formation of bile. It has been supposed by physiologists, that cystic bile was secreted by the arterious vessels of the gall bladder; but the fallacy of this opinion is proved by making a ligature on the cystic duct of a living animal. From what has been said, it appears that there are, as it were, two kinds of bile in the human body: 1. *Hepatic bile*, which flows from the liver into the duodenum; this is thin, of a faint yellow colour, inodorous, and very slightly bitter, otherwise the liver of animals would not be eatable. 2. *Cystic bile*, which regurgitates from the hepatic duct into the gall bladder, and there, from stagnating, becomes thicker, the aqueous part being absorbed by lymphatic vessels, and more acrid from concentration. Healthy bile is of a yellow, green colour; of a plastic consistence, like thin oil, and when very much agitated, it froths like soap and water: its smell is fatuous, somewhat like musk, especially the putrefying or evaporated bile of animals: its taste is bitter. The constituent principles of bile are: 1. *Water*, which constitutes the greatest part of bile. 2. *An albuminous principle*, precipitated

by alkohol and mineral acids. 3. *A resinous principle*, obtained by evaporating a tincture made of alkohol and bile. 4. *A colouring principle*, which adheres to the resinous part, and gives the colour to bile. 5. *Soda*, in its caustic state: hence healthy bile does not effervesce with acids, and affords a neutral salt. 6. *A phosphorated calx*. The primary use of this fluid, so important in the animal economy are; 1. *To extricate the chyle from the chyme*: thus chyle is never observed in the duodenum before the chyme has been mixed with the bile: and thus it is that oil is extricated from linen by the bile of animals. 2. By its *acridity* it excites the peristaltic motion of the intestines; hence the bowels are so inactive in people with jaundice. 3. It imparts a *yellow colour* to the excrements; thus the white colour of the fœces in jaundice, in which disease the flow of bile into the duodenum is entirely prevented. 4. It prevents the *abundance of mucus and acridity* in the primæ viæ; hence acid, pituitous, and verminous saburra are so frequent from deficient or inert bile.

BILIARY DUCT. *Ductus biliosus*. The very vascular *glomeruli*, which compose almost the whole substance of the liver, terminate in very small canals, called *biliary ducts*, which at length form one trunk, the *ductus hepaticus*. Their use is to convey the bile, secreted by the liver, into the hepatic duct.

BILIOUS. A term very generally made use of, to express diseases which arise from too copious a secretion of bile.

BILIS, (*Bilis*, *is*, f. from *bis*, twice, and *lis*, contention; as being supposed to be the seat of anger and dispute). See *Bile*.

BIND WEED. See *Convolvulus major albus*.

BINGALLE. See *Casumunar*.

BIRCH TREE. See *Betula*.

BIRDSTONGUE. A name given to the seeds of the *Fraxinus excelsior* of Linnæus.

BIRTHWORT. See *Aristolochia*.

BIRTHWORT, CLIMING. See *Aristolochia tenuis*.

BISHOP'S WEED. See *Ammi*.

BISMUTH. *Bismuthum*. *Marcasita*. Tin glass. A semimetal of a yellowish white silver colour; very ponderous, and disposed in very large plates. It is found at Scala, in Neritia, in Dalecarlia, and at Schneeberg. Neither the metal nor any of its combinations are applied to medicinal purposes.

BISMUTHUM, (*Bismuthum*, *i*, *n*. from *bismut*. German). See *Bismuth*.

BISTORT. See *Bistorta*.

BISTORTA, (*Bistorta*, *a*, *f*. from *bis*, twice, and *torqueo*, to bend; so called from the contortions of its roots). *Bistort*. *Polygonum bistorta* of Linnæus. *Polygonum caule simplicissimo monastachio, foliis ovatis in petiolum decurrentibus*. Class. *Octandria*. Order. *Trigynia*. A native of Britain. Every part of the plant manifests a degree of stipticity to the taste, and the root is esteemed to be one of the most powerful of the vegetable adstringents.

BITTER APPLE. See *Colocynthis*.

BITTER CUCUMBER. See *Colocynthis*.

BITTER GOURD. See *Colocynthis*.

BITTER SWEET. See *Dulcamara*.

BITUMEN, (*Bitumen*, *inis*, *n*. *πιττωμα*; from *πιτυς*, a pine; because it flows from the pine-tree; or, *quod vitumeat e terra*, from its bursting forth from the earth). Bitumens are combustible, solid, soft, or fluid substances, whose smell is strong, acrid, or aromatic, composed of hydrogen and carbon with a contamination of earth and other substances in small proportions. They are found either in the internal part of the earth, or exuding through the clefts of the rocks, or floating on the surface of waters.

Like oils they burn with a rapid flame. Natural historians have divided them into several genera; but modern chemists arrange them according to their chemical properties, and are only acquainted with six species, which are very distinct from each other: these are, naphtha, amber, asphaltos, jet, pit-coal, and petroleum.

BITŪMEN BARBADENSE. See *Petroleum barbadense*.

BITŪMEN JUDAÏCUM. *Asphaltus*. Jews pitch. A solid light bituminous substance, of a dusky colour on the outside, and a deep shining black within; of very little taste, and scarcely any smell, unless heated, when it emits a strong pitchy one. It is said to be found plentifully in the earth in several parts of Egypt, and floating on the surface of the Dead Sea. It is now wholly expunged from the catalogue of officinals of this country; but was formerly esteemed as a discutient, sudorific, and emmenagogue.

BITŪMEN LIQUIDUM. See *Petroleum*.

BIVENTER, (*Biventer*; from *bis*, twice, and *venter*, a belly). A muscle is so termed, which has two bellies.

BIVENTER MAXILLÆ INFERIORIS. See *Digastricus*.

BIXA ORELLĀNA. The systematic name for the *terra orleana* of the pharmacopœias. See *Orleana*.

BLACKBERRY. The fruit of the common bramble, *Rubus fruticosus* of Linnæus. The berries are eaten in abundance by children, and are wholesome and gently aperient. Too large quantities, however, when the stomach is weak, produce vomiting and great distention of the belly, from flatul. See *Fruits, summer*.

BLADDER. See *Urinary bladder*, and *Gall bladder*.

LENDE. False galena. A species of zinc ore, formed of zinc in combination with sulphur.

BLENNORRHŒA, (*Blennorrhœa*, *e*, f. *βλενορραία*; from *βλενα*, mucus, and

ῥεω, to flow). *Gonorrhœa mucosa*. A gleet. An increased discharge of mucus from the urethra, arising from weakness.

BLENNORRHAGIA, (*Blennorrhagia*, *e*, f. *βλενορραγία*; from *βλενα*, mucus, and *ῥεω*, to flow). The discharge of mucus from the urethra, arising from an impure connexion. See *Gonorrhœa*.

BLEPHAROPHTHALMIA, (*Blepharophthalmia*, *e*, f. *βλεφαροφθαλμία*; from *βλεφαρον*, the eyelid, and *οφθαλμος*, the eye). An inflammation of the eyelid.

BLEPHAROPTOSIS, (*Blepharoptosis*, *is*, f. *βλεφαροπίσις*; from *βλεφαρον*, the eyelid, and *πίσις*, from *πίπτω*, to fall). A prolapse, or falling down of the upper eyelid, so as to cover the cornea.

BLESSED THISTLE. See *Cardus benedictus*.

BLITUM FŒTIDUM. See *Atriplex foetida*.

BLOOD, (*Sanguis*, *inis*, *m.*). A red homogeneous fluid, of a saltish taste, and somewhat urinous smell, and glutinous consistence, which circulates in the cavities of the heart, arteries, and veins. The quantity is estimated to be about 28 pounds in an adult: of this, four parts are contained in the veins, and a fifth in the arteries. The colour of the blood is red; in the arteries it is of a florid hue, in the veins darker; except only the pulmonary veins, in which it is of a lighter cast. Physiology demonstrates, that it acquires this florid colour in passing through the lungs, from the oxygen it absorbs. The blood is the most important fluid of our body. Some physicians and anatomists have considered it as alive, and have formed many ingenious hypotheses in support of its vitality. The temperature of this fluid is of considerable importance, and appears to depend upon the circulation and respiration. The blood of man, qua-

drupeds, and birds, is hotter than the medium they inhabit; hence they are termed animals of warm blood; whilst in fishes and reptiles, animals with cold blood, it is nearly of the temperature of the medium they inhabit. The microscope discovers that the blood contains a great number of round globules, which are seen floating about in a yellowish fluid, the serum. The blood also possesses remarkable physical properties; its taste is saltish, and the smell of its halitus or vapour, when recently drawn, is somewhat urinous; it is of a plastic consistence, somewhat glutinous and adhesive. Chemical analysis of blood, by means of distillation, discovers, 1. A considerable quantity of *insipid water*, which very soon becomes putrid. 2. *Empyreumatic oil*. 3. *Ammoniacal spirit*. 4. *Carbon*, which remains behind, is very spongy, and with great difficulty incinerated. The ashes, however, consist of a small quantity of culinary salt, soda, phosphorated calx, and a very small portion of iron. While hot, and in motion, the blood remains constantly fluid, and red; when it cools, and is at rest, it takes the form of a fluid mass, which gradually and spontaneously separates into two parts; the one, which is red, and floating, becomes of a darker colour, remains concrete, and is called the *cruor*, *crassamentum*, or *cake*; the other, which occupies the lower part of the vessel, is of a yellow greenish colour, and adhesive, and is called the *serum* or *lymph*.

The cruor, or cake, forms more than one half of the blood; it is very plastic, thick, and, in consistence, like glutinous jelly. It soon putrefies in the temperature of the air; but, dried by a gentle heat, becomes a brittle, dark, red mass. It is insoluble in water; and, when boiled in it, is converted into a hard grumous mass, internally red. The surface of the cruor of the blood, after

being exposed in a vessel to atmospheric air, becomes of a florid red colour; but the inferior surface, contiguous to the vessel, is of a deep black: the change of colour on the surface is owing to the oxygen of the atmosphere uniting with the blood. The cruor of the blood is composed of, 1. *Red globules*, which chemistry demonstrates consists of a fibrous gluten and oxydated iron. The experiments of the celebrated Rhazes shew, that in twenty-five pounds of blood from the human body, near two drachms of the oxyd of iron were obtained. 2. The fibrous gluten of the cruor, which remains after washing the cruor of blood for a considerable time in cold water, and enclosed in a fine linen cloth; in which case the red globules are washed away. If the red water obtained in this experiment be evaporated, and then distilled to dryness, it leaves behind a carbon, exhibiting, when incinerated, a great quantity of iron, attractable by the magnet. From these experiments it would appear, that the redness of the globules is imparted from the oxydated iron; for which purpose a small quantity is sufficient:—one grain of purple mineral will colour many pounds of water very red.

The serum of the blood is a lymphatic fluid, almost inodorous; rather saltish to the taste; pellucid, and of a yellowish green colour; and rather of a plastic consistence. It forms scarcely one half of the blood; and it contains, 1. A large portion of *water*; from forty-seven ounces of serum, forty-three of insipid water were yielded by distillation. 2. *Albuminous gluten*, like the white of an egg, obtained by boiling, or by stirring it with a stick, or by an admixture of alcohol or concentrated mineral acid. 3. *Jelly*. If equal parts of water and serum of the blood be coagulated by fire, that part of the serum which is not coagulated, upon

being cooled, puts on the appearance of a tremulous jelly. 4. *Aerated soda*, obtained by pouring a mineral acid upon recent diluted serum. 5. *Culinary salt*, found in the incinerated carbon of blood. The albuminous principle of the serum, more commonly called the coagulable lymph, appears to be of very considerable importance in the animal œconomy, both in diseased and healthy states of it: it affords, by analysis, carbon, azot, and hydrogen. The importance of the blood is very considerable; it distends the cavities of the heart and blood-vessels, and prevents them from collapsing; it stimulates to contraction the cavities of the heart and vessels, by which means the circulation of the blood is performed; it generates within itself animal heat, which it propagates throughout the body; it nourishes the whole body: and, lastly, it is that source from which every secretion of the body is separated.

BLOOD, DRAGON'S. See *Sanguis draconis*.

BLOOD-LETTING. Under this term is comprehended every artificial discharge of blood made with a view to cure or prevent a disease. Blood-letting is divided into general and topical. As examples of the former, *venesection* and *arteriotomy* may be mentioned; and of the latter the application of *leeches*, *cupping-glasses*, and *scarification*.

BLOOD STONE. See *Hæmatites*.

BLOODY-FLUX. *Dysenteria sanguinea*. See *Dysenteria*.

BODIES, COMBUSTIBLE. This term is given by chemists to all substances which, on account of their affinity with oxygen, are capable of burning.

BODIES, GAZEUS. See *Gaz*.

BODIES, INFLAMMABLE. Chemists give this name to such bodies as burn with facility, and flame in an increased temperature; although, strictly

ly speaking, all combustible bodies are inflammable bodies: such are, the diamond, sulphur, bitumens, &c.

BODIES, PHOSPHORESCENT. Bodies which produce light, though their temperature be not increased.

BODY, (*Corpus, oris, n.*). The human body is divided by anatomists into the trunk and extremities: *i. e.* the head, and inferior and superior extremities, each of which have certain regions before any part is removed, by which the physician is enabled to direct the application of blisters and the like, and the situation of diseases is better described. The head is distinguished into the hairy part and the face. The former has five regions, *viz.* the crown of the head or *vertex*, the fore-part of the head or *frontiput*, the hind part or *occiput*, and the sides, *partes laterales capitis*. In the latter are distinguished the region of the forehead, *frons*; temples or *tempora*, the nose or *nasus*, the eyes or *oculi*, the mouth or *os*, the cheeks *buccæ*, the chin or *mentum*, and the ears or *aures*. The trunk is distinguished into three principal parts, the neck, thorax, and abdomen. The neck is divided into the anterior region or *pars antica*, in which, in men, is an eminence called *pomum Adami*; the posterior region is called *nuchæ colli*; and the lateral regions *partes laterales colli*. The thorax is distinguished into the anterior region, in which are the *sternum* and *mammæ*, and at whose inferior part is a pit or hollow called *scrobiculus cordis*; a posterior region called *dorsum*; and lateral regions or *latera thoracis*. The abdomen is distinguished into an anterior region, properly the *abdomen*, a posterior region called the loins or *lumbi*, and lateral regions or flanks, called *latera abdominis*. The anterior region of the abdomen being very extensive, is subdivided into the *epigastric*, *hypochondriac*, *umbilical*, and *hypogastric*

regions, which are described under their respective names. Immediately below the abdomen is the *mons Veneris*, and at its sides the groins or *inguina*. The space between the organs of generation and the *anus* or fundament, is called the *perinaeum*. The superior extremity is distinguished into the shoulder, *summitas humeri*, under which is the armpit called *axilla* or *fovea axillaris*; the *brachium* or arm; the *antibrachium* or fore-arm, in which anteriorly is the bend of the arm, where the veins are generally opened, called *flexura antibrachii*; and posteriorly the elbow, called *angulus cubiti*, and the hand, in which are the *carpus* or wrist, the back or *dorsum manus*, and the palm or *vola*. The inferior extremity is divided into, 1. the region of the femur, in which are distinguished the *coxa* or *regio ischiadica*, and outer and superior part; 2. the leg, in which are the knee or *genu*, the bend or *cavum poplitis*, and the calf or *fura*; 3. the foot, in which are the outer and inner ankle, or *mal-leolus externus* and *internus*, the back or *dorsum*, and the sole or *planta*.

BOG BEAN. See *Trifolium paludosum*.

BOHEA TEA. See *Tea*.

BOIS DE COISSI. See *Quassia*.

BOLAR EARTHS. See *Bole*.

BOLE, (*Bolus*, *i*, m. *βολος*, a mass). A friable earthy substance, uniting with water into a smooth paste, adhering to the tongue, and dissolving, as it were, in the mouth; of the argillaceous or clay kind, but more readily imbibing water than the clays strictly so called. Those used in medicine, are the Armenian and French boles. See *Bole armenian*, and *Bolus gallica*. Many other bolar earths have been recommended for medicinal uses, and were formerly ranked amongst the officinals; as red boles from Armenia, Lemnos, Strigonium, Portugal, Tuscany, and Livonia; yellow boles from

Armenia, Tockay, Silesia, Bohemia, and Blois; white boles from Armenia, Lemnos, Nocera, Eretria, Lamos, Chio, Malta, Tuscany, and Goltberg. Several of these earths have been commonly made into little cakes or flat masses, and stamped with certain impressions; from which circumstance they received the name of *terre sagillatae*, or sealed earths.

BOLE, ARMENIAN. *Bolus armenae*. Bole-armenic. A pale, but bright red coloured earth, which is occasionally mixed with honey, and applied to children's mouths when afflicted with aphthæ. It forms, like all argillaceous earths, a good tooth powder, when mixed with some aromatic.

BOLÆTUS IGNIARIUS. The systematic name for the *agaricus* of the pharmacopœias. See *Agaricus*.

BOLÆTUS LARICIS. The systematic name for the officinal *agaricus albus*. See *Agaricus albus*.

BOLÆTUS SUAVËOLENS. The systematic name for the *fungus salicis* of the pharmacopœias. See *Fungus salicis*.

BOLUS, (*Bolus*, *i*, m. *βολος*, a bole or bolus). Any medicine, rolled round, that is larger than an ordinary sized pea, and yet not too large to be swallowed.

BOLUS ARMENIÆ. See *Bole armenian*.

BOLUS GALLICUS. French bole. A pale red coloured bolar earth, variegated with irregular specks and veins of white and yellow. It is occasionally administered as an absorbent and antacid.

BOMBAX, (*Bombax*, *acis*, n.) *Gossypium*. The cotton tree. The seeds of the cotton tree, *Gossypium herbaceum*; *foliis quinquelobis subtus eglandulosis*, *caule herbaceo* of Linnæus, are directed for medicinal use in some foreign pharmacopœias; and are administered in coughs, on account of the mucilage they contain. The cotton,

the produce of this tree, is well known for domestic purposes.

BOMBIATES, (*Bombias, tis, m.*). Salts formed by the union of the bombic acid with different bases; thus *bombiat of alumin, &c.*

BOMBIC ACID. *Acidum bobicum*. Acid of the silk-worm. Silk-worms contain, especially when in the state of chrysalis, an acid liquor in a reservoir placed near the anus. It is obtained by expressing their juice in a cloth, and precipitating the mucilage by spirit of wine, and likewise by infusing the chrysalides in that liquor. This acid is very penetrating, of a yellow amber colour, but its nature and combinations are not yet well known.

BOMBUS, (*Bombus, i. m. Bouſſon*). A resounding noise, or ringing of the ears. Also, a sonorous expulsion of flatus from the intestines.

BONE, (*Os, ossis, n.*). Bones are hard, dry, and insensible parts of the body, of a whitish colour, and composed of a spongy, compact, or reticular substance. They vary much in their appearances, some being long and hollow, others flat and compact, &c. The greater number of bones have several processes and cavities, which are distinguished from their figure, situation, use, &c. Thus processes extended from the end of a bone, if smooth and round, are called *heads*; and *condyles*, when flattened either above or laterally. That part which is beneath the head, and which exceeds the rest of the bone in smallness and levity, is called the neck. Rough, unequal processes, are called *tuberosities* or *tubercles*; but the longer and more acute, *spinous* or *styloid* processes, from their resemblance to a thorn. Thin broad processes with sharp extremities, are known by the name of *crista*, or *sharp edges*. Other processes are distinguished by their form, and called *alar* or *pterygoid*, *mamillary* or *masloid*, *dentiform*

or *odontoid*, &c. Others, from their situation, are called *superior*, *inferior*, *exterior*, and *interior*. Some have their name from their direction, as *oblique*, *straight*, *transverse*, &c.; and some from their use, as *trocanters*, *rotators*, &c. *Furrows*, *depressions*, and *cavities*, are destined either for the reception of contiguous bones, to form an articulation with them, when they are called *articular cavities*, which are sometimes deeper, sometimes shallower; or they receive hard parts, but do not constitute a joint with them. Cavities serve also for the transmission and attachment of soft parts. Various names are given to them, according to the magnitude and figure of bones. If they be broad and large at the beginning, and not deep, but contracted at their ends, they are called *foveæ* or *pits*. Furrows are open canals, extending longitudinally in the surface of bones. A hollow, circular tube, for the most part of the same diameter from beginning to end, and more or less crooked, straight, long or short, is named a *canal*. *Foramina* are the apertures of canals, or they are formed of the excavated margins of two bones, placed against each other. If such be the form of the margin of a bone, as if a portion were taken out of it, it is called a *notch*.—With respect to the formation of bone, there have been various opinions. Physiologists of the present day assert that it is from a specific action of small arteries, by which ossific matter is separated from the blood, and deposited where it is required. The first thing observable in the embryo, where bone is to be formed, is a transparent *jelly*, which becomes gradually firmer, and is formed into *cartilage*. The cartilage gradually increases to a certain size, and when the process of ossification commences, vanishes as it advances. Cartilages, previous to the ossific action,

are solid, and without any cavity; but when the ossific action of the arteries is about to commence, the absorbents become very active, and form a *small cavity* in which the bony matter is deposited; bone continues to be separated, and the absorbents model the mass into its required shape. The process of ossification is extremely rapid in utero; it advances slowly after birth, and is not completed in the human body till about the twentieth year. Ossification in the flat bones, as those of the skull, always begins from *central points*, and the radiated fibres meet the radii of other ossifying points, or the edges of the adjoining bone. In long bones, as those of the arm and leg, the clavicle, metacarpal, and metatarsal bones, a *central ring* is formed in the body of the bone, the head and extremities being cartilage, in the centre of which ossification afterwards begins. The central ring of the body shoots its bony fibres towards the head and extremities, which extend towards the body of the bone. The head and extremities at length come so close to the body as to be merely separated by a cartilage, which becomes gradually thinner until the twentieth year. Thick and round bones, as those of the tarsus, carpus, sternum, and patella, are, at first, all cartilage; ossification begins in the *centre* of each. When the bones are deprived of their soft parts, and are hung together in their natural situation, by means of wire, the whole is termed an *artificial skeleton*; but when they are kept together by means of their ligaments, it is called a *natural skeleton*.—The uses of the bones are various, and are to be found in the account of each bone; it is, therefore, only necessary to observe, in this place, that they give shape to the body, contain and defend the vital viscera, and afford an attachment to all the muscles.

A Table of the Bones

No.

Bones of the HEAD.	Bones of the cranium or skull	Frontal	-	1
		Parietal	-	2
		Occipital	-	1
		Temporal	-	2
		Ethmoid	-	1
	Bones of the face.	Sphæmoid	-	1
		Superior max.	2	
		Jugal	-	2
		Nasal	-	2
		Lachrymal	-	2
	Dentes or teeth	Palatine	-	2
		Inferior spongy	2	
		Vomer	-	1
	Bone of the tongue.	Inferior maxil.	1	
		Incisores	-	8
	Bones of the ear, within the tempo-ral bones.	Cuspidati	-	4
		Molares	-	20
Bones of the Trunk.	The spine.	Hyoides os	1	
		Malleus	-	2
		Incus	-	2
	The thorax.	Stapes	-	2
		Orbicular os	2	
	The pelvis.	Cervical	7	
		Dorsal	12	
		Lumbar	5	
	The shoulder	Sacrum	-	1
		Coccygis os	-	1
	The arm.	Sternum	-	1
		Ribs	-	24
	The fore-arm.	Innominata ossa	2	
		Clavicle	-	2
Bones of the UPPER EXTREMITIES.	The hand.	Scapula	-	2
		Humeri os	2	
	Carpus or wrist.	Ulna	-	2
		Radius	-	2
	Metacarpus	Naviculare os	2	
		Lunare os	2	
	Phalanges	Cuneiforme os	2	
		Orbicular os	2	
		Trapezium os	2	
		Trapezoides os	2	
		Magnum os	2	
		Unciforme os	2	
		Metacarpus	-	10
		Phalanges	-	28

Bones of the Low. EXTREMITIES	{	The thigh.	{	Femur	-	2
		{		Patella	-	2
	{		Tibia	-	2	
			Fibula	-	2	
	{	{	{	Calcaneus		2
				Astragalus		2
				Cuboides os		2
				Naviculare os		2
				Cuneiform. ossa	6	
				Metatarsus	- - -	10
				Phalanges	- - -	28
<hr/>						
Sesamoid bones of the thumb and great toe, occasionally found - - - - -					8	
<hr/>						
Total					248	

BONEBINDER. See *Osteocolla*.

BONUS HENRICUS, (*Henricus* : so called because its virtues were detected by some one whose name was Henry). *Tota bona*. *Chenopodium*. English mercury. The plant to which this name is given in the pharmacopœias, is the *Chenopodium bonus henricus*; *foliis triangulari-sagittatis integerrimis, spicis compositis aphyllis axillaribus*, of Linnæus. It is a native of this country, and common in waste grounds from June to August. The young plant differs little from spinach when cultivated; and in many places the young shoots are eaten in spring like asparagus.

BORACIC ACID. *Acidum boracicum*. Sedative salt of Homberg. Acid of borax. Boracine acid. A concrete salt crystallized in small white scales, which may be obtained from borax, by adding concentrated sulphuric, the nitric, muriatic, and even vegetable acids, to a hot solution of borax, till the lixivium becomes somewhat acid: the solution is then to be cooled, when the acid will appear in the shape of bright scales. In combination with soda it forms borax.

BORAGE. See *Borago*.

BORAGO, (*Borago, inis* : formerly

written *Corago*; from *cor*, the heart, and *ago*, to affect; because it comforts the heart and spirits). Borage. The leaves and flowers of this plant, *Borago officinalis*; *foliis omnibus alternis, calycibus patentibus*, of Linnæus, are esteemed in some countries as refrigerant and cordial. Their principal use in this island is in that grateful summer beverage, known by the name of cool tankard.

BORAGO OFFICINALIS. The systematic name for the borage of the shops. See *Borago*.

BORAS SODÆ. Borate of soda. See *Borax*.

BORATES, (*Boras, tis, m.*). Salts formed of an union of the boracic acid with different bases; thus *borat of soda*, &c.

BORAX, (*Borax, acis*. *Borak*, Arab.). *Boras sodæ*. *Boras sodæ alcalescens*. *Tincal*. A neutral salt, formed by the combination of the acid improperly called the sedative salt, with the marine alkali. It is dug out of the earth, in the kingdom of Thibet, in the East Indies. It is also said to be formed or produced by certain artificial processes. There are several kinds of borax; but that used in medicine is called Dutch or purified borax: it has a very regular form; its crystals are six-sided prisms, two of the sides being commonly larger than the others; its crystallization, however, varies: the taste is styptic, and acts strongly on the fibres of the tongue. It is generally employed in solution, to detach mucus, &c. from the mouth in putrid fevers. It also possesses antacid and deobstruent virtues, and is given internally in cardialgia. The salts formed by the union of the acid of borax with different bases, are called borates.

BORBORYGMUS, (*Borborigmus, i. m.* *Βορβορυγμος*; from *βορβορῶ*, to make a noise). The rumbling noise

occasioned by flatus in the intestines. It frequently precedes hysterical affections.

BOTANY, (*Botanica*, *Βοτανική*; from *βόταν*, an herb or grass). That part of natural history which includes every thing respecting the natural history of vegetables.

BOTRYS, (*Botrys*, *tryos*, *Βοτρυς*, a cluster of grapes; so called because its seeds hang down like a bunch of grapes). The oak of Jerusalem.

BOTRYS MEXICANA. *Botrys ambrosioides mexicana*. Mexico tea. A decoction of this plant, *Chenopodium ambrosioides*; *foliis lanceolatis dentatis, racemis foliatis simplicibus*, of Linnæus, is recommended in the paralytic cases. Formerly the infusion was drunk instead of Chinese tea.

BOTRYS VULGARIS. *Botrys Ambrosia*. *Botrys ambrosioides*. Jerusalem oak. This plant, *Chenopodium botrys*; *foliis oblongis sinuatis, racemis nudis multifidis*, of Linnæus, was formerly administered in form of decoction in some diseases of the chest; as humoral asthma, coughs, and catarrhs. It is now fallen into disuse.

BOUGIE, (*Candelula*, *ε*, *f.*). *Ceræolus chirurgorum*. A term applied by surgeons to a long, slender instrument, that is introduced through the urethra into the bladder. Bougies made of the elastic gum are preferable to those made of wax. The caustic bougie differs from the ordinary one in having a thin roll of caustic in its middle, which destroys the stricture, or any part of the urethra it comes in contact with. Those made of catgut are very seldom used, but are deserving of the attention of the surgeon.

BOVISTA. *Crepitus lupi*. Puff ball. This is the *Lycoperdon bovista*; *subrotundum, lacerato dehiscens*, of Linnæus, which when dry contains a powder used by the common people to stop the blood in recent cuts, &c.

BRACHIEUS, (*Brachius*, *i*, *m.*

sc. musculus, *Βραχιον*, the arm). See *Brachialis internus*.

BRACHIAL ARTERY. *Arteria brachialis*. The brachial artery is the continuation of the axillary artery, which, as it passes behind the tendon of the pectoralis major, receives the name of *brachial*. It runs down on the inside of the arm, over the *musculus coraco-brachialis*, and *anconæus internus*, and, along the inner edge of the biceps, behind the *vena basilica*, giving out small branches as it goes along. Below the bend of the arm it divides into the *cubitalis* and *radialis*. Sometimes, though rarely, the *brachial artery* is divided from its origin into two large branches, which run down on the arm, and afterwards on the fore-arm, where they are called *cubitalis* and *radialis*.

BRACHIALIS, (*Brachialis*, *is*, *m. sc. musculus*). See *Brachialis internus*.

BRACHIALIS EXTERNUS. See *Triceps extensor cubiti*.

BRACHIALIS INTERNUS. *Brachialis* of Winslow. A muscle of the fore-arm, situated on the fore-part of the *os humeri*. It arises fleshy from the middle of the *os humeri*, at each side of the insertion of the *deltoid muscle*, covering all the inferior and fore-part of this bone, runs over the joint, and adheres firmly to the ligament. Is inserted, by a strong short tendon, into the coronoid process of the *ulna*. Its use is to bend the fore-arm, and to prevent the capsular ligament of the joint from being pinched.

BRACHIO-CUBITAL LIGAMENT. *Ligamentum brachio-cubitale*. The expansion of the lateral ligament which is fixed in the inner condyle of the *os humeri*, runs over the capsula, to which it closely adheres, and is inserted like radii on the side of the great sigmoid cavity of the *ulna*: it is covered on the inside by several tendons, which adhere closely to it, and seem to strengthen it very considerably.

BRACHIO-RADIAL LIGAMENT.

Ligamentum brachio-radiale. The expansion of the lateral ligament, which runs over the external condyle of the os humeri, is inserted round the coronary ligament, from thence all the way down to the neck of the radius, and also in the neighbouring parts of the ulna. Through all this passage it covers the capsular ligament, and is covered by several tendons adhering closely to both.

BRACHI OS. See *Humeri os.*

BRACHIUM, (*Brachium, i, n. βραχιον, the arm*). The arm, from the shoulder to the elbow.

BRAIN. See *Cerebrum.*

BRAIN, LITTLE. See *Cerebellum.*

BRAN, (*Furfur, ūris, m.*). The husks or shells of wheat which remain in the boulting machine. It contains a portion of the farinaceous matter, and is said to have a laxative quality. Decoctions of bran, sweetened with sugar, are used by the common people, and sometimes with success, against coughs, hoarsenesses, &c.

BRANCA, (*Branca, e, f. Span. a foot or branch*). A term applied to some herbs which are supposed to resemble a particular foot; as *branca leonis*, lion's foot; *branca ursina*, bear's foot.

BRANCA LEONINA. See *Elaphoboscum.*

BRANCA URSINA. The plant which is directed by this name in foreign pharmacopœias, is the *Heracleum spondylium*; *foliolis pinnatifidis, lœvibus; floribus uniformibus*, of Linnaeus: care should be taken to distinguish it from the *acanthus*.—See *Acanthus*, which is also called *brancha ursina*. In Siberia it grows extremely high, and appears to have virtues in the cure of dysentery, which the plants of this country do not possess.

BRANCHÆ, (*βραγχαι; from βρεχω, to make moist*). *Brancha.* The

glands of the fauces, which secrete the saliva.

BRANCHUS, (*Branchus, i. m. βραγχος; from βρεχω, to moisten*). A defluxion of humours from the fauces.

BRANDY. *Spiritus Gallicus.* A colourless, slightly opaque, and milky fluid, of a hot and penetrating taste, and a strong and agreeable smell, when first distilled from the wine. It consists of water, ardent spirit, and a small portion of oil, which renders it milky at first, and after a certain time colours it yellow. It is the fluid from which rectified or ardent spirit is obtained. The utility of brandy is very considerable, but from its pleasant taste and exhilarating property it is too often taken to excess. It gives energy to the animal functions; is a powerful tonic, cordial, and antispasmodic; and its utility with camphire, in gangrenous affections, is very great.

BRANKS. The name in Scotland for the mumps. See *Cynanche parotidea*.

BRANKURSINE. See *Acanthus*.

BRASILIENSE LIGNUM. Logwood. See *Hæmatoxylum*.

BRASILIENSIS RADIX. The ipecacuanha root is sometimes so called. See *Ipecacuanha*.

BRASS. *Æs.* A combination of copper with zinc.

BRASSICA CAPITATA. Cabbage. There are several varieties of cabbage, all of which are, generally, hard of digestion, producing flatulencies, and afford very little nourishment. These inconveniences are not experienced by those whose stomachs are strong and accustomed to them. Few vegetables run into a state of putrefaction so quickly as cabbages; they ought, therefore, always to be used immediately after cutting. In Holland and Germany there is a method of preserving them, by cutting them into pieces, and sprinkling salt and some

aromatic herbs among them : this mass is put into a tub, where it is pressed close, and left to ferment, when it is called *sour crout* or *saur kraut*. These and all pickles of cabbage are considered as wholesome and antiscorbutic, from the vinegar and spices they contain.

BRASSICA ERUCA. The systematic name for the plant which affords the *semen cruce*. See *Eruca*.

BRASSICA ERUCASTRUM. See *Eruca sylvestris*.

BRASSICA MARINA. Κομμένη θαλασσία. *Convolvulus maritimus*. *Soldanella*. *Soldanella*. This plant, *Convolvulus soldanella*; *foliis reniformibus, pedunculis unifloris*, of Linnæus, is a native of our coasts. The leaves are said to be a drastic purge. They are only used by the common people, the pharmacopœias having now substituted more safe and valuable remedies in their place.

BRASSICA NAPUS. The systematic name for the plant from which the *semen napi* is obtained. See *Napi*.

BRASSICA OLERACEA. The systematic name for the *brassica capitata* of the shops. See *Brassica capitata*.

BRASSICA RAPA. The systematic name for the plant whose root is called turnip. See *Rapa*.

BREAD FRUIT TREE. This grows in all the Ladrone Islands in the South Sea, in Otaheite, and now in the West Indies. The bread fruit grows upon a tree the size of a middling oak. The fruit is about the size of a child's head, and the surface is reticulated, not much unlike the surface of a truffle. It is covered with a thin skin, and has a core about the size of a small knife. The eatable part is between the skin and the core: it is as white as snow, and somewhat of the consistence of new bread. It must be toasted before it is eaten, being first divided into three or four parts. Its taste is insipid, with a slight sweetness, nearly like that of

wheaten bread and artichoke together. This fruit is the constant food of the inhabitants all the year, it being in season eight months.

BREAST, (Mamma, æ, f.). The two globular projections, composed of common integuments, adipose substance, and lacteal glands and vessels, and adhering to the anterior and lateral regions of the thorax of females. On the middle of each breast is a projecting portion, termed the *papilla* or *nipple*, in which the excretory ducts of the glands terminate, and around which is a coloured orb or disc, called the *areola*. The use of the breasts is to suckle new-born infants.

BREGMA, (Bregma, atis, m.). An old name of the parietal bones. See *Parietal bone*.

BREVIÀ VASA. See *Vasa brevia*.

BRIAR, WILD. See *Cynobatus*.

BRIMSTONE. See *Sulphur*.

BRIMSTONE FLOWERS. See *Flores sulphuris*.

BRISTOL HOT-WELL. A thermal spring water, as its name imports, of very moderate heat at about 74°. A Winchester gallon of this water contains only 47½ grains of solid contents, of which rather less than half are neutral salts with the basis of soda, and the remainder are calcareous salts: it also holds in solution about 1-7th to 1-8th of its bulk of a gaz which is chiefly carbonic acid. Bristol Hot-well has obtained great celebrity in the cure of a number of diseases of very opposite natures: in several disorders of the alimentary canal, in the dyspeptic symptoms which so often impair the health of the European who has long resided in hot climates in bilious diarrhœa, and slight dysentery; also in the cure of diabetes or at least in affording it considerable relief. But the high reputation which this spring has acquired is above all in alleviating some of the most harassing symptoms of pulmonary cor

sumption. The Sion spring at Clifton near Bristol resembles the Hotwell, except that it is one or two degrees colder.

BRITANICA HERBA. See *Hydro-lapathum*.

BROCCOLI. *Brassica Italica*. As an article of diet, this may be considered as more delicious than cauliflower and cabbage. Sound stomachs digest broccoli without any inconvenience; but in dyspeptic stomachs, even when combined with pepper, &c. it always produces flatulency and auseous eructations.

BROMATOLOGY, (*Bromatologia*, *a*, from *βρωμα*, food, and *λογος*, a discourse). A discourse or treatise on food.

BROMELIA ANANAS. The systematic name of the plant which affords the ananas. See *Ananas*.

BROMELIA KARATAS. The systematic name of the plant from which we obtain the fruit called penguin, which is given in the Spanish West Indies to cool and quench thirst in fevers, dysenteries, &c. It grows in cluster, there being several of the size of ones finger together. Each portion is clothed with a husk, containing a white pulpy substance, which is the eatable part; and if it be not perfectly ripe, its flavour resembles that of the pine-apple. The juice of the ripe fruit is very austere, and is made use of to acidulate punch. The inhabitants of the West Indies make wine of the penguin, which is very intoxicating, and has a good flavour.

BRONCHIA, (*βροχια*, *βρογχος*, the throat). See *Trachea*.

BRONCHIAL ARTERY. *Arteria bronchialis*. A branch of the aorta, given off in the chest.

BRONCHIAL GLANDS. Large blackish glands, situated about the bronchia and trachea, which secrete blackish mucus.

BRONCHOCĒLE, (*Bronchocoele*, *es*, from *βροχος*, the windpipe, and

κηλη, a tumour). Derbyshire neck. A tumour in the fore-part of the neck, originating mostly from a diseased thyroid gland, which covers the anterior part of the trachea. This disease is endemial to the Alps and some parts of Derbyshire.

BRONCHOTOMY, (*Bronchotomia*, *a*, f. from *βρογχος*, the windpipe, and *τεμνω*, to cut). Tracheotomy. The operation performed on the trachea; when the opening through the mouth is obstructed, to make a passage for the air into the lungs.

BROOKLIME SPEEDWELL. See *Beccabunga*.

BROOM, COMMON. The English name of the *Spartium scoparium* of Linnæus. See *Genista*.

BRUCEA: (So named by Sir Joseph Banks, in honor of Mr. Bruce, the traveller into Abyssinia, who first brought the seeds thence into England).

BRUCEA ANTIDYSENTERICA.—The systematic name of the plant from which it is supposed we obtain the angustura bark. See *Angustura cortex*.

BRUCEA FERRUGINEA. This plant is also supposed to afford the angustura bark. See *Angustura cortex*.

BRUISEWORT. See *Saponaria*.

BRUNELLA. See *Prunella*.

BRUNNER'S GLANDS. Peyer's glands. The muciparous glands, situated between the villous and cellular coat of the intestinal canal; so named after Brunner, who discovered them.

BRUSCUS. See *Ruscus*.

BRUTUA. See *Pariera brava*.

BRYONIA, (*Bryonia*, *a*, f. from *βρωω*, to abound, from its abundance). *Vitis alba*. White bryony. *Bryonia alba* of Linnæus. *Bryonia foliis palmatis utrinque calloso-scabris*. Class. *Dioecia*. Order. *Syngenesia*. A very common plant in woods and hedges. The root has a very nauseous biting taste, and disagreeable smell; and is

employed in hydropical cases as a diuretic or drastic purge, which qualities depend upon the dose that is administered.

BRYONIA ALBA. The systematic name of the plant from which the *radix bryoniae* is obtained. See *Bryonia*.

BRYONY, WHITE. The English name of the *Bryonia alba* of Linnæus. See *Bryonia*.

BUBO, (*Bubo, nis, m.* from *Βουβων*, the groin; because they most frequently happen in that part). An inflammation of a conglobate gland in any part of the body. Cullen arranges this disease in the class *locales*, and order *tumores*.

BUBON GALBANUM. The systematic name of the plant which affords the officinal galbanum. See *Galbanum*.

BUBON MACEDONICUM. The systematic name of the plant which affords the *semen petroselinum macedonici* of the shops. See *Petroselinum macedonicum*.

BUBONOCÈLE, (*Bubonocèle, es, f.* from *Βουβων*, the groin, and *κῆλη* a tumour). An inguinal rupture. See *Intestinal*, *Omental*, and *Intestino-omental hernias*.

BUCCA, (*Bucca, æ, f.*). The cheek, or side of the face, or that part composed of common integuments and muscles which lies between the eye, temple, nose, and ear.

BUCCAL GLANDS, (*Glandulae buccinales*; from *bucca*, the cheek). The small glands of the mouth, under the cheek, which assist in secreting saliva into that cavity.

BUCCINATOR, (*Buccinator, oris, m.* so named from its use in forcing the breath to sound the trumpet). A muscle of the mouth, that in part forms the cheek. Its use is to draw the angle of the mouth backwards, and outwards, and to contract its cavity, by pressing the cheek inwards, by which the food is thrust between the teeth.

BUCEPHALON, RED FRUITED. The plant so called is the *Tropis americana* of Linnæus. Its fruit is a kind of rough red berry, which is eaten by the inhabitants of Jamaica, although its flavour is by no means pleasant.

BUCK-BEAN. See *Trifolium paludosum*.

BUCK-THORN. See *Spina cervina*.

BUCK-WHEAT. The *Polygonum fagopyrum* of Linnæus. The grain of this plant constitutes the principal food of the inhabitants of Russia, Germany, and Switzerland.

BUCK-WHEAT, EASTERN. The *Polygonum divaricatum* of Linnæus. The roots, reduced into a coarse meal, are the ordinary food of the Siberians. The mountain rats in those parts also live upon them, and are provident enough in the winter to lay up a large store, which the Siberians plunder the poor animals of.

BUGLE. See *Prunella*.

BUGLOSS. See *Buglossum*.

BUGLOSSUM, (*Buglossum, i, n.* from *βυς*, an ox, and *γλῶσσα*, a tongue). *Buglossa*. Officinal bugloss, or alkanet. This plant, *Anchusa foliis lanceolatis, frigidis, spicis secundis imbricatis, calicibus quinquepartitis*. Hort. Kew. Class. *Pentandria*. Order. *Monogynia*; was formerly esteemed as a cordial in melancholic and hypochondriacal diseases. It is seldom used in modern practice, and then only as a percent and refrigerant.

BUGULA. See *Consolida media*.

BULBOCAVERNŌSUS, (*Bulbocavernosus, sc. musculus*: so called from its origin and insertion). See *Accelerator urine*.

BULGE-WATER-TREE. The English name of the plant from which obtain the *cortex Geoffroyæ Jamaicensis*. See *Cortex Geoffroyæ Jamaicensis*.

BULIMIA, (*Bulimia, æ, f.* from *βε*, a particle of excess, and *λιμος*, hunger). Canine appetite, hunger. This affection is most

symptomatic, and arises from worms, rachitis, or from acids.

BULLACE. The fruit so called is the produce of the *Prunus infitia* of Linnæus, which grows wild in our hedges. There are two varieties of bullace, the red and the white, which are used with the same intentions as the common damsons.

BULLÆ, (*Bulla*, *æ*, f.). Pustules or small vesicles on any part of the body, the size of a nutmeg.

BUNIAS. The name in the Parisian Pharmacopœia for the wild nape. See *Napus*.

BUNIAM BULBOCASTANUM — The systematic name of the plant whose root is called the pig-nut. See *Pig-nut*.

BUPLEURUM ROTUNDIFOLIUM. The systematic name of the plant called *perfoliata* in the pharmacopœias. See *Perfoliata*.

BURDOCK. See *Bardana*.

BURGUNDY PITCH. *Pix burgundica*. The juice of the *Pinus abies* of Linnæus (*Pinus foliis solitariis subtragonis acutiusculis distichis, ramis infra nudis, conis cylindraceis*. Hort. Kew. Class. *Monoecia*. Order. *Monadelphia*), boiled in water, and strained through a linen cloth. It is chiefly imported from Saxony, is of a solid consistence, yet somewhat soft, of a reddish brown colour, and not disagreeable smell. It is used externally as a stimulant in form of plaster.

BURNET SAXIFRAGE. See *Pimpinella*.

BURNT HARTSHORN. See *Coru cervi ustum*.

BURNT SPONGE. See *Spongia*.

BURSALOGY, (*Bursalogia*, *æ*, f. *βουρσαλογία*; from *βουρσα*, a bag, and *λογος*, a discourse). The doctrine of the bursæ mucosæ.

BURSÆ MUCOSÆ. Mucous bags, composed of proper membranes, containing a kind of mucous fat, formed by the exhaling arteries of the inter-

nal coat. They are of different sizes and firmness, and are connected by the cellular membrane with articular cavities, tendons, ligaments, or the periosteum. The use of the bursæ mucosæ is to secrete, and contain a substance to lubricate tendons, muscles, and bones, in order to render their motion easy.

A Table of all the Bursa Mucosa.

In the head.

1. *A bursa of the superior oblique muscle of the eye, situated behind its trochlea in the orbit.*

2. *The bursa of the digastricus, situated in the internal surface of its tendon.*

3. *A bursa of the circumflexus, or tensor palati, situated between the hook-like process of the sphenoid bone and the tendon of that muscle.*

4. *A bursa of the sterno-hyoideus muscle, situated between the os hyoides and larynx.*

About the shoulder joint.

1. *The external acromial, situated under the acromion, between the coracoid process, deltoid muscle, and capsular ligament.*

2. *The internal acromial, situated above the tendon of the infra-spinalis and teres major: it often communicates with the former.*

3. *The coratoid bursa, situated near the root of the coracoid process: it is sometimes double, and sometimes triple.*

4. *The clavicular bursa, found where the clavicle touches the coracoid process.*

5. *The subclavian bursa, between the tendon of the subclavicularis muscle and the first rib.*

6. *The coraco-brachial, placed between the common origin of this muscle and the biceps and the capsular ligament.*

7. *The bursa of the pectoralis major,*

situated under the head of the humerus, between the internal surface of the tendon of that muscle and another bursa placed on the long head of the biceps.

8. *An external bursa of the teres major*, under the head of the os humeri, between it and the tendon of the teres major.

9. *An internal bursa of the teres major*, found within the muscle where the fibres of its tendon diverge.

10. *A bursa of the latissimus dorsi*, between the tendon of this muscle and the os humeri.

11. *The humero-bicipital bursa*, in the vagina of the tendon of the biceps.

There are other bursæ mucosæ about the humerus, but their situation is uncertain.

Near the elbow joint.

1. *The radio-bicipital*, situated between the tendon of the biceps, brachialis, and anterior tubercle of the radius.

2. *The cubito-radial*, between the tendon of the biceps, supinator brevis, and the ligament common to the radius and ulna.

3. *The anconeal bursa*, between the olecranon and tendon of the anconeus muscle.

4. *The capitulo-radial bursa*, between the tendon common to the extensor carpi radialis brevis, and extensor communis digitorum and round head of the radius. There are occasionally other bursæ, but as their situation varies, they are omitted.

About the inferior part of the fore-arm and hand.

On the inside of the wrist and hand.

1. A very large bursa, for the tendon of the flexor pollicis longus.

2. Four short bursæ on the fore-part of the tendons of the flexor sublimis.

3. A large bursa behind the tendon of the flexor pollicis longus, between

it and the fore-part of the radius, capsular ligament of the wrist, and os trapezium.

4. A large bursa behind the tendons of the flexor digitorum profundus and on the fore-part of the end of the radius, and fore-part of the capsular ligament of the wrist. In some subjects it communicates with the former.

5. An oblong bursa, between the tendon of the flexor carpi radialis and os trapezium.

6. A very small bursa between the tendon of the flexor carpi ulnaris and os pisiforme.

On the back part of the wrist and Hand.

7. A bursa between the tendon of the abductor pollicis longus and the radius.

8. A large bursa between the two extensores carpi radiales.

9. Another below it, common to the extensores carpi radiales.

10. A bursa, at the insertion of the tendon of the extensor carpi radialis.

11. An oblong bursa, for the tendon of the extensor pollicis longus, and which communicates with 9.

12. A bursa, for the tendon of the extensor pollicis longus, between it and the metacarpal bone of the thumb.

13. A bursa between the tendons of the extensor of the fore, middle, and ring fingers.

14. A bursa for the extensors of the little finger.

15. A bursa between the tendon of the extensor carpi ulnaris and ligament of the wrist.

There are also bursæ mucosæ between the muscoli lumbricales and interossei.

Near the hip joint.

On the fore-part of the joint.

1. Theileo-puberal, situated between the iliacus internus, psoas magnus,

and the capsular ligament of the head of the femur.

2. *The pectineal*, between the tendon of the pectineus and the thigh-bone.

3. *A small bursa* of the gluteus medius muscle, situated between it and the great trochanter, before the insertion of the pyriformis.

4. *A bursa* of the gluteus minimus muscle between its tendon and the great trochanter.

5. *The gluteo-fascial*, between the gluteus maximus and vastus externus.

On the posterior part of the hip joint.

6. *The tubero-ischiatic bursa*, situated between the obturator internus muscle, the posterior spine of the ischium, and its tuberosity.

7. *The obturator bursa*, which is oblong, and found between the obturator internus and gemini muscles and the capsular ligament.

8. *A bursa of the semi membranous*, under its origin and the long head of the biceps femoris.

9. *The gluteo-trochanteral bursa*, situated between the tendon of the psoas muscle and the root of the great trochanter.

10. *Two gluteo-femoral bursæ*, situated between the tendon of the gluteus maximus and os femoris.

11. *A bursa of the quadratus femoris*, situated between it and the little trochanter.

12. *The iliac bursa*, situated between the tendon of the iliacus internus and the little trochanter.

Near the knee joint.

1. *The supra-genual*, which adheres to the tendons of the vastus and cruralis and the fore-part of the thigh bone.

2. *The infra-genual bursa*, situated under the ligament of the patella, and often communicates with the above.

3. *The anterior genual*, placed be-

tween the tendon of the sartorius gracilis and semitendinosus and internal and lateral ligament of the knee.

4. *The posterior genual*, which is sometimes double, and is situated between the tendons of the semi-membranosus, the internal head of the gastrocnemius, the capsular ligament, and internal condyle.

5. *The popliteal*, conspicuous between the tendon of that muscle, the external condyle of the femur, the semilunar cartilage, and external condyle of the tibia.

6. *The bursa of the biceps cruris*, between the external part of the tendon, the biceps cruris, and the external lateral ligament of the knee.

In the foot.

On the back, side, and hind-part of the foot.

1. *A bursa of the tibialis anticus*, between its tendon, the lower part of the tibia, and capsular ligament of the ankle.

2. *A bursa* between the tendon of the extensor pollicis pedis longus, the tibia and capsular ligament of the ankle.

3. *A bursa of the extensor digitorum communis*, between its tendons, the tibia, and ligament of the ankle.

4. *A large bursa*, common to the tendons of the peronei muscles.

5. *A bursa of the peroneus brevis*, proper to its tendon.

6. *The calcaneal bursa*, between the tendo Achillis and os calcis.

In the sole of the foot.

1. *A bursa for the tendon of the peroneus longus.*

2. *A bursa* common to the tendon of the flexor pollicis pedis longus, and the tendon of the flexor digitorum pedis communis longus profundus.

3. *A bursa of the tibialis posticus*, between its tendon, the tibia, and astragalus.

4. *Five bursa for the flexor tendons*, which begin a little above the first joint of each toe, and extend to the root of the third phalanx or insertion of the tendons.

BUTCHERSBROOM. See *Ruscus*.

BUTOMON. See *Iris palustris*.

BUTTER, (*Butyrum*, *i*, n. *βουτυρον*; from *βας*, a cow, and *τυρος*, coagulum or cream). A concrete and soft substance, of a yellow colour, approaching more or less to that of gold, and of a mild agreeable taste. It melts by a gentle heat, and becomes solid by cooling. Fresh butter is mild, temperate, and relaxing, but it readily becomes sour, and, in general, agrees with few stomachs. Rancid butter is one of the most unwholesome and indigestible of all foods.

BUTTERBUR. See *Petasites*.

BUTTERFLOWER. See *Ranunculus*.

BUTTER-MILK. The milk-like fluid remaining after making of butter. It is recommended in coughs by the common people.

BUTTERWORT. See *Pinguicula*.

BUTUA. See *Pariera brava*.

BUTYRUM ANTIMONII. See *Antimonium muriatum*.

BUXUS, (*Buxus*, *i*, f. *πύξος*; from *πύκναι*, to become hard). The leaves of the box-tree, *Buxus sempervirens* of Linnæus, possess a very strong nauseous, bitter taste, and aperient virtues. They are occasionally exhibited in form of decoction amongst the lower orders of people, in cases of dropsy and asthma.

BUXUS SEMPERVIRENS. The systematic name of the *buxus* of the pharmacopœias. See *Buxus*.

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CAACO. The name of a species of sensitive plant, whose root is used by the natives of America as an antidote to several poisons.

CAAETIMARY. *Senecio brasiliensis*. A decoction of the plant thus called, is used as a wash to cure the itch.

CAA-OPIA. The name of a tree in the Brasils, whose bark emits a juice, when wounded, which in a dried state resembles gamboge, except that it is rather of a darker red colour.

CAAROA. The name of a tree which grows in the Brazils. A decoction of its leaves promotes perspiration, and is given in the cure of the venereal disease.

CABBAGE. See *Brassica*.

CABBAGE BARK TREE. See *Cortex Geoffroya Jamaicensis*.

CACHEXIA, (*Cachexia*, *a*, f. from

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κακος, bad, and *εξος*, a habit). A bad habit of body, without pyrexia, and independent of any other disease. It constitutes the third class in Cullen's naufology, and has three orders, viz. *marcores*, *intumescencie*, and *impetiginet*.

CACHÖCHYMIA, (*Cachochymia*, *a*, f. from *κακος*, bad, and *χυμος*, humour). A depraved state of the humours.

CACHRYS ODONTALGICA. The root of this plant may be substituted for that of the *pyrethrum*.

CACOA NUT. Chocolate nut. An oblong, roundish nut, nearly of the shape of an almond, but larger; the shell dark coloured, brittle and thin; the kernel, both externally and internally, brownish. It is the produce of a small tree, the *Theobroma cacao*; *foliis integerrimis*, of Linnæus, bearing a large red fruit, shaped like a

cucumber, which contains thirty or more of the nuts. Cocoa is variously prepared in the shops; has a light, agreeable smell, and an unctuous, roughish, but pleasant taste. Chocolate, by far the best of all its preparations, affords a nutritious, and gently aperient dietetic fluid in consumptive diseases, emaciations, and various affections of the *primæ viæ*.

CACTUS OPUNTIA. The systematic name of the plant bearing the epithet *opuntia* in the pharmacopœias. See *Opuntia*.

CADMIÆ. See *Tutia*.

CADŪCA, (*Caduca*, *sc. membrana*; from *cado*, to fall down). See *Decidua*.

CADŪCUS MORBUS. See *Epilepsia*.

CÆCITAS, (*Cæcitas*, *antis*, f. from *cæcus*, blind). Blindness, deprivation or want of sight, which may arise from several causes. See *Caligo*.

CÆCUM, (*Cæcum*, *i*, n. from *cæcus*, blind). The first portion of the large intestines, placed in the right iliac region, about four fingers' breadth in length. It is in this intestine that the ileum terminates by a valve, called the valve of the cæcum. The *appendicula cæci vermiformis* is also attached to it. See *Intestines*.

CÆNESTHESIS, (*Cænesthesis*, *is*, f.). Self-feeling.

CÆSARIAN SECTION. Cæsarian operation. (So called because Julius Cæsar is said to have been extracted in this manner). The operation for extracting the fœtus from the uterus, by dividing the integuments of the abdomen and the uterus.

CAJEPUT OIL. *Oleum cajeputæ*. *Oleum Wittnebianum*. *Oleum cajeput*. The tree which affords this oil, by distillation of its leaves, is the *Melaleuca leucadendron* of Linnæus, of which there are two varieties, the *latifolia* and *angustifolia*, both natives of the woods of India. Thunberg says cajeput oil has the appearance of inflammable spirit, is of a green colour,

and so completely volatile that it evaporates entirely, leaving no residuum; its odour is of the camphoraceous kind, with a terebinthinate admixture. Goetz says it is limpid, or rather yellowish. It is a very powerful medicine, and in high esteem in India and Germany in the character of a general remedy in chronic and painful diseases: it is used for the same purposes for which we employ the officinal æthers, to which it seems to have a considerable affinity; the cajeput, however, is more potent and pungent; taken into the stomach, in the dose of five or six drops, it heats and stimulates the whole system, proving at the same time a very certain diaphoretic, by which probably the good effects it is said to have in dropsies and intermittent fevers are to be explained. For its efficacy in various convulsive and spasmodic complaints, it is highly esteemed. It has also been used both internally and externally, with much advantage, in several other obstinate disorders; as palsies, hypochondriacal and hysterical affections, deafness, defective vision, tooth-ach, gout, rheumatism, &c. The dose is from two to six, and even twelve drops.

CALAGUALÆ RADIX. *Calagucla radix*. The root so called is knotty, and somewhat like that of the polypody tribe. It has been exhibited internally at Rome, with success, in dropsy; and it is said to be efficacious in pleurisy, contusions, abscesses, &c. It was first used in America, where it is obtained; and Italian physicians have since written concerning it.

CALAMINE STONE, (*Calamia*, Arab. or from *calamus*, a reed, from its reed-like appearance). *Lapis calaminaris*. *Oxydum zinci impurum*. A calx of zinc. A very hard, gray, yellow, or reddish semimetal, found in quarries of considerable extent in the dutchy of Limbourg, the counties of Namur, and of Nottingham

and Somerset. It is employed by surgeons in powder, and in the *cera-tum lapidis calaminaris*, as a mild application to sores.

CALAMINT, COMMON. See *Calamintha*.

CALAMINT, MOUNTAIN. See *Calamintha magno flore*.

CALAMINTHA, (*Calamintha*, *c.*, f. *καλαμίνθη*; from *καλος*, beautiful, or *καλαμος*, a reed, and *μινθη*, mint). Common calamint. *Melissa calamintha*; *pedunculis axillaribus, dichotomis, longitudine foliorum*, of Linnæus. This plant smells strongly, like wild mint, though more agreeable; and is often used by the common people, in form of tea, against weakness of the stomach, flatulent cholic, uterine obstructions, hysteria, &c.

CALAMINTHA MAGNO FLORE. *Calamintha montana*. Mountain calamint. This plant, *Melissa grandiflora* of Linnæus, has a moderately pungent taste, and a more agreeable aromatic smell than the common calamint, and appears to be more eligible as a stomachic.

CĀLĀMUS AROMATĪCUS, (*Calamus*, *i.*, m. from *kalam*, Arab.). *Acorus verus*. *Calamus vulgaris*. Sweet flag, or acorus. *Acorus calamus scapi mucrone longissimo foliaceo* of Linnæus. Class. *Hexandria*. Order. *Monogynia*. The root of this plant has been long employed medicinally. It has a moderately strong aromatic smell, and a warm, pungent, bitterish taste; and is deemed useful as a warm stomachic. Powdered, and mixed with some absorbent, it forms a useful and pleasant dentifrice.

CĀLĀMUS ROTANG. The systematic name of the plant from which we obtain the dragon's blood. See *Sanguis draconis*.

CĀLĀMUS SCRIPTORIUS. A kind of canal at the bottom of the fourth ventricle of the brain, so called from its resemblance to a writing pen.

CĀLĀMUS VULGĀRIS. See *Calamus aromaticus*.

CALCĀNĒUM. *Os calcis*. The largest bone of the tarsus, which forms the heel. It is situated posteriorly under the astragalus, is very regular, and divided into a body and processes.

CALCAREOUS EARTH. Calx or lime. See *Lime*.

CALCATRIPPA. See *Consolidago regalis*.

CALCES, METALLIC. Metals, which have undergone the process of calcination or combustion, or any other equivalent operation.

CALCINATION, (*Calcinatio, onis*, f. from *calx*, lime). *Oxydation*. A term given by chemists to that process by which minerals, when exposed to a certain degree of heat, are deprived of their water; stones converted into lime; and metals into calces or oxyds. A metal never becomes calcined or oxydated, but when in contact with air; the more extensive this contact, the larger is the quantity of metal which becomes calcined or oxydated; and it is proved, that a given quantity of air can only serve for the oxydation of a given quantity of metal. The metal thus calcined is termed a metallic calx or oxyd.

CALCITRAPA. The plant thus called in the pharmacopœias, is the *Centaurea calcitrapa*; *calycibus subduplicato-spinosis, sessilibus; foliis pinnatifidis, linearibus dentatis; caula piloso*, of Linnæus, every part of which is bitter. The juice or extract or infusion are said to cure intermittents, and the bark of the root and the seeds have been recommended in nephritic disorders, and in suppression of urine.

CALCŪLUS, (*Calculus, i.*, m. dim. of *calx*, a lime stone). *Calculus humanus*. *Bezoar microcosmicum*. A peculiar concreté, found in the human bladder, and formed of *uric* or *uric*

acid, phosphate of lime, ammoniaco-magnesian phosphate, and oxylate of lime.

CALEFACIENTS. (*Calefacientia*; from *calidus*, warm, and *facio*, to make). Medicines, or other substances, which excite a degree of warmth in the parts to which they are applied; as *piper*, *spiritus vini*, &c.

CALENDULA, (*Calendula*, æ, f. *quod singulis calendis*, i. e. *mensibus florescat*; so called because it flowers every month). *Caltha vulgaris*. Single marigold. The flowers and leaves of this plant; *Calendula officinalis*: *seminibus cymbiformibus, muricatis, incurvatis, omnibus*, of Linnæus, have been exhibited medicinally: the former, as aperients in uterine obstructions and icteric disorders, and as diaphoretics in exanthematous fevers; the latter, as gentle aperients, and to promote the secretions in general.

CALENDULA OFFICINALIS. The systematic name of the single marigold plant. See *Calendula*.

CALENTURE. A disease peculiar to sailors, wherein they imagine the sea to be green fields, and will throw themselves into it if not restrained.

CALIGO, (*Caligo*, ïnis, f.). *Cataracta*. The cataract. A disease of the eye, known by diminished or destroyed sight; and by the interposition of a dark body between the object and the retina. It is arranged by Cullen in the class *locales*, and order *dysæsthesiæ*. The species of cataract are distinguished according to the situation of the interposed body: thus *caligo lentis*, *caligo corneæ*, *caligo pupillæ*, *caligo humorum*, and *caligo palpebrarum*.

CALIX OF THE KIDNEYS, (*Calix*, ïcis, m. from *καλυπτω*, to cover). The term calix is given to the membrane which covers the papillæ in the pelvis of the human kidney.

CALLOSITY, (*Callositas*, atis, f. from *callus*, hardness). Hardness. Induration. A term employed in

surgery to express a hardness of the skin after the healing of ulcers.

CALLOUS. A surgical term, signifying hardened or indurated; thus the callous edges of ulcers.

CALLOUSNESS. Hardness. Induration.

CALLUS, (*Callus*, i, m. and *Calum*, i, n.). The bony matter deposited between the divided ends of broken bones about the fourteenth day after the fracture.

CALOMBA. See *Columba*.

CALOMELAS, (*Calomelas*, ñnos, m. *καλομελας*; from *καλός*, good, and *μελας*, black; from its virtues and colour. That which is now called Æthiop's mineral, or *hydrargyrus cum sulphure*, was formerly and properly so named. But calomel now means a white preparation of sublimed mercury). *Calomel*. This preparation is a muriate of mercury, and distinguished by its being sublimed from the other muriate of mercury, which is precipitated. The murias hydrargyri sublimatus, or calomel, possesses cathartic, alterative, deobstruent, and diuretic qualities. Internally it is exhibited in cases of syphilis, icterus, diseases of the skin, hepatic obstructions, dysentery, arthrodynia, and obstinate agues. Joined with jalap, or some other purgative medicine, it is given in dropical diseases, worms, and physconia abdominalis. Externally it is sprinkled on venereal ulcers and opacities of the cornea. It is said to be of service, used as snuff, in in some cases of amaurosis.

CALORIC, (*Caloricum*, i, n. from *calor*, heat). Heat. The matter or principle of heat. Modern chemists have, in order to explain the phenomena of heat, considered it as an impenetrable, highly elastic, peculiar fluid, so very subtle that its gravity has not yet been ascertained. Philosophers formerly differed in opinion respecting the causes of those

phenomena known by the name of heat, combustion, and cold, and there were many who considered them merely as the effect of the mechanical changes of bodies. At present, however, it is almost unanimously agreed, that these effects are produced by a peculiar matter, which is termed *caloric*. It is diffused through all natural bodies, with which it is more or less combined, according as their affinities for it are great or less: we are not acquainted with any body that does not enter into combination with it; nor any, from which the utmost endeavours could entirely separate it; *caloric*, therefore, is not to be had in a pure state of nature; nor can chemistry, in the strictest sense, exhibit any substance perfectly simple: hence, chemists, when mentioning the constituent parts of bodies, pay no regard to the presence of *caloric*, but consider it as understood of course. When any body is in equilibrio with the bodies which surround it, with respect to its *caloric*, that quantity which it contains is not perceptible by any external sign or organ of sense, this is termed *combined caloric*, or *latent heat*: but if the latent heat, from any cause, be forced, in some degree, to quit a body, and to combine with those that surround it, then such *caloric* is said to be *free* or *sensible*, until the equilibrium is restored. Chemists distinguish four primary degrees of heat: 1. The heat of boiling water. 2. A sand heat. 3. A naked fire. 4. A solar heat.

CALORIMETER. An instrument by which the whole quantity of absolute heat existing in a body in chemical union can be ascertained. That of M. La Place is preferred.

CALTHA PALUSTRIS. The marsh marigold. The young buds of this plant make, when properly pickled, very good substitutes for capers.

CALTHA VULGARIS. See *Calendula*.

CALUMBA. See *Columba*.

CALVARIA, (*Calvaria*, *a*, f. from *calvus*, bald; because that part of the head first becomes bald). The superior portion of the cranium, usually sawed off, to expose the brain.

CALX, (*Calx*, *cis*, f.). An oxyd. A term in chemistry for any thing that is rendered reducible to powder, by burning in contact with air. The term *calx* is also applied to lime.

CALX. See *Lime*, and *Calx viva*.

CALX ANTIMONII. See *Antimonium calcinatum*.

CALX CUM CALI PURO. *Lapis septicus*. *Lapis causticus*. *Cauterium potentiale*. *Causticum salinum*. *Causticum commune fortius*. The preparation thus called in the pharmacopœias, is termed *potassa fusa* in the new chemical nomenclature. It is highly corrosive and caustic, destroying the vitality of flesh with great activity. It is employed by surgeons as a caustic in a vast variety of diseases.

CALX HYDRARGYRI ALBA. *Mercurius præcipitatus albus*. *Mercurius cosmeticus*. White præcipitate. This mercurial preparation is an ammoniacal muriate of quicksilver, and therefore termed *murias hydrargyri ammoniacalis* in the new chemical nomenclature. It is mostly employed in the form of ointment, to destroy vermin in children's heads, and against diseases of the skin. See *Unguentum calcis hydrargyri albæ*.

CALX VIVA. *Calx usta*. *Lapis seu terra calcarea usta*. *Calx pura*. Quick-lime. This is called *calx* in the new chemical nomenclature, the crude or aerated or unslaked being a *carbonate*. Quick-lime possesses corroding, depilatory, and antacid virtues, and acrid and caustic qualities. Externally, joined with potash, it is applied as a powerful caustic.—See *Calx cum kali puro*. The only preparation of it exhibited internally, is the *aqua calcis*, which is administered in cardialgia; spasms, diarrhœa, and

infantile convulsions, from acidity in the primæ viæ; rickets, some diseases of the skin, stone in the kidney or urinary bladder: joined with cold drawn linseed oil, it is a good application to burns, and it is often employed by surgeons as an injection or wash for certain species of ulcers.

CAMBOGIA GUTTA. See *Gambogia*.

CAMBRIAN EARTH. *Terra cambria*. *Terra sydneya australis*. Austral earth. A peculiar earth discovered by Mr. Wedgewood.

CAMELS HAY. See *Juncus odoratus*.

CAMOMILE, See *Chamæmelum*.

CAMOMILE, STINKING. See *Cotula fetida*.

CAMPEACHY WOOD. See *Lignum campechense*.

CAMPECHENSE LIGNUM. See *Lignum campechense*.

CAMPFIRE. See *Camphora*.

CAMPHOR. See *Camphora*.

CAMPHORA, (*Camphora*, *a*, *f*. *Camphura*. Arab. The ancients by camphor meant what now is called asphaltum, or Jew's pitch; *καφουρα*). *Camphura*. Camphor or camphire. The tree from which this substance is obtained is the *Laurus camphora*; *foliis triplinerviis lanceolato-ovatis*, of Linnæus, Class. *Enneandria*. Order. *Monogynia*, indigenous to Japan, where it grows abundantly. The camphor is found to lodge every where in the interstices of the fibres of the wood, pith, and knots of the tree. The crude camphor, exported from Japan, appears in small grayish pieces, and is intermixed with various extraneous matters; in this state it is received by the Dutch, and purified by a second sublimation; it is then formed into loaves, in which state it is sent to England. Pure camphor is white, pellucid, somewhat unctuous to the touch; of a bitterish, aromatic, acid taste, yet accompanied with a sense of coolness; of a fra-

grant smell, and approaching to that of rosemary, but much stronger. It is totally volatile and inflammable, soluble in vinous spirits, oils, and the mineral acids; not in water, fixed nor volatile alkaline liquors, nor in acids of the vegetable kingdom. The use of this important medicine, in different diseases, is very considerable. It has been much employed, with great advantage, in fevers of all kinds, particularly in nervous fevers attended with delirium and much watchfulness. The experienced Werlhoff has witnessed its utility in several inflammatory diseases, and speaks highly in favour of its refrigerant qualities. The benefit derived from it in putrid fevers, where bark and acids are contra-indicated, is remarkable. In spasmodic and convulsive affections it is also of much service, and even in epilepsy. In chronic diseases this medicine is likewise employed; and against rheumatism, arthritis, and mania, we have several accounts of its efficacy. Nor is it less efficacious when applied externally in certain diseases: it dissipates inflammatory tumours in a short time; and its antiseptic quality, in resisting and during gangrene, is very considerable. There are several other properties peculiar to this medicine, which, it is lamented, must be passed over: one, however, must not be omitted, viz. the power it possesses of obviating the straggury that is produced by cantharides, when sprinkled over a blister. The preparations of camphor are, *spiritus camphoratus*, *oleum camphoratum*, *linimentum camphoræ*, *tinctura opii camphorata*, and the *mistura camphorata*.

CAMPHORATA. This plant, *Camphorosma monspeliensis*; *foliis hirsutis linearibus*, of Linnæus, took its name from its smell resembling so strongly that of camphire: it has been exhibited internally, in form of decoction, in dropical and asthmatic complaints,

but is totally forgotten in the present day.

CAMPHORATES, (*Camphōras, ātis*, m.). Salts formed by the union of the camphoric acid with different bases: thus *camphorat of allumin*, *camphorat of ammoniac*, &c.

CAMPHORIC ACID. *Acidum camphoricum*. If nitric acid be distilled several times (six or eight) from camphor, a crystallized salt is obtained, called the acid of camphor, which reddens syrup of violets and the tincture of turnsole. Its taste is bitter, and it differs from oxalic acid, in not precipitating lime from the muriatic acid. The union of this acid with different bases forms what is called *camphorates*, none of which have yet been used medicinally.

CAMPHOROSMA MONSPELIENSIS. The systematic name of the plant called camphorata in the pharmacopœias. See *Camphorata*.

CANADA BALSAM. See *Balsamum canadense*.

CANĀLIS ARTĒRIOSUS. *Canalis Botalii*. A blood-vessel peculiar to the foetus, disappearing after birth; through which the blood passes from the pulmonary artery into the aorta.

CANĀLES SĒMICIRCULĀRES.—Three semicircular canals placed in the posterior part of the labyrinth of the ear. They open by five orifices into the vestibulum. See *Ear*.

CANĀLIS NASALIS. A canal going from the internal canthus of the eye downwards into the nose: it is situated in the superior maxillary bone, and is lined with the pituitary membrane continued from the nose.

CANĀLIS PETITĪANUS. A triangular cavity, naturally containing a moisture, between the two laminæ of the hyaloid membrane of the eye, in the anterior part, formed by the separation of the anterior lamina from the posterior. It is named after its discoverer, M. Petit.

CANĀLIS VENŌSUS. A canal pe-

culiar to the foetus, disappearing after birth, that conveys the maternal blood from the *porta* of the liver to the ascending *vena cava*.

CANARY BALM. See *Melissa turcica*.

CANCELLI, (*Cancelli, ōrum*, m. pl.). Lattice-work, generally applied to the reticular substance in bones.

CANCER, (*Cancer, ōris*, m.). *Carcinoma*. A painful, hard, indolent tumour of a glandular part, which terminates in the foulest ulcer. Those tumours were so called by the ancients that exhibited large blue veins, like crab's claws: hence the name.

CANCER, (*Cancer, cri*, m. and *canceris*, Lucr.). *Chele cancerorum*. *Oculi cancerorum*. *Lapides cancerorum*. The crab. The shell-fish so called is the *Cancer ostacus* of Linnæus; the officinal preparations are nevertheless obtained also from the *cancer gammarus*, *macurus*, and the *pagarus* of Linnæus. The colleges have retained the *chele cancerorum*, and several compounds of them; as the *pulvis e chelis cancerorum compositus*, the *pulvis contrayerva compositus*, the *trochisci e creta*, and the *confectio aromatica*. Crab's claws, and crab's eyes, as they are called, which are cerebral concretions, are of a calcareous quality, and consequently possess antacid virtues. They are exhibited in pyrosis, diarrhœa, and infantile convulsions from acidity.

CANCERORUM CHELÆ. See *Cancer*.

CANCERORUM OCULI. See *Cancer*.

CANDELARIA. See *Verbascum*.

CANDY CARROT. See *Daucus creticus*.

CANELLA ALBA, (*Canella, æ*, f. dim. of *canna*, a reed; so named because the pieces of bark are rolled up in the form of a reed). Laurel-leaved canella. *Cortex Winteranus spurius*. *Canella alba* of Linnæus. Class. *Dodecandria*. Order. *Mono-*

gynia. The tree which produces the bark so called, is a native of the West Indies. It is brought into Europe in long quills, somewhat thicker than cinnamon; their taste is moderately warm, aromatic, and bitterish; and of an agreeable smell, somewhat resembling that of cloves. *Canella alba* has been supposed to possess considerable medicinal powers in the cure of scurvy and some other complaints. It is now merely considered as a useful and cheap aromatic, and is chiefly employed for the purpose of correcting, and rendering less disagreeable the more powerful and nauseous drugs: it is therefore an ingredient in the *pulvis aloeticus* of the London Pharmacopœia, and in the *tinctura amara*, *vinum amarum*, *vinum rhæi*, &c. of the Edinburgh.

CANELLÆ MALABARICÆ CORTEX. See *Cassia lignea*.

CANINE TEETH. *Dentes canini. Cuspidati*. The four eye-teeth are so called from their resemblance to those of the dog. They are situated, two in each jaw, on the side of the four middle or incisor teeth.

CANINUS, (*Caninus, sc. musculus*; because it arises near the canine or eye-tooth). See *Levator anguli oris*.

CANNÄBIS, (*Cannabis, is, f. καννάβις, or καναβις*; from *καννα*, a reed. *Καννάβις* are fowl springs, wherein hemp, &c. grow naturally. Or from *kanaba*, from *kanab*, to mow. Arab.). Hemp. This plant, *Cannabis sativa* of Linnæus, has a rank smell of a narcotic kind. The effluvia from the fresh herb is said to affect the eyes and head, and that the water in which it has been long steeped is a sudden poison. Hemp seeds, when fresh, afford a considerable quantity of oil. Decoctions and emulsions of them have been recommended against coughs, ardor urinæ, &c.

CANNÄBIS SATIVA. The systematic name of the hemp plant. See *Cannabis*.

CANÜLA, (*Canula, æ, f. dim. of canna, a reed*). A tube adapted to a sharp instrument, with which it is thrust into a cavity or tumour, containing a fluid; the perforation being made, the sharp instrument is withdrawn, and the canula left, in order that the fluid may pass through it.

CANTHÄRĪDES, (*Cantharis, ÿdis, pl. cantharides, um*; from *κανθαρος*, a beetle, to whose tribe it belongs). Spanish flies. *Meloë vesicatorius* of Linnæus. The importance of these flies, by their stimulant, corrosive, and epispastic qualities, in the practice of physic and surgery, is very considerable; indeed, so much so, as to induce many to consider them as the most powerful medicine in the materia medica. When applied on the skin, in the form of a plaster, it soon raises a blister full of serous matter, and thus relieves inflammatory diseases, as phrenitis, pleuritis, hepatitis, phlegmon, bubo, myositis, arthritis, &c. The tincture of these flies is also of great utility in several cutaneous diseases, rheumatic affections, sciatic pains, &c. but ought to be used with much caution.

CANTHUS, (*Canthus, i, m. κανθός, the iron binding of a cart wheel*). The angle or corner of the eye, where the upper and under eyelids meet. That next the nose is termed the internal or greater canthus, and the other, the external or lesser canthus.

CAOUTCHOUC. A name of the elastic gum. See *Indian rubber*.

CAPAIVA BALSAM. See *Balsamum Copaivæ*.

CAPER-BUSH. See *Capparis*.

CAPILLARY VESSELS. (*Vasa capillaria*; from *capillus*, a little hair; so called from their resemblance to hairs or fine threads). The very small ramifications of the arteries, which terminate upon the external surface of the body, or on the surface of internal cavities.

CAPILLUS, (*Capillus, i, m. quasi*

capitis pilus, the hair of the head). The hair. Small, cylindrical, transparent, insensible, and elastic filaments, which arise from the skin, and are fastened in it by means of small roots. The human hair is composed of a spongy, cellular texture, containing a coloured liquid, and a proper covering. Hair is divided into two kinds: *long*, which arises on the scalp, cheek, chin, breasts of men, the anterior parts of the arms and legs, the arm-pits, groins, and pelvis; and *short*, which is softer than the long, is present over the whole body, except only the palm of the hand and sole of the foot. The hair originates in the adipose membrane from an oblong membranous bulb, which has vessels peculiar to it. The hair is distinguished by different names in certain parts: as, *capillus*, on the top of the head; *crinis*, on the back of the head; *circinnus*, on the temples; *cilium*, on the eyelids; *supercilium*, on the eyebrows; *vibrissa*, in the nostrils; *barba*, on the chin; *pappus*, on the middle of the chin; *mustax*, on the upper lip; *pilus*, on the body.

CAPILLUS VENERIS. See *Adiantum*.

CAPPÄRIS, (*Capparis*, f. καππαρίς; from *cabar*, Arab. or καπα το καππαρεν αραν; from its curing madness and melancholy). Common caper bush. The buds or unexpanded flowers of this plant, *Capparis spinosa*; *pedunculis solitariis unifloris*, *stipulis spinosis*, *foliis annuis*, *capsulis ovalibus*, of Linnaeus; Class. *Polyandria*. Order. *Monogynia*; are in common use as a pickle, which is said to possess antiscorbutic virtues. The bark of the root was formerly in high esteem as a deobstruent.

CAPPÄRIS SPINOSA. The systematic name of the caper plant. See *Capparis*.

CAPSICUM ANNUM, (*Carficum*, i, n. καψικον; from καψα, to bite;

on account of the biting heat of the seed and pericarp. Some derive it from *capsa*, a chest; because it was wont to be preserved in chests, or from the likeness of its pods). The systematic name of the plant whose seeds are the basis of Cayenne pepper. See *Peper indicum*.

CAPSÜLA. (*Capsula*, æ, f. dim. of *capsa*, a chest or case). A term given by anatomists to any membranous production enclosing a part of the body like a bag; as the capsular ligaments, the capsule of the crystalline lens, &c.

CAPSÜLÆ ATRABILIARIÆ. See *Renal capsules*.

CAPSÜLÆ RENÄLES. See *Renal capsules*.

CAPSULE OF GLYSSON. *Vagina Glyssonii*. A strong tunic, formed of cellular texture, which accompanies the vena portæ, and its most minute ramifications, throughout the whole liver.

CAPSULAR LIGAMENT, (*Capsularis*; from *capsa*, a bag). *Ligamentum capsulare*. The ligament which surrounds every moveable articulation, and contains the synovia like a bag.

CAPUT, (*Caput*, itis, n. κεφαλή). The head, cranium, or skull, is situated above the trunk, upon the cervical vertebræ. For its bones, see *Bones*. Upon the hairy part are observed the *vertex* or crown, *sinciput* or fore-part, *occiput* or hinder part, and the *temples*. The parts distinguished on the face are well known; as the forehead, nose, eyes, &c. The arteries of the head are branches of the carotids; and the veins empty themselves into the jugulars.

CAPUT GALLINAGINIS (*Gallinago*, ginis, f.). *Verumontanum*. A cutaneous eminence in the urethra, before the neck of the bladder, somewhat like the head of a cock in miniature, around which the feminal ducts, and the ducts of the prostate gland, open.

CAPUT MORTUUM. The dry fæces left in a vessel after the moisture has been distilled from them are so called, because they were supposed to be the dead head, or useless origin of the production.

CAPUT OBSTIPUM. The wry neck. Mostly a spasmodic affection.

CARANNA. *Carannæ gummi.* A concrete resinous juice, that exudes from a large tree, of which we have no particular account. It is brought from New Spain and America, in little masses, rolled up in leaves of flags; externally and internally it is of a brownish colour, variegated with irregular white streaks. When fresh it is soft and tenaceous, but becomes dry and friable by keeping. Pure caranna has an agreeable aromatic smell, especially when heated, and a bitterish slightly pungent taste. It was formerly employed as an ingredient in vulnerary balsams, strengthening, discutient, and suppurating plasters; but its scarcity has caused it to be forgotten.

CARAWAY. See *Carum*.

CARBON, (*Carbōnicum*, i, n. from *carbo*, coal). Pure charcoal. It is the black residue of vegetables, which have suffered a complete decomposition of their volatile principles by fire. Charcoal is black, brittle, sonorous, and light. It is placed among simple bodies, because no experiment has hitherto shown the possibility of decomposing it. It exists in the animal, vegetable, and mineral kingdom. When it is required to procure carbon in a state of great purity, it must be dried by strong ignition in a closed vessel.

CARBONACEOUS ACID. *Acidum carbonicum.* See *Carbonic acid*.

CARBONAS, (*Carbonas, tis*, m.). A carbonat or neutral salt, formed by the union of carbonic acid with an alkaline, earthy, or metallic base. The carbonats employed in medicine are, the *carbonas ammoniacæ crystallifatus*,

see *Ammonia preparata*; the *carbonas ammoniacæ liquidus*, see *Aqua ammoniæ*; the *carbonas barytæ*, see *Terra ponderosa aerata*; the *carbonas calcis*, see *Chelæ cancrorum* and *Testæ ostrearum*; the *carbonas magnesiæ*, see *Magnesiæ alba*; the *carbonas potassæ crystallifatus*, see *Kali preparatum*; the *carbonas potassæ liquidus*, see *Aqua kali*; and the *carbonas sodæ*, see *Alkali minerale aeratum*.

CARBONIC ACID. *Acidum carbonicum.* Carbonaceous acid. Cretaceous acid. Fixed air. Mephitic gaz. Aerial acid. The name of cretaceous acid appears to agree best with this substance, because it is contained in very large quantities in chalk; and there is no other body with which it has so strong an affinity, as with lime, which composes the base of this earthy salt. The carbonic acid possesses all the more obvious qualities of air, and exists in the atmosphere, of which it is a small part. (See *Atmospheric air*). It is found in a state of gaz at *la grotta del Cane*, near Naples; at the well at Perols, near Montpellier; in that of Negrae, in Vivarais; upon the surface of the lake Averno, in Italy; and on those of several springs, in various subterraneous places, such as tombs, cellars, necessaries, &c. It is also disengaged in this form, by the decomposition of vegetables heaped together, by the fermentation of wine or beer, by the putrefaction of animal matters, &c. It exists in the state of simple mixture in most mineral waters, which possess all its acid properties. It exists also in a state of combination in limestone, common magnesia, alkalis, &c. The properties of this acid are various. 1st, It is unfit for respiration:—History informs us, that two slaves, whom Tiberius caused to descend into *la grotta del Cane*, were immediately stifled; and two criminals, that Peter de Toledo caused to be shut in there, suffered the same

fate. The Abbé Nollet, who had the courage to respire the vapour, perceived a suffocating sensation, and a slight degree of acidity, which produced coughing and sneezing. Pilatre de Rozier caused himself to be fastened by cords fixed under his arms, and descended into the gaseous atmosphere of a back of beer in fermentation. He had scarcely entered into the mephitic before slight prickings obliged him to shut his eyes; a violent suffocation prevented him from respiring; he felt a giddiness, accompanied with those noises which characterize apoplexy; and when he was drawn up, his sight remained dim for several minutes; the blood had distended the jugulars; his countenance had become purple; and he neither heard nor spoke, but with great difficulty: all these symptoms, however, disappeared by degrees. It is this gaz which produces the many unhappy incidents at the opening of cellars, in places where wine, cider, or beer, is suffered to ferment. Birds, plunged into the carbonic acid gaz, suddenly perish. The famous lake of Averno, where Virgil placed the entrance of Hell, exhales so large a quantity of carbonic acid, that birds cannot fly over it with impunity. When the waters of Bouldou of Perols are dry, such birds as attempt to quench their thirst in the clefts are enveloped in the mephitic vapour, and die. Frogs, plunged in an atmosphere of carbonic acid, live from 40 to 50 minutes, by suspending their respiration. Insects are rendered torpid after remaining a certain time in this air; but they resume their liveliness the moment they are exposed to the free air. It has been asserted, that this acid suffocates by extinguishing irritability; this, however, is invalidated by the experiments of Morrozo. 2dly, The carbonic acid is improper for vegetation. 3dly, It is heavier than common air; hence it occupies the lowest situations. 4thly,

One of the principal combinations of this acid is with caloric, when it forms the carbonic acid gaz, which possesses all the apparent characteristic properties of air. 5thly, Like air it is invisible and elastic, and when enclosed in a glass vessel, or floating in the atmosphere, it cannot be certainly distinguished from it. Mixed with vital air, which it readily does without suffering any alteration, it may be used as a remedy in phthisis pulmonalis. This mixture will maintain respiration as long as the carbonic acid does not exceed a third part of it. 6thly, It combines with water but very slowly. By shaking them together, so as to bring them as much as possible into contact with one another, they are made to unite and form an acidulous liquor, which Bergman called *aerated water*, possessing a pungent taste, and sparkling upon agitation. This acid solution abounds throughout nature, and is the leading property in many acidulous and gaseous waters, as those of Pyrmont, Seltz, &c. (See *Mineral waters*). Many physicians have greatly extolled this acidulated water in the cure of putrid diseases, and a very excellent machine was invented by Dr. Nooth, for the purpose of impregnating water with carbonic acid. The combination of carbonic acid with lime dissolved in water gives rise to an invariable phenomenon which always indicates the presence of the acid. As soon as it touches the liquid it produces white clouds, which soon thicken and form a plenteous precipitate, which is a carbonate of lime formed by the combination of lime with the carbonic acid. Ammoniacal gaz, and the aeriform carbonic acid brought into contact in a close vessel, produce instantaneously a vacuum, heat, and a thick white cloud, which forms into regular crystals, or a crust at the sides of the vessel. This imperfect neutral salt, or ammoniacal

arbonate, was formerly called the ancrete volatile alkali. It is a very powerful medicine when taken into the stomach, to which it gives energy and tone. (See *Ammoniaca*, ppt.). Carbonic acid has been said to cure cancer; how far this is to be depended upon, is not yet determined. In this kingdom and in France it has had a very extensive trial. After the first application, the cancerous ulcer exhibits a more favorable appearance; the sanies becomes white, consistent, and laudable; the flesh assumes a lively colour: but these flattering appearances do not continue; the ulcer soon returns to its former state, and passes through the usual changes with unabated violence.

CARBUNCLE, (*Carbunculus*, i, m. lim. of *carbo*). An inflammatory tumour which soon becomes gangrenous. See *Anthrax*.

CARCINOMA, (*Carcinoma*, ātis, καρκινωμα; from καρκινω, a cancer, and α, to feed upon). A cancer. See *Cancer*.

CARCINOS, (καρκινω, a cancer). See *Carcinoma*.

CARDAMINE, (*Cardamine*, es, f. καρδαμινω; from καρδια, the heart; because it acts as a cordial and strengthener, or from its having the taste of ardamum that is nasturtium or cress). Common lady's smock, or cuckoo flower. *Cardamine pratensis* of Linnæus. *Cardamine, foliis pinnatis, foliis radicalibus subrotundis, caulinis lanceolatis*. Class. *Tetradynamia*. Order. *Siliquosa*. It is the flower of this plant, which is a native of England, that has a place in the materia medica, upon the authority of Sir George Baker, who has published five cases, two of chorea Sancti Viti, one of spasmodic asthma, an hemiplegia, and a case of spasmodic affections of the lower limbs, wherein the *ores cardamines* were supposed to have been successfully used.

CARDAMINE PRATENSIS. The

systematic name for the plant called *cardamine* in the pharmacopœias. See *Cardamine*.

CARDAMOM. See *Cardamomum*.

CARDĀMŌMUM MĀJUS. A large, brown, somewhat triangular husk, the thickness of one thumb, and pyramidal. The seeds resemble the *grana paradisi*; their virtues are similar to those of the *cardamomum minus*.

CARDĀMŌMUM MEDIUM. The seeds correspond in every respect with the lesser, except in size, they being twice as long, but no thicker than the *cardamomum minus*.

CARDĀMŌMUM MINUS, (*Cardamomum*, i, n. καρδαμωμον; from καρδαμο, and αμωμο; because it partakes of the nature, and is like both the cardamum and amomum). Official cardamom. *Amomum repens, seu le cardamome de la côte de Malabar*, of Sonnerat. Class. *Monandria*. Order. *Monogynia*. The seeds of this plant are imported in their capsules or husks, by which they are preserved, for they soon lose a part of their flavour when freed from this covering. On being chewed, they impart a glowing aromatic warmth, and grateful pungency; they are supposed gently to stimulate the stomach, and prove cordial, carminative, and antispasmodic, but without that irritation and heat which many of the other spicy aromatics are apt to produce. Simple and compound spirituous tinctures are prepared from them, and they are ordered as a spicy ingredient in many of the official compositions.

CARDĪA, (*Cardia*, æ, f. καρδια). So the Greeks called the heart. It is now applied to the superior opening of the stomach.

CARDIACA, (*Cardiaca*; from καρδια, the heart). Cordials. See *Cordials*.

CARDIACA. Motherwort. *Leonurus cardiaca*; *foliis caulinis lanceolatis, trilobis*, of Linnæus. The leaves of this plant have a disagreeable smell

and a bitter taste, and are said to be serviceable in disorders of the stomach of children, to promote the uterine discharge, and to allay palpitation of the heart.

CARDIALGIA, (*Cardialgia*, *æ*, f. καρδιαλγία; from καρδιά, the cardia, and αλγεω, to be pained). The heart-burn. See *Pyrosis*.

CARDINAL-FLOWER, BLUE. See *Lobelia*.

CARDĒTIS, (*Carditis*, *idis*, f. from καρδιά, the heart). Inflammation of the heart. It is a genus of disease arranged by Cullen in the class *pyrexia*, and order *phlegmasia*. It is known by pyrexia, pain in the region of the stomach, great anxiety, difficulty of breathing, cough, irregular pulse, palpitation, and fainting.

CARDOPATIA. See *Chameleon albus*.

CARDŪS, (*Carduus*, *i*, m. a *carere*, *quia aptus carende lanae*, being fit to tease wool). Thistle.

CARDŪS BENĒDICTUS, (*Carduus*, *i*, m.). Blessed or holy thistle. *Centaurea benedicta*; *calycibus duplicato-spinosis lanatis involucrentibus, foliis semidecurrentibus denticulato-spinosis* of Linnæus. Class. *Syngenesia*. Order. *Polygamia frustranea*. This exotic plant obtained the name of benedictus, from its being supposed to possess extraordinary medicinal virtues. In loss of appetite, where the stomach was injured by irregularities, its good effects have been frequently experienced. It is a powerful bitter tonic and astringent.

CARDŪS MARIÆ. The seeds of this plant, *Carduus marianus*; *foliis amplexicaulibus, hastato-pinnatifidis, spinosis; calycibus aphyllis; spinis canaliculatis, duplicato-spinosis*, of Linnæus, and the herb have been employed medicinally. The former contains a bitter oil, and are recommended as relaxants. The juice of the latter is said to be salutary in dropsies, in the dose of four ounces.

CARDŪS MARIANUS. The systematic name of the officinal *carduus maria*.

CARDŪS TOMENTŌSUS. The woolly thistle. The plant distinguished by this name in the pharmacopœias, is the *Onopordium acanthium calycibus squarrosis; squamis patentibus; foliis ovato-oblongis, sinuatis*, of Linnæus. Its expressed juice has been recommended as a cure for cancer, either applied by moistening lint with it, or mixing some simple farinaceous substance, so as to form a poultice, which should be in contact with the disease, and renewed twice a-day.

CAREX, (*Carex*, *icis*, f. from *careo*, not *quia viribus careat*, but because from its roughness it is fit *ad carendum*, to card, tease, or pull). Sedge.

CAREX ARENARIA. The systematic name of the officinal *sarsaparilla germanica*. See *Sarsaparilla germanica*.

CARICA, (*Carica*, *æ*, f. καρικα; from *Carica*, the place where they were cultivated). The fig. The plant which affords this fruit is the *Ficus carica* of Linnæus. *Ficus, foliis palmatis*. Class. *Polygamia*. Order. *Triœcia*. Fresh figs are, when completely ripe, soft, succulent, and easily digested, unless eaten in immoderate quantities, when they are apt to occasion flatulency, pain of the bowels, and diarrhœa. The dried fruit, which is sold in our shops, is pleasanter to the taste, and more wholesome and nutritive. They are directed in the *decoctum hordei compositum*, and in the *electuarium lenitivum*. Applied externally, they promote the suppuration of tumours, hence they have a place in maturing cataplasms and are very convenient to apply to the gums, and, when boiled with milk, to the throat.

CARIES, (*Caries*, *ei*, f.). Rotteness or ulceration of the bones.

CARLINA, or **CAROLINA**, (*Ca*

ina, *ε*, f. from *Carolus*, Charles the Great, or Charlemagne; because it was believed that an angel shewed it to him, and that by the use of it his army was preserved from the plague). The officinal name of two kinds of plants. See *Chamæmelon album*, and *Carlina gummiifera*.

CARLINA ACAULIS. The systematic name of the *chamæmelon albus*.

CARLINA GUMMIFËRA. *Carduus binea*. *Ixine*. Pine thistle. This plant is the *Atractylis gummiifera* of Linnæus. The root, when wounded, yields a milky, viscous juice, which concretes into tenacious masses, at first whitish, resembling wax, when much handled growing black; it is said to be chewed with the same views as mastich.

CARLINE THISTLE. See *Chamæmelon albus*.

CARLO SANCTO RADIX. St. Charles's root; so called by the Spaniards, on account of its great virtues. It is found in Mechoachan, a province in America. Its bark hath an aromatic flavour, with a bitter acrid taste. The root itself consists of slender fibres. The bark is sudorific, and strengthens the gums and stomach.

CARMINATIVE, (*Carminativa*; from *carmen*, a verse or charm; because practitioners in ancient times ascribed their operation to a charm or enchantment). A term applied to those substances, which allay pain, and dispel flatulencies of the primæ viæ.

CARNEÆ COLUMNÆ. The fleshy pillars or columns in the cavities of the heart. See *Heart*.

CAROS. *Carus*. Insensibility and sleepiness, with easy respiration.

CARŌTA. The carrot. See *Daucus*.

CAROTIDES, (*Καρωτιδης*; from *καρπω*, to cause to sleep; so called because if tied with a ligature, they cause the animals to be comatose, and

have the appearance of being asleep). Two considerable arteries that proceed, one on each side of the cervical vertebræ, to the head, and which supply it with blood. The right carotid does not arise immediately from the arch of the aorta, but is given off from the arteria innominata. The left arises from the arch of the aorta. Each carotid is divided into external and internal, or that portion without, and that within the cranium. The external gives off eight branches to the neck and face, viz. *anteriorly*, the superior thyroideal, the sublingual, the inferior maxillary, the external maxillary; *posteriorly*, the internal maxillary, the occipital, the external auditory, and the temporal. The internal carotid or cerebral artery, gives off four branches within the cavity of the cranium; the anterior cerebral, the posterior, the central artery of the optic nerve, and the internal orbital.

CARPATĦICUS BALSĀMUS. *Oleum Germanis*. *Carpathicum*. This balsam is obtained both by wounding the young branches of the *Pinus cembra*, *foliis quinis*, *lavibus*, of Linnæus, and by boiling them. It is mostly diluted with turpentine, and comes to us in a very liquid and pellucid state, rather white.

CARPIA. Lint. See *Lint*.

CARPOBALSĀMUM, (*Carpobalsamum*, *i*, n. from *καρπος*, fruit, and *βάλσαμον*, balsam). The fruit of the balsam tree, *Amyris gileadensis* of Linnæus. See *Balsamum gileadense*.

CARPUS, (*Carpus*, *i*, m. *καρπος*, the wrist). The wrist, or carpus. It is situated between the fore arm and hand. See *Bones*.

CARROT. See *Daucus*.

CARROT, CANDY. See *Daucus creticus*.

CARTHĀMUS, (*Carthamus*, *i*, m. *καρθιμος*; from *καθαίρω*, to purge). *Safflower*. *Carthamus tinctorius*; *foliis ovatis*, *integris*, *serrato-aculeatis*,

of Linnæus. This plant is cultivated in many places on account of its flowers, which are used as a yellow dye. The seeds, freed from their shells, have been celebrated as a gentle cathartic. The dried flowers are frequently mixed with saffron, to adulterate it.

CARTHAMUS TINCTORIUS. The systematic name of the safflower plant. See *Carthamus*.

CARTILAGE, (*Cartilāgo, gēnis, f. quasi carnilago*; from *caro, carnis, flesh*). A white, elastic, glistening substance, growing to bones, and commonly called *gristle*. Cartilages are divided by anatomists into *obducent*, which cover the moveable articulations of bones; *inter-articular*, which are situated between the articulations, and *uniting* cartilages, which unite one bone with another. Their use is to lubricate the articulations of bones, and to connect some bones by an immoveable connexion.

CARTILĀGO ANNULĀRIS. See *Annular cartilage*, and *Cartilago cricoidea*.

CARTILĀGO ARYTĒNOIDĒA. See *Arytenoid cartilage*.

CARTILĀGO CRICOIDĒA. The cricoid cartilage belongs to the larynx, and is situated between the thyroid and arytenoid cartilages and the trachea; it constitutes, as it were, the basis of the many annular cartilages of the trachea.

CARTILĀGO ENSIFORMIS. *Cartilago Xyphoidea*. Ensiiform process. A cartilage shaped somewhat like a sword or dagger, attached to the lowermost part of the sternum, just at the pit of the stomach.

CARTILĀGO SCUTIFORMIS. See *Thyroid cartilage*.

CARTILĀGO THYROIDĒA. See *Thyroid cartilage*.

CARTILĀGO XYPOIDĒA. See *Cartilago ensiformis*.

CARUM, (*Carum, i, n.*). See *Caruon*.

CARUM CARVI. The systematic name for the plant whose seeds are called caraways. See *Caruon*.

CARUNCLE; (*Carunculus, i, m.* a diminutive of *caro, flesh*). Little fleshy excrescences; as the *caruncula myrtiformes*, *carunculæ lachrymales*, &c.

CARUNCULA LACHRYMALIS. A long tubercle, conoidal, and red externally, situated in the internal canthus of each eye, before the union of the eyelids. It appears to be formed of numerous sebaceous glands, from which many small hairs grow. The hardened smegma, observable in this part of the eye in the morning, is separated by this caruncle.

CARUNCULÆ MYRTIFORMES.—When the hymen has been lacerated by attrition, there remains in its place two, three, or four caruncles, which have received the name of myrtiform.

CARUNCULÆ PAPILLĀRES. The protuberances within the pelvis of the kidney, formed by the papillous substance of the kidney.

CARUON, (*Caruon, i, n. καρος*; so named from *Caria*, a province of Asia). *Carum seu careum*. Common caraway. *Carum carui* of Linnæus. Class. *Pentandria*. Order. *Digynia*. Caraway seeds are well known to have a pleasant spicy smell, and a warm aromatic taste, and, on this account, are used for various economical purposes. They are esteemed to be carminative, cordial, and stomachic, and recommended in dyspepsia, flatulencies, and other symptoms attending hysterical and hypochondriacal disorders. An essential oil and distilled water are directed to be prepared from them by the London college.

CARUS, (*Carus, i, m. καρος*, a lethargy). *Caros*. 1. Insensibility and sleepiness, with quiet respiration. 2. A loss of sense and voluntary motion, respiration uninjured. 3. A profound sleep, without fever.

CARYOPHYLLATA, (*Caryophylla-*

ι, ιϖ, f. *καρυοφυλλοειδής*: from *καρυοφυλλοειδής*, the caryophyllus; so named because it smells like the caryophyllus, or clove July flower). Avens, or herb-bennet. The root of this plant, *Geum urbanum floribus erectis, fructibus lobosis villosis, aristis uncinatis nudis, foliis lyratis*, of Linnæus, has been employed as a gentle styptic, corroborant, and stomachic. It has a mildly austere, somewhat aromatic taste, and a very pleasant smell, of the clove kind. It is also esteemed on the continent as a febrifuge.

CARYOPHYLLOIDES CORTEX.—
Culilawan.

CARYOPHYLLUM, (*Caryophyllum*, n. *καρυοφυλλοειδής*; from *καρυο*, a nut, and *φυλλοειδής*, a leaf; so named because it smells like the leaves of the Indian nut or clove tree.

CARYOPHYLLUM AROMATICUM. The clove. The tree which affords this spice is the *Caryophyllus aromaticus, foliis ovato-lanceolatis oppositis, floribus torminalibus*. Mill. Dict. Class. *Polyandria*. Order. *Monogynia*, and grows in the East Indies, the Moluccas, &c. The clove is the unexpanded flower, or rather the calyx; it has a strong agreeable smell, and a bitterish, hot, not very pungent, taste. The oil of cloves, commonly met with in the shops and received from the Dutch, is highly acrimonious, and sophisticated. Clove is accounted the hottest and most acrid of the aromatics, and by acting as a powerful stimulant to the muscular fibres, may in some cases of atonic gout, paralysis, &c. supersede most others of the aromatic class; and the foreign oil, by its great acrimony, is also well adapted for several external purposes: it is directed by several pharmacopœias, and the clove itself enters many official preparations.

CARYOPHYLLUM RUBRUM.—
Clove pink. Clove gilliflower. Clove July flower. This fragrant plant, *Dianthus caryophyllus, floribus solita-*

riis, squamis calycinis subovatis brevissimis, corollis crenatis, of Linnæus, Class. *Decandria*. Order. *Digynia*—grows wild in several parts of England; but the flowers, which are pharmaceutically employed, are usually produced in gardens: they have a pleasant aromatic smell, somewhat allied to that of clove spice; their taste is bitterish and subadstringent. These flowers were formerly in extensive use, but are now merely employed in form of syrup, as a useful and pleasant vehicle for other medicines.

CARYOPHYLLUS AROMATICUS. The systematic name of the clove tree. See *Caryophyllum aromaticum*.

CASCARILLÆ CORTEX, (*Cascarilla*, a, f. dim of *cascara*, the bark or shell. Span.). *Chocarilla*. *Eluthe-ria*. *Eluteria*. The tree that affords this bark is the *Clusia eluteria, foliis cordato-lanceolatis*. Class. *Dioecia*. Order. *Pentandria*. Cascarilla comes to us in quills, covered upon the outside with a rough, whitish matter, and brownish on the inner side, exhibiting, when broken, a smooth, close, blackish brown surface. It has a lightly agreeable smell, and a moderately bitter taste, accompanied with a considerable aromatic warmth. It is a very excellent tonic, adstringent, and stomachic, and is deserving of a more general use than it has hitherto met with.

CASHEW NUT. See *Anacardium occidentale*.

CASSAVA. *Cassada*. The leaves of this poisonous plant, *Jatropha manihot* of Linnæus, a native of America, are boiled, and eaten as we do spinage. The root abounds with a milky juice, and every part, when raw, is a fatal poison. It is remarkable that the poisonous quality is destroyed by heat: hence the juice is boiled with meat, pepper, &c. into a wholesome soup, and what remains after expressing the juice, is formed

into cakes or meal, the principal food of the inhabitants.

CASSADA. See *Cassava*.

CASSIA, (*Cassia*, α, f. κασσία; from the Arabic *katfia*, which is from *kat-fa*, to tear off: so called from the act of stripping the bark from the tree). The pulp of the *cassia fistularis* is generally termed *cassia*. See *Cassia fistularis*.

CASSIA CARYOPHYLLATA. Clove bark tree. The bark of this tree, *Myrtus caryophyllata*; *pedunculis trifido-multifloris, foliis obvatis*, of Linnæus, is a warm aromatic, of the smell of clovespice, but weaker, and with a little admixture of the cinnamon flavour. It may be used with the same views as cloves or cinnamon.

CASSIA FISTULA. The systematic name of the purging cassia. See *Cassia fistularis*.

CASSIA FISTULARIS, (*Cassia*, α, f. Heb.). Purging cassia. This tree, *Cassia fistula* of Linnæus (*Cassia foliis quinquejugis ovatis acuminatis glabris, petiolis eglandulatis*. Class. *Decandria*. Order. *Monogynia*), is a native of both Indies. The pods of the East India cassia are of less diameter, smoother, and afford a blacker, sweeter, and more grateful pulp, than those which are brought from the West Indies. Those pods which are the heaviest, and in which the seeds do not rattle on being shaken, are commonly the best, and contain the most pulp, which is the part medicinally employed, and to be obtained in the manner described in the pharmacopœias. The best pulp is of a bright shining black colour, and of a sweet taste, with a slight degree of acidity. It has been long used as a laxative medicine, and being gentle in its operation, and seldom disturbing the bowels, is well adapted to children and pregnant women. The officinal preparation of this drug is, *electuarium è cassia*; it is also an ingredient in the *electuarium è senna*.

CASSIÆ FLORES. What are called cassia flowers in the shops, are the flowers of the true cinnamon tree, *Laurus cinnamomum* of Linnæus. They possess aromatic and adstringent virtues; and may be successfully employed in decoctions, &c. in all cases where cinnamon is recommended. See *Cinnamonium*.

CASSIA LIGNEA. *Cortex canella malabarica*. Cassia lignea is the bark of the *Laurus cassia*; *foliis triplinerviis lanceolatis*, of Linnæus, whose leaves are called *folia malabathri* in the shops. The bark and leaves abound with the flavour of cinnamon, for which they may be substituted; but in much larger doses, as they are considerably weaker.

CASSIA, PURGING. See *Cassia fistularis*.

CASSIA SENNA. The systematic name of the plant which in Alexandria affords what is termed Alexandrian senna, and in Italy, the *senna italica*. See *Senna*.

CASSUMUNIAR, (*Cassumuniar*, n. Ind. of uncertain derivation, perhaps Indian). *Casumunar*. *Risagon*. *Bengale*. The root, occasionally exhibited under one of these names, is brought from the East Indies. It comes over in irregular slices of various forms, some cut transversely, others longitudinally. The cortical part is marked with circles of a dusky brown colour: the internal part is paler, and unequally yellow. It possesses moderately warm, bitter, and aromatic qualities, and a smell like ginger. It is recommended in hysterical, epileptic, and paralytic affections.

CASTANEA, (*Castanea*, καστανή; from Castana, a city in Thessaly, whence they were brought). The common chestnut. The fruit of this plant, *Fagus castanea*; *foliis lanceolatis, acuminato-ferratis, subtus nudis*, of Linnæus, are much esteemed as an article of luxury, after dinner.

Toasting renders them more easy of digestion; but, notwithstanding, they must be considered as improper for weak stomachs. They are moderately nourishing, as containing sugar and much farinaceous substance.

CASTOR. See *Castoreum rufficum*.

CASTOR OIL. *Oleum ricini*. See *Ricinus*.

CASTOR, RUSSIAN. See *Castoreum rufficum*.

CASTOREUM RUSSICUM, (*Castoreum*, i, n. from *κασωρ*, the beaver, *quasi γασωρ*; from *γαστρ*, the belly, because of the largeness of its belly; or *à castrando*, because he is said to castrate himself in order to escape the hunters). *Castoreum*. Russian castor. *Castor fiber* of Linnæus, an amphibious quadruped inhabiting some parts of Prussia, Russia, Germany, Canada, &c. The name of *castoreum* is given to two bags, situated in the inguinal regions of the male beaver, which contain a very odorous substance, soft, and almost fluid when recently cut from the animal, but which dries, and assumes a resinous consistence in process of time. This substance has an acrid, bitter, and a nauseous taste; its smell is strong, aromatic, and even foetid. It is used medicinally as a powerful antispasmodic in hysterical and hypochondriacal affections, and in convulsions. It has also been successfully administered in epilepsy and tetanus.

CASTRATION, (*Castratio*, *ōnis*, f.). A surgical operation by which a testicle is removed from the body.

CATALEPSY, (*Catalepsis*, i, f. from *καταλαμβάνειν*, to seize, to hold). A sudden suppression of motion and sensation, the body remaining in the same posture that it was in when seized.

CATAMENIA, (*Catamenia*, *e*, f. *καταμηνια*; from *κατα*, according to, and *μην*, the month). *Menses*. The monthly discharge of blood from the uterus of females, between the ages of 16 and 50. Many have question-

ed whether the catamenial discharge arose from a mere rupture of vessels, or whether it was owing to a secretory action. There can be little doubt of the truth of the latter. The secretory organ is composed of the arterious vessels situated in the fundus of the uterus. The dissection of women who have died during the time of their menstruating, proves this. Sometimes, though very rarely, women, during pregnancy, menstruate; and when this happens, the discharge takes place from the arterial vessels of the vagina. During pregnancy and lactation, when the person is in good health, the catamenia, for the most part, cease to flow. The quantity a female menstruates each time is very varied; depending on climate, and a variety of other circumstances. It is commonly in England from five to six ounces: it rarely exceeds eight. Its duration is from three to four, and sometimes, though rarely, five days. With respect to the nature of the discharge, it differs very much from pure blood; it never coagulates; but is sometimes grumous, and membranes like the decidua are formed in difficult menstruations: in some women it always smells rank and peculiar; in others it is inodorous. The use of this monthly secretion is to render the uterus fit for the conception and nutrition of the foetus; therefore girls rarely conceive before the catamenia appear, and women rarely after their entire cessation; but very easily after menstruation.

CATAPHORA, (*Cataphora*, *καταφορα*; from *καταφέρω*, to make sleepy). *Coma somnolentum*. A preternatural propensity to sleep.

CATAPLASM, (*Cataplasma*, *ātis*, n. *καταπλάσμα*; from *καταπλάσσω*, to spread like a plaster). A poultice.

CATAPLASMA ALUMINIS. This application was formerly used to inflammation of the eyes, which was kept up from weakness of the vessels;

it is now seldom used, a solution of alum being mostly substituted.

CATAPLASMA CUMINI. This is a warm and stimulating poultice, and was formerly much used as an irritating antiseptic application to gangrenous ulcers, and the like. It is now seldom ordered.

CATAPLASMA SINAPĒOS. Mustard poultices are often applied to the soles of the feet in fevers, where there is a great determination of blood to the head. They are also applied under other circumstances, where a stimulus is wanted.

CATAPUTĪA, (*Cataputia*, *æ*, *f.* καταπυτία; from καταπύθω, to have an ill savour; or from the Italian *cacapuzza*, which has the same meaning: so named from its fœtid smell). Spurge.

CATAPUTĪA MAJOR. See *Ricinus*.

CATAPUTĪA MĪNOR. The plant so called in the pharmacopœias, is the *Euphorbia lathyris*; *umbella quadrifida, dichotoma, foliis oppositis integerrimis*, of Linnæus. The seeds possess purgative properties; but if exhibited in an over dose, prove drastic and poisonous, a quality peculiar to all the *euphorbiæ*.

CATARACT, (*Cataracta*, *æ*, *f.* καταράκτα; from καταρᾶσσω, to confound or disturb; because the sense of vision is confounded, if not destroyed). See *Caligo*.

CATARRHUS, (*Catarrhus*, *i*, *m.* καταρῥῆς, a defluxion; from καταρρεω, to flow down). *Coryza*. A catarrh. An increased secretion of mucus from the membranes of the nose, fauces, and bronchiæ, with pyrexia, and attended with sneezing, cough, thirst, lassitude, and want of appetite. It is a genus of disease in the class *pyrexia*, and order *profluvia*, of Cullen. There are two species of catarrh, viz. *catarrhus à frigore*, which is very common, and is called a cold in the head; and *catarrhus à contagione*, the influ-

enza, which sometimes seizes a whole city. Catarrh is also symptomatic of several other diseases.

CATĒCHU, (*Catechu*, *n.* Ind. It is said, that, in the Japanese language, *kate* signifies a tree, and *chu*, juice). *Terra japonica*. Japan earth. An extract prepared in India from the juice of the *Mimosa catechu spinis stipularibus, foliis bipinnatis multijugis, glandulis partialium singulis, spicis axillaribus geminis seu ternis pedunculatis*, of Linnæus, Class. *Polygamia*. Order. *Monoecia*; by boiling the wood and evaporating the decoction by the heat of the sun. In its purest state, it is a dry, pulverable substance, outwardly of a reddish colour, internally of a shining dark brown, tinged with a reddish hue; in the mouth it discovers considerable astringency, succeeded by a sweetish mucilaginous taste. It may be advantageously employed for most purposes where an astringent is indicated, and is particularly useful in alvine fluxes where astringents are required. Besides this, it is employed also in uterine profluvia, in laxity and debility of the viscera in general; and it is an excellent topical astringent, when suffered to dissolve leisurely in the mouth, for laxities and ulcerations of the gums, aphthous ulcers in the mouth, and similar affections. This extract is the basis of several formulæ in our pharmacopœias, particularly of a tincture and an extract: but one of the best forms under which it can be exhibited, is that of a simple infusion in warm water with a proportion of cinnamon, for by this means it is at once freed of its impurities and improved by the addition of the aromatic. Fourcroy says that catechu is prepared from the seeds of a kind of palm, called *areca*.

CATHARTICS, (*Cathartica*, *sc. medicamenta*, καθαρτικά; from καθάρω, to purge). Those medicines, which taken internally increase the number

of alvine evacuations. The different articles referred to this class of medicines are divided into five orders: 1. *Stimulating cathartics*, as *jalap*, *aloes*, and *bitter apple*, which are well calculated to discharge accumulations of serum, and are mostly selected for indolent and phlegmatic habits, and those who are hard to purge. 2. *Refrigerating cathartics*, as *Glauber salts*, *Epsom salts*, *sal polychrest*, and *cremor tartar*. These are better adapted for plethoric habits, and those with an inflammatory diathesis. 3. *Adstringent cathartics*, as *rhubarb* and *damaſk roses*, which are mostly given to those whose bowels are weak and irritable, and subject to diarrhœa. 4. *Emollient cathartics*, as *manna*, *malva*, *castor oil*, and *olive oil*, which may be given in preference to other cathartics to children and the very aged. 5. *Narcotic cathartics*, as *tobacco*, *hyosciamus*, and *digitalis*. This order is never given but to the very strong and indolent, and to maniacal patients, as their operation is very powerful.

CATHETER, (*Catheter*, καθητης; from καθιζειν, to thrust into). A long and hollow tube, that is introduced by surgeons into the urinary bladder, to remove the urine when the person is unable to pass it. They are either made of silver or of the elastic gum. That for the male urethra is much longer than that for the female, and is curved, if made of silver, as to adapt itself to the urethra.

CATHETERISMUS, (*Catheterismus*, m. καθητησμος; from καθητηρ, a catheter). The term given by P. Ægieta to the operation of introducing the catheter.

CATMINT. See *Nepeta*.

CAUDA, (*Cauda*, æ, f. from cado, to fall; because it hangs or falls down behind). A tail.

CAUDA EQUINA. The spinal marrow, at its termination about the second lumbar vertebra, gives off a large number of nerves, which, when un-

ravelled, resemble the horse's tail; hence the name.

CAUDA EQUINA. See *Equisetum*.

CAUL. The English name for the omentum. See *Omentum*.

CAULIFLOWER. A species of brassica, whose flower is cut before the frutification expands. The observations which have been made concerning cabbages are applicable here. Cauliflower is, however, a far more delicious vegetable.

CAUSTIC ALKALI.

CAUSTIC BARLEY. See *Cevadilla*.

CAUSTICS, (*Causlica*, sc. medica-menta, καυσικα; from καω, to burn; because they always produce a burning sensation). See *Escharotics*.

CAUSTICUM ANTIMONIÆ. See *Antimonium muriatum*.

CAUSTICUM COMMUNE FORTIUS. See *Calx cum kali puro*.

CAUSTICUM LUNARE. See *Argentum nitratum*.

CAUTERY, (*Cauterium*, i, n. καυτηριον; from καω, to burn). Cauteries were divided by the ancients into *actual* and *potential*; but the term is now given only to the red hot iron, or *actual cautery*.

CAVA. See *Vena cava ascendens* and *descendens*.

CAYENNE PEPPER. See *Piper indicum*.

CEDAR. See *Cedrinum lignum*.

CEDRINUM LIGNUM. Cedar of Lebanon. An odoriferous wood, more fragrant than that of the fir, but possessing similar virtues.

CELANDINE. See *Chelidonium majus*.

CELERY. See *Apium*.

CELLULAR MEMBRANE. *Membrana cellulosa*. *Tela cellulosa*. The cellular structure, composed of laminæ and fibres variously joined together, which is the connecting medium of every part of the body. It is by means of the communication of the cells of this membrane that the butch-

ers blow up their veal. The cellular membrane is by some anatomists distinguished into the reticular and adipose membrane. The former is evidently dispersed throughout the whole body, except the substance of the brain. It makes a bed for the other solids of the body, covers them all, and unites them one to another. The adipose membrane consists of the reticular substance and a particular apparatus for the secretion of oil, and is mostly found immediately under the skin of many parts, and about the kidneys.

CENTAURĒA BEHEN. The systematic name of the officinal *behen album*. See *Behen album*.

CENTAURĒA BENEDICTA. The systematic name of the blessed thistle. See *Carduus benedictus*.

CENTAURĒA CALCITRAPA. The systematic name of the calcitrapa. See *Calcitrapa*.

CENTAURĒA CYANUS. The systematic name of the plant which affords the *flores cyani*. See *Cyanus*.

CENTAURIUM, (*Centaurium*, i. n. *κενταύριον*; from *κενταυρος*, a centaur: so called because it was feigned that Chiron cured Hercules's foot, which he had wounded with a poisonous arrow, with it). The herb centaury.

CENTAURIUM MINUS, (*Centaurium*, i. n. from *κενταυρος*, a centaur). Centaury. *Gentiana centaurium* of Linnæus and Hudson. *Gentiana corollis quinquifidis infundibuliformibus, caule dichotomo, pistilli simplici*. Class. *Pentandria*. Order. *Monogynia*, and *Chironia centaurium* of Withering and Curtis. This plant is justly esteemed to be the most efficacious bitter of all the medicinal plants indigenous to this country. It has been recommended by Cullen as a substitute for gentian, and by several is thought to be a more useful medicine. The tops of the centaury plant are directed for use by the colleges of London and Edinburgh, and are most commonly

given in infusion; but they may also be taken in powder, or prepared into an extract.

CENTAURY. See *Centaurium minus*.

CENTRUM OVĀLE. When the two hemispheres of the brain are removed on a line with the level of the *corpus callosum*, the internal medullary part presents a somewhat oval centre; hence it is called *centrum ovale*. Vieussenius supposed all the medullary fibres met at this place.

CENTRUM TENDINŌSUM. The tendinous centre of the diaphragm is so called. See *Diaphragm*.

CENTUMNODIA, (*Centumnodia*, æ, f. from *centum*, a hundred, and *nodus*, a knot; so called from its many knots or joints). Common knot-grass. This plant, *Polygonum aviculare*; *floribus octandris trigynis axillaribus, foliis lanceolatis, caule procumbente herbaceo*, of Linnæus, is never used in this country; it is said to be useful in stopping hæmorrhages, diarrhœas, &c. but little credit is to be given to what is said of it.

CEPA, (*Cepa*, æ, f. from *κεφαλος*, a woolcard; from the likeness of its roots). The onion. This bulbous root belongs to the *Allium cepa*; *scapo nudo inferne ventricoso longiore, foliis teretibus*, of Linnæus. Onions are acrid and stimulating, and possess very little nutriment. With bilious constitutions they generally produce flatulency, thirst, head-ach, and febrile symptoms; but where the temperament is phlegmatic they are of infinite service, by stimulating the habit and promoting the natural secretions, particularly expectoration and urine. They are recommended in scorbutic cases, as possessing anti-scorbutic properties. Externally, onions are employed in suppurating poulices, and suppression of urine in children is said to be relieved by applying them, roasted, to the pubes.

CEPHALALGIA, (*Cephalalgia*, æ,

f. κεφαλαλγια, from κεφαλη, the head, and αλγος, pain). Pain in the head.

CEPHALICS, (*Cephalica*, sc. *medicamenta*, κεφαλικά; from κεφαλη, the head). Remedies that relieve disorders of the head.

CEPHALĪTIS, (*Cephalitis*, ἰdis, f. from κεφαλη, the head). Inflammation of the head. See *Phrenitis*.

CEPHALIC VEIN. *Vena cephalica*. (So called, because the head was supposed to be relieved by opening it). The anterior vein of the arm that receives the cephalic of the thumb.

CEPHALO-PHARYNGEUS. See *Constrictor pharyngis superior*.

CERA, (*Gera*, α, f. wax). Wax. Bees wax. A solid concrete substance, collected from vegetables by bees; and extracted from their combs after the honey is got out, by heating and pressing them. With rectified spirit it forms, by the assistance of heat, a gelatinous liquid. It is perfectly insoluble in watery liquors. When melted, it assumes the appearance of oil, and in this state is easily combined with oils and liquid fats. It is very inflammable, and burns totally away. In the state in which it is obtained from the combs, it is called yellow wax, *cera flava*, and this, when new, is of a lively yellow colour, somewhat tough, yet easy to break: by age it loses its fine colour, and becomes harder and more brittle. Yellow wax, after being reduced into thin cakes, and bleached by a long exposure to the sun and open air, is again melted, and formed into round cakes, called virgin's wax, or white wax, *cera alba*. The chief medicinal use of wax, is in plasters, unguents, and other like external applications, partly for giving the requisite consistence to other ingredients, and partly on account of its own emollient quality.

CERĀSA NĪGRA, (*Ceresa*, α, f. κερασος, the cherry tree: from κερασον, a town in Pontus, whence Lucullus first brought them to Rome; or from καρς, the heart; from its resemblance

to it in shape and colour). The black cherry. The ripe fruit of the *Prunus avium*; *umbellis sessilibus, foliis ovato-lanceolatis, subtus pubescentibus, conduplicatis*, of Linnæus. The flavour of these is esteemed by many, and if not taken in too large quantities they are extremely salutary. A gum exudes from the tree, whose properties are similar to those of gum arabic.

CERĀSA RUBRA. The red cherry. The ripe fruit of the *Prunus cerasus*; *umbellis subpedunculatis, foliis ovato-lanceolatis glabris conduplicatis*, of Linnæus. This species possesses a pleasant, acidulated, sweet flavour, and is extremely proper in fevers, scurvy, and bilious obstructions. Red cherries are mostly eaten as a luxury, and are very wholesome, except to those whose bowels are remarkably irritable.

CERATE, (*Ceratum*, i, n.). A composition something harder than ointment, and softer than plaster.

CERATO-GLOSSUS. See *Hयोगlossus*.

CERATONĪA SILĪQUA. The systematic name of the plant which affords the sweet-pod. See *Siliqua dulcis*.

CERĀTUM ALBUM. See *Ceratum spermatis ceti*.

CERĀTUM CANTHARĪDIS. This is a much milder preparation than the unguentum cantharidis, and is applied to keep up a discharge from blisters, where the skin is very irritable, and a milder stimulus wanted.

CERĀTUM CITRĪNUM. See *Ceratum resinæ flavæ*.

CERĀTUM EPULOTĪCUM. See *Ceratum lapidis calaminaris*.

CERĀTUM LAPĪDIS CALAMINĀRIS. The old name of this was Turner's cerate, and *ceratum epuloticum*. It is calculated to promote the cicatrification of ulcers.

CERĀTUM LITHARGYRI ACETĀTI. This is recommended as a proper application to superficial ulcers, which are inflamed.

CERĀTUM RESINÆ FLAVÆ. *Ceratum citrinum*. This is merely a milder application than the *unguentum resinæ flavæ*.

CERĀTUM SAPŌNIS. Soap cerate is often applied round a fractured bone, it possessing a convenient degree of adhesiveness, and at the same time the usual properties of a saturnine remedy.

CERĀTUM SPERMĀTIS CĒTI.— This preparation was formerly called *ceratum album*. It is an extremely mild and unctuous application, and may be applied with advantage to all ulcers, where no stimulating substance can be applied.

CERĒBELLUM, (*Cerebellum*, *i*, *n*. dim. of *cerebrum*). The little brain or cerebellum. A round viscus, of the same use as the brain; composed, like the brain, of a cortical and medullary substance, divided by a septum into a right and left lobe, and situated under the tentorium, in the inferior occipital fossæ. In the cerebellum are to be observed the *crura cerebelli*, the fourth ventricle, the *valvula magna cerebri*, and the *protuberantæ vermiformes*.

CERĒBRUM, (*Cerebrum*, *i*, *n*. quasi *carabrum*; from *καφα*, the head). The brain. A large round viscus, divided superiorly into a *right* and *left hemisphere*, and inferiorly into *six lobes*, two anterior, two middle, and two posterior; situated within the cranium, and surrounded by the dura and pia mater, and tunica arachnoides. It is composed of a *cortical substance*, which is external; and a *medullary*, which is internal. It has three *cavities* called *ventricles*; two anterior or lateral, which are divided from each other by the *septum ligidum*, and in which is the *choroid plexus*, formed of blood-vessels; the third ventricle is a space between the thalami nervorum opticom. The principal prominences of the brain are, the *corpus callosum*, a medullary eminence,

conspicuous upon laying aside the hemispheres of the brain; the *corpora striata*, two striated protuberances, one in the anterior part of each lateral ventricle; the *thalami nervorum opticom*, two whitish eminencies behind the former, which terminate in the optic nerves; the *corpora quadrigemina*, four medullary projections called by the ancients *nates* and *testes*; a little cerebriate tubercle lying upon the nates, called the *pineal gland*; and lastly, the *crura cerebri*, two medullary columns which proceed from the basis of the brain to the *medulla oblongata*. The cerebriate arteries are branches of the carotid and vertebral arteries. The veins of the head are called *sinusses*, which return their blood into the internal jugulars. The use of the brain is to give off nine pairs of nerves, through whose means the various senses are performed, and muscular motion excited.

CERCŌSIS, (*Cercosis*, *is*, *f*. *κερως*; from *κερως*, a tail). A polypus of the uterus. It is sometimes applied to an enlargement of the clitoris.

CEREALĪA, (*Cerealīa*, *ium*, *n*. pl. Solemn feasts to the goddess Ceres). All sorts of corn, of which bread or any nutritious substance is made, come under the head of *cerealīa*, which term is applied by bromatologists as a genus.

CEREFOLIUM, (*Cerefolium*, *i*, *n*. a corruption of *chærophylum*). *Chærophylum*. *Chæresolium*. Chervil. This plant, *Scandix cerefolium*; *seminibus nitidis, ovato-subulatis; umbellis sessilibus, lateralibus*, of Linnaeus, is a salubrious culinary herb, sufficiently grateful both to the palate and stomach, slightly aromatic, gently aperient, and diuretic.

CERĒI MEDICĀTI. Bougies. See *Bougies*.

CERŪMEN AURIUM, (*Cerumen*, *inis*, *n*. dim. of *cera*, wax). The waxy secretion of the ears, situated in the meatus auditorius externus.

CERUSSA, (*Cerussa*, *a*, *f*. *κερως*—

σα; from *κηρός*, wax, or from *razas*, Arab.). Ceruse. White lead. This preparation is the acetous oxyd of lead in the new chemical nomenclature, *oxydum plumbi album acetatum*: it is sometimes employed medicinally, in form of powder and ointment, to children whose skin is fretted. It should, however, be used cautiously, as there is great reason to believe that complaints of the bowels of children originate from its absorption.

CERUSSA ACETATA. *Saccharum saturni*. Sugar of lead. This is an acetite of lead, and therefore called *acetis plumbi* in the new chemical nomenclature. It possesses adstringent and sedative powers, and is given internally, in very small doses, in hæmorrhagic complaints. Great attention should be paid to keeping the bowels open during its exhibition, for it otherwise produce the *colica pictorum*. Externally, it is employed as a powerful resolvent in inflammatory affections.

CERVICAL, (*Cervicalis*; from *cervix*, the neck). Belonging to the neck; as cervical nerves, cervical muscles, &c.

CERVICAL ARTERIES. *Arterie cervicales*. Branches of the subclavians.

CERVIX, (*Cervix*, *icis*, f.). The hinder part of the neck.

CETERACH, (*Ceterach*. Blanchard says this word is corrupted from *Pteryga*, *πτερυγῆς*, q. v. as *peteryga*, *ceteriga*, and *ceterach*). *Scolopendria vera*. *Dorodilla*? Spleenwort. Miltwaste. This small bushy plant, *Asplenium ceterach*; *frondibus pinnatifidis, lobis alternis confluentibus obtusis*, of Linnæus, grows upon old walls and rocks. It has an herbaceous, mucilaginous, roughish taste, and is recommended as a pectoral. In Spain it is given, with great success, in nephritic and calculous diseases.

CEVADILLA, (*Cevadilla*, *a*, f. dim. of *ceveda*, barley. Spanish). *Ceva-*

dilla hispanorum. *Sevadilla*. *Sabadilla*. *Hordeum causticum*. Indian caustic barley. The plant whose seeds are thus denominated is a species of *veratrum*: they are powerfully caustic, and are administered with very great success as a vermifuge.

CEYENNE PEPPER. See *Piper indicum*.

CHÆREFOLIUM. See *Cerrefolium*.

CHÆROPHYLLUM, (*Charophyllum*, *i*, n. *χαίροφυλλον*; from *χαίρο*, to rejoice, and *φυλλον*, a leaf; so called from the abundance of its leaves).

CHÆROPHYLLUM SYLVESTRE. See *Cicutaria*.

CHACARILLÆ CORTEX. See *Cascarilla*.

CHALAZION, (*Chalazion*, *i*, n. *χαλαζιον*; from *χαλαζα*, a hail-stone). *Chalaza*. *Grando*. An indolent, moveable tubercle on the margin of the eyelid, like a hail-stone.

CHALK. *Creta*. *Carbōnas calcis*. Pure chalk is a neutral salt, formed by the union of the cretaceous acid with lime. It is much used as an absorbent and antacid, to stop diarrhœas accompanied with acidity of the primæ viæ.

CHALK. See *Creta*.

CHALYBEATE, (*Chalybeata*, *sc. medicamenta*; from *chalybs*, steel). Of or belonging to iron. A term given to any medicine into which iron enters; as chalybeate mixture, pills, waters, &c.

CHALYBEATE WATER. *Aqua chalybeata*. Any mineral water which abounds with iron; these are the waters of Tunbridge, Spa, Pyrmont, Cheltenham, Scarborough, and Hartfel.

CHALYBIS RUBIGO PRÆPARATA. See *Rubigo ferri*.

CHALYBS, (*Chalybs*, *ybis*, m. from *Chalybes*, a people in Pontus, who dug iron out of the earth). Steel. The best, hardest, finest, and the closest grained forged iron.

CHAMÆDRYS, (*Chamædrys*, *dryos*, f. *χαμαίδρυς*; from *χαμαι*, the ground, and *δρυς*, the oak: so called from its leaves resembling those of the oak). Germander. This plant, *Teucrium chamædrys*; *foliis cuneiformi-ovatis, incis, crenatis, petiolatis; floribus ternis; caulibus procumbentibus, subpilosis*, of Linnæus, has a moderately bitter and somewhat aromatic taste. It was in high repute amongst the ancients in intermittent fevers, rheumatism, and gout; and where an aromatic bitter is wanting, germander may be administered with success.

CHAMÆLEON, ALBUM. *Carlina. Cardopatum.* Carlina thistle. *Carlina acaulis; caule unifloro, flore brevire*, of Linnæus. The root of this plant is bitter, and said to possess diaphoretic and anthelmintic virtues. It is also extolled by foreign physicians in the cure of acute, malignant, and chronic disorders.

CHAMÆMELUM, (*Chamæmelum*, i. n. *χαμαιμηλον*; from *χαμαι*, the ground, and *μηλον*, an apple; because it grows upon the ground, and has the smell of an apple). *Chamæmelum nobile. Chamomilla romana.* Common camomile. *Anthemis nobilis; foliis pinnato-compositis linearibus acutis subvillosis*, of Linnæus. Class. *Syngenesia.* Order. *Polygamia superflua.* Both the leaves and flowers of this indigenous plant have a strong, though not ungrateful smell, and a very bitter, nauseous taste: but the latter are the bitterer, and considerably more aromatic. They possess tonic and stomachic qualities, and are much employed to restore tone to the stomach and intestines, and as a pleasant and cheap bitter. A simple infusion is frequently taken to excite vomiting, or for promoting the operation of emetics. Externally they are used in the *decoctum pro fomento*, and are an ingredient in the *decoctum pro enemate*.

CHAMÆMELUM FLORE PLENO.

Double chamomile. A variety of the officinal *chamæmelum*, produced by culture.

CHAMÆMELUM NOBILE. See *Chamæmelum*.

CHAMÆMELUM VULGARE. *Chamomilla nostras.* The plant directed under this name in the pharmacopœias, is the *Matricaria chamomilla; receptaculis conicis; radiis patentibus; squamis calycinis, margine equalibus*, of Linnæus. Its virtues are similar to those of the *chamæmelum*, but in a much inferior degree.

CHAMÆMORUS, (*Chamæmorus*, i. from *χαμαι*, on the ground, and *μορεα*, the mulberry tree). Cloud-berries. The ripe fruit of this plant, *Rubus chamæmorus; foliis simplicibus lobatis, caule interni unifloro*, of Linnæus, is prepared in Sweden, &c. into a jam; and is recommended to allay thirst, &c. in fevers, phthical diseases, hæmoptysis, &c.

CHAMÆPITYS, (*Chamæpitys*, *pityos*, f. *χαμαιπίτυς*; from *χαμαι*, the ground, and *πίτυς*, the pine tree). This low hairy plant, *Teucrium chamæpitys; foliis trifidis, linearibus, integerrimis; floribus sessilibus, lateralibus, solitariis; caule diffuso*, of Linnæus, has a moderately bitter taste, and a resinous, not disagreeable smell, somewhat like that of the pine. The tops or leaves are recommended as aperients and corroborants of the nervous system, and said to be particularly serviceable in female obstructions and paralytic disorders.

CHAMBERS OF THE EYE. The space between the capsule of the crystalline lens and the cornea is divided by the iris into two; the space before the iris is termed the anterior chamber; and that behind it, the posterior. They are filled with an aqueous fluid.

CHAMOMILLA NOSTRAS. See *Chamæmelum vulgare*.

CHAMOMILLA ROMANA. See *Chamæmelum*.

CHANCRE, (*Canker*. French). A primary venereal ulcer on the parts of generation.

CHARCOAL. *Carbonicum*. See *Carbon*.

CHASTE TREE. See *Agnus castus*.

CHEESE RENNET. See *Galium luteum*.

CHEIRANTHUS, (*Cheiranthus*, i. m. *χαιρανθός*; from *χειρ*, a hand, and *άνθος*, a flower: so named from the likeness of its blossoms to the fingers of the hand). The wall-flower.

CHEIRANTHUS CHEIRI. The systematic name of the wallflower. See *Cheiri*.

CHEIRI, (*Cheiri*, n. Ind. Arab). The flowers of this plant, *Cheiranthus cheiri*; *foliis lanceolatis, acutis, glabris*; *ramis angulatis*; *caule fruticoso*, of Linnæus, are recommended as possessing nervine and deobstruent virtues. They have a moderately strong, pleasant smell, and a nauseous, bitter, somewhat pungent taste.

CHELÆ CANCRORUM. See *Cancer*.

CHELIDONIUM MAJUS, (*Chelidonium*, i. n. *χελιδωνιον*; from *χελιδων*, the swallow. It is so named from an opinion, that it was pointed out as useful for the eyes by swallows, who are said to open the eyes of their young by it; or because it blossoms about the time when swallows appear). *Χελιδονιον μεγα*. Celandine. The herb and root of this plant, *Chelidonium majus*; *pedunculis umbellatis*, of Linnæus, have a faint, unpleasant smell, and a bitter, acrid, durable taste, which is stronger in the roots than the leaves. They are recommended in icterus, cachexiæ, chlorosis, dropsies, &c. It should be administered with caution, as it is liable to irritate the stomach and bowels.

CHELIDONIUM MINUS. Pilewort. The leaves and root of this plant, *Ranunculus ficaria*; *foliis cordatis angulatis petiolatis, caule uniflora*, of Linnæus, are used medicinally.

The former as antiscorbutics, and the latter as specifics, against the piles, applied in form of poultices.

CHELTENHAM WATER. A mineral saline water; the greater part of whose salts are of a purgative kind. It is also one of the strongest chalybeates. The iron is suspended entirely by the carbonic acid, of which gas the water contains about an eighth of its bulk; but from the abundance of earthy carbonats and oxyd of iron, not much of it is uncombined. Cheltenham water is used with considerable benefit in a number of diseases, especially of the chronic kind, and many of them highly difficult of cure; in glandular obstructions, and especially those that affect the liver and the other organs connected with the functions of the alimentary canal, and in scorbutic eruptions of the skin.

CHEMISTRY, (*Chemia*, æ. f. *χημια*, and sometimes *χημια*; *chamiab*, from *chamab*, to burn, Arab. this science being the examination of all substances by fire). The learned are not yet agreed as to the most proper definition of chemistry. Boerhaave seems to have ranked it among the arts. According to Macquer, it is a science, whose object is to discover the nature and properties of all bodies by their analysis and combinations. Dr. Black says, it is a science which teaches, by experiments, the effects of heat and mixture on bodies; and Fourcroy defines it a science which teaches the mutual actions of all natural bodies on each other. Chemistry, says Jacquin, is that branch of natural philosophy which unfolds the nature of all material bodies, determines the number and properties of their component parts, and teaches us how those parts are united, and by what means they may be separated and recombined. Mr. Heron defines it, that science which investigates and explains the laws of that attraction which takes place between the minute component particles of natural bodies. The objects

to which the attention of chemists is directed comprehend the whole of the substances that compose the globe.

CHEMŌSIS (*Chemosis*, is, f. *χημασις*; from *χαίω*, to gape; because it gives the appearance of a gap or aperture). Inflammation of the conjunctive membrane of the eye, in which the cellular structure of the eye is distended with a florid fluid, and elevated above the margin of the transparent cornea.

CHENOPODIUM, (*Chenopodium*, i, n. *χηνόπδιον*; from *χην*, a goose, and *πεδ*, a foot: so called from its supposed resemblance to a goose's foot). The herb chenopody, goose's foot, or *pes anserinus*.

CHENOPODIUM AMBROSIOIDĒS. The systematic name of the Mexican tea plant. See *Botrys mexicana*.

CHENOPODIUM ANTHELMINTICUM. The seeds of this plant, *Chenopodium anthelminticum*; *foliis ovato-oblongis dentatis, racemis aphyllis*, of Linnæus, although in high esteem in America for the cure of worms, are never exhibited in this country. The seeds are powdered, and made into an electuary with any proper substance.

CHENOPODIUM BONUS HENRICUS. The systematic name of the English mercury. See *Bonus henricus*.

CHENOPODIUM BOTRYS. The systematic name of the Jerusalem oak. See *Botrys vulgaris*.

CHENOPODIUM VULVĀRIA. The systematic name of the stinking orache. See *Atriplex olida*.

CHERRY. See *Cerasa nigra* and *rubra*.

CHERRY-BAY. See *Lauro-cerasus*.

CHERRY-LAUREL. See *Lauro-cerasus*.

CHERRY, WINTER. See *Alkekengi*.

CHERVIL. See *Cereseolium*.

CHESNUT, HORSE. See *Hippocastanum*.

CHIAN PEPPER. See *Piper indicum*.

CHIAN TURPENTINE. See *Chio-turpentine*.

CHIBOU GUM. A spurious kind of *elemi*.

CHICKEN-POX. See *Varicella*.

CHICKWEED. See *Alfina media*.

CHILBLAIN. *Pernio*. *Erythema* of Cullen. An inflammation of the extreme parts of the body, from the application of cold, attended with a violent itching, and soon forming a gangrenous ulcer.

CHINA, (*China*, a, f. so named from the country of China, from whence it was brought). China root is obtained from the *Similax china*; *caule aculeato, teretiusculo; foliis inermis, ovato-cordatis, quinque nerviis*, of Linnæus. It was formerly in esteem, as sarsaparilla now is, in the cure of the venereal disease.

CHINA CHINÆ. A name given to the Peruvian bark, a native of some parts in China.

CHINCHĪNA ANGUSTIFOLIĀ.—This bark is obtained from the *Cinchona angustifolia*; *foliis lanceolatis, pubescentibus, floribus paniculatis*, of Swartz. Its virtues are similar to those of the common Peruvian bark, described under the head *Cinchona*. If any thing, it is said to be more adstringent, and to have an aromatic mixture.

CHINCHĪNA CARIBÆA. *Chinchina jamaicensis*. The bark ordered by this title in foreign pharmacopœias, is stripped from the *Cinchona caribæa*; *pedunculis unifloris*, of Linnæus. It is administered with great success in Jamaica, by Dr. Wright, in remittent fevers.

CHINCHINA DE SANTA FE.—There are several species of bark sent from Santa fe: but neither their particular natures, nor the trees which afford them, are yet accurately determined.

CHINCHĪNA JAIMAICENSIS. See *Chinchina carabæa*.

CHINCHĪNA RUBRA. See *Cinchona cortex peruvianus ruber*.

CHICHĪNA ST. LUCIÆ. St. Lucia bark is collected from the *Anchona floribunda*; *floribus paniculatis glabris, capsulis turbinatis lævibus, foliis ellipticis acuminatis glabris*, of Swartz; it has an astringent, bitter taste, somewhat like gentian. It is recommended in intermittents, putrid dysentery, and dyspepsia; it should always be joined to some aromatic.

CHINESE SMILAX. See *China*.

CHIO TURPENTINE. *Terebinthina de Chio*. Cyprus turpentine. Chian turpentine. This substance is classed among the resins. It is procured by wounding the bark of the trunk of the *Pistachia terebinthus* of Linnæus. The best Chio turpentine is about the consistence of honey, very tenacious, clear, and almost transparent; of a white colour, inclining to yellow, and a fragrant smell, moderately warm to the taste, but free from acrimony and bitterness. Its medicinal qualities are similar to those of the turpentine. See *Turpentine*.

CHIRĀGRA, (*Chiragra*, *a*, f. *χειραγρα*; from *χ*, the hand, and *αγρα*, a seizure). The gout in the joints of the hand. See *Arthritis*.

CHIRURGĪA, (*Chirurgia*, *a*, f. *χειρουργία*; from *χαι*, the hand, and *εργον*, a work; because surgical operations are performed by the hand). Surgery.

CHLORŌSIS, (*Chlorosis*, *i*, f. *χλωροσις*; from *χλωρος*, green, pale; from the yellow greenish look those have who are affected with it). The green sickness. A genus of disease in the class *cachexia*, and order *impetigines* of Cullen. It is a disease which affects young females who labour under a suppression of the menses. It is characterized by depraved appetite, bad digestion, livid paleness, great debi-

lity, palpitation, and a suppression of the menses.

CHOKER DAMP. The name given by miners to a noxious air, occasionally found in the bottom of mines and pits. It is probably carbonic acid. See *Carbonic acid*.

CHOLEDŌCHUS DUCTUS, (*Choledochus*, *χοληδόχος*; from *χολη*, bile, and *αχουαι*, to receive, receiving or retaining the gall). *Ductus communis choledochus*. The common biliary duct, which conveys both cystic and hepatic bile into the intestinum duodenum.

CHOLĒRA, (*Cholera*, *a*, f. *χολερα*; from *χολη*, bile, and *ερα*, to flow). A genus of disease arranged by Cullen in the class *neuroses*, and order *spasmi*. It is a purging and vomiting of bile, with anxiety, painful gripings, spasms of the abdominal muscles, and those of the thighs. There are two species of this genus; 1. *Cholera spontanea*, which happens, in hot seasons, without any manifest cause. 2. *Cholera accidentalis*, which occurs after the use of food that digests slowly, and irritates.

CHONDROLOGY, (*Chondrologia*, *a*, f. *χονδρολογία*; from *χονδρον*, a cartilage, and *λογος*, a discourse). A discourse or treatise on cartilages.

CHORDA TYMPĀNI, (*Chorda*, *a*, f.). A branch of the seventh pair of nerves that passes through the tympanum.

CHORDÆ TENDINĪÆ. The tendinous and cord-like substances which connect the *cornea columnæ* of the ventricles of the heart to the auricular valves.

CHORDÆ WILLISII. The small fibres which cross the sinuses of the dura mater. They are so termed, because Willis first described them.

CHORDEE, (*Chordé*. French). A spasmodic contraction of the penis that sometimes attends gonorrhœa, and is often followed by a hæmorrhage.

CHORĒA SANCTI VITI, (*Chorea*, χορεία; from χορός, a chorus, which of old accompanied dancing. It is called St. Vitus's dance, because some devotees of St. Vitus exercised themselves so long in dancing, that their intellects were disordered, and could only be restored by dancing again at the anniversary of St. Vitus). St. Vitus's dance. Convulsive motions of the limbs, as if the person were dancing. It is a genus of disease arranged by Cullen in the class *neuroses*, and order *spasmi*.

CHORION, (*Chorion*, *i*, *n*. χορίον; from χε-ρ-ω, to escape; because it always escapes from the uterus with the fœtus). Shaggy chorion. The external membrane of the fœtus in utero.

CHOROID MEMBRANE, (*Membrana choroidea*; from χορίον, the chorion, and εἶδος, resemblance). The second tunic of the eye, lying immediately under the sclerotica, to which it is connected by vessels. The true knowledge of this membrane is necessary to a perfect idea of the iris and uvea. The tunica choroidea commences at the optic nerve, and passes forwards, with the sclerotic coat, to the beginning of the cornea transparenens, where it adheres very firmly to the sclerotic membrane, by means of a cellular membrane, in the form of a white fringe, called the *ciliary circle*. It then recedes from the sclerotica and cornea and ciliary circle directly downwards and inwards, forming a round disk, which is variously coloured; hence blue, black eyes, &c. This coloured portion, reflected inwards, is termed the *iris*, and its posterior surface is termed *uvea*. The choroid membrane is highly vascular, and its external vessels are disposed like stars, and termed *versa vorticosa*. The internal surface of this membrane is covered with a black pigment, called the pigment of the choroid membrane.

CHOROID PLEXUS. *Plexus choroidea*. A plexus of blood-vessels, situated in the lateral ventricles of the brain.

CHRISTMAS ROSE. See *Helleborus niger*.

CHROME, (*Chromium*, *i*, *n*. from χρωμα, colour; because its primary combinations impart its colour to all secondary ones). A white metal, inclining to a grey, very brittle, and crystallizable at an elevated temperature, in feathered filaments on the surface. Its internal fracture presents in some parts close grains, in other parts needles crossing each other. It is an ingredient in the fossil, known by that name in Siberia.

CHRONIC, (*Chronicus*, *sc*. morbus; from χρόνος, time). A term applied to diseases which are of long continuance, and mostly without fever. It is used in opposition to the term acute. See *Acute*.

CRUPSIÆ, (*Crupsia*, *a*, *f*. χρυσία; from χρῶς, colour, and οψία, sight). *Virus coloratus*. A disease of the eyes, in which the person perceives objects of a different colour from their natural.

CHRYSANTHEMUM, (*Chrysanthemum*, *i*, *n*. χρυσανθεμον; from χρῶς, gold, and ανθεμος, a flower). Sunflower, or marygold. Many herbs are so called whose flowers are of a bright yellow colour.

CHRYSANTHEMUM LEUCANTHEMUM. The systematic name of the great ox-eye-daisy. See *Bellis major*.

CHYLE, (*Chylus*, *i*, *m*.). The milk-like liquor, observed some hours after eating, in the lacteal vessels of the mesentery and in the thoracic duct. It is separated by digestion from the chyme, and is that fluid substance from which the blood is formed.

The chyle is absorbed by the mouths of the lacteal vessels, which are in the greatest number in the jejunum and ilium, whilst the fœx of the chyme, with the bile, are propelled into the

large intestines. The chyle of the human body smells like milk; has a sweetish taste, a white colour, and a consistence thinner than blood and milk. Its specific gravity is lighter than that of the blood, and hence it is that chyle is occasionally seen swimming on the blood, if a vein be opened some hours after eating. The quality of the chyle is similar to that of milk; for like it, it coagulates and ascends; but sometimes its nature is altered from bad digested food or medicines: thus the chyle becomes blue from eating indigo; yellow, from the yolk of eggs, &c. The quantity of chyle depends upon that of the ingesta and their greater or less nourishing power: from five or six pounds of food, very little more than two pounds of chyle are elaborated.

The constituent principles of chyle, are, 1. *Water*, which forms its greatest part. 2. *Oily cream*, which chemistry teaches to be hydrogen and carbon. 3. *Cheese*, which, by the vis vitalis, is formed of the carbon and azot of the ingested food. 4. *Earth*, which is obtained from lacteal calculi, that are occasionally found in the receptaculum chyli and lacteals. 5. *Animal lymph*, which is mixed with the gastric and enteric juices.

The nutritive principles of vegetables, are starch, an albuminous principle, oil, vegetable gluten, and sugar. The nutritive principles of animal substances, are oil, jelly, and animal gluten; and hence the reason why the chyle, separated from vegetables, is of the same matter with that prepared from animal ingesta is, that the principles of both are dissolved into their elements, which are the same in animal and vegetable foods: thus the *cream* of the chyle is formed of carbon and hydrogen; and the *cheese* of the chyle, from the carbon and azot of both animal and vegetable substances.

The chyle is mixed with the albu-

minous and gelatinous lymph in the thoracic duct, which receives them from the lymphatics.

The uses of the chyle are, 1. To supply the matter from which the blood and other fluids of our body are prepared; from which fluids the solid parts are formed. 2. By its ascendent nature, it somewhat restrains the putrescent tendency of the blood: hence the dreadful putridity of the humours from starving; and thus milk is an excellent remedy against scurvy. 3. By its very copious aqueous latex, it prevents the thickening of the fluids, and thus renders them fit for the various secretions. 4. The chyle secreted in the breasts of puerperal women, under the name of milk, forms the most excellent nutriment of all aliments for new born infants.

CHYLIFICATION, (*Ghylisactio, ōnis*, f. from *chylus*, and *ſio*, to make). The process, carried on in the small intestines, and principally in the duodenum, by which the chyle is separated from the chyme.

CHYLOPOETIC, (*Chylopoeticus*; *χυλοποιητικός*; from *χυλος*, chyle, and *ποιεω*, to make). Any thing connected with the formation of chyle; thus chylopoetic viscera, chylopoetic vessels, &c.

CHYME, (*Chymus*, i, m. from *χυμος*, which signifies humour or juice). The ingested mass of food, that passes from the stomach into the duodenum, and from which the chyle is prepared in the small intestines by the admixture of the bile, &c.

CHYNLEN RADIX. A cylindrical root, of the thickness of a goose-quill, brought from China. It has a bitterish taste, and imparts a yellow tinge to the saliva. The Chinese hold it in great estimation as a stomachic, infused in wine.

CICATRIX, (*Cicatrix, icis*, f. from *cicatrigo*, to skin). A scar.

CICER, (*Cicer, eris*, n. Of uncertain origin, unless it be from the

Greek, *κικυς*, strength. The Cicerones had their name from this pulse, as the Pisones had from the pisum or pea, and the Lentuli from the lens or lentil). *Επεβιβος*. The seeds of this plant, *Cicer arietinum*; *foliis serratis*, of Linnæus, have been employed medicinally, but are now fallen into disuse. In some places they are toasted, and used as coffee; and in others, ground into a flower for bread. The colour of the aryllus of the seed is sometimes white, red, or black: hence the distinction into *cicer album*, *rubrum*, and *nigrum*.

CICERARIETINUM. The systematic name of the cicer plant.

CICHORIUM, (*Cichorium*, *i*, *n*. Originally, according to Pliny, an Egyptian name, and adopted by the Greeks. It is written sometimes *Κικωρίον*; whence Horace has—*cichoræa, leveſque malvæ*: sometime *Κικωρίοι*, or *Κικωρίον*. It is supposed to have this name, *παρὰ τὸ διὰ τῶν χωρίων κρεῖν*, from its creeping through the fields.—Others derive it from *κίχην*, *invenio*; on account of its being so readily found, or so common). Succory. *Cichorium*. Wild cichory. This plant, *Cichorium intybus*; *floribus geminis, sessilibus; foliis runcinatis*, of Linnæus, abounds with a milky juice, of a penetrating, bitter taste. The herb, root, seeds, and flowers have been used medicinally, in the cure of intermittents, and as aperients in hectic and inflammatory affections.

CICHORIUM ENDIVIA. The systematic name of the endive. See *Endivia*.

CICHORIUM INTYBUS. The systematic name of the wild cichory. See *Cichoreum*.

CICHORY. See *Cichorium*.

CICHORY, WILD. See *Cichorium*.

CICINUM OLEUM, (*Κικινς*; from *κικιν*, the ricinus). An oil, obtained by boiling the bruised seeds of the *Jatropha curcas* of Linnæus. It is

somewhat similar in its properties to castor oil. See *Ricinus*.

CICŪTA, (*Cicuta*, *a*, *f. quasi cecuta*, blind; because it destroys the sight of those who use it. *Cicuta* signifies the internode, or space between two joints of a reed; the hollow stem of any plant which the shepherds used for making their rural pipes. *Est mihi disparilus septem conjuncta cicutis fistula*.—Virgil). Hemlock. This plant, *Conium maculatum* of Linnæus, *Conium seminibus striatis*. Class, *Pentandria*. Order, *Digynia*, is found in almost every part of England, and is distinguished from those plants which bear some resemblance to it, by the spotted stem. It is generally believed to be a very active poison. When exhibited in immoderate doses, it produces anxiety, cardialgia, vomiting, convulsions, vertigo, coma, and death. Baron Stoerk was the first who brought hemlock into repute as a medicine of extraordinary efficacy; and although it does not effect the wonderful cures of cancer it was said to perform, it certainly possesses narcotic and antispasmodic virtues. There is scarcely any disease, to which human nature is subject, in which this remedy, like mercury, is not exhibited internally by some physicians, and in those of the glandular system it appears, sometimes, to be productive of benefit. Nor is it less efficacious when applied externally: a poultice made of oatmeal and the expressed juice, or a decoction of the extract; when the former cannot be obtained; allays the most excruciating torturous pains of a cancer, and thus gives rest to the distracted patient.

CICŪTA AQUATICA. Water hemlock. This plant, *Cicuta viroſa umbellulis oppositifoliis; petiolis marginatis, obtusis*, of Linnæus, is never employed medicinally in the present day. It is an active poison, and often eaten by mistake for the wild smallage, the

Apium graveolens of Linnæus, when it produces tremors, vertigo, a violent burning at the stomach, epilepsy, convulsions, spasms of the jaw, a flowing of blood from the ears, tumefaction of the abdomen, and death.

CICUTA VIRÖSA. The systematic name of the water hemlock. See *Cicuta aquatica*.

CICUTARIA, (*Cicutaria*, *æ*, f. from *cicuta*, hemlock). Bastard hemlock. This plant, *Cherophyllum sylvestre*; *caule lavi, striato*; *geniculis tumidiusculis*, of Linnæus, is often mistaken for the true hemlock. It may with great propriety be banished from the list of officinals, as it possesses no remarkable property.

CILIA, (*Cilium*, *i*, n.). The eyelashes.

CILIAR LIGAMENT. *Ligamentum ciliare*. The circular portion that divides the choroid membrane from the iris, and which adheres to the sclerotic membrane. It appears like a white circular ring.

CILIARY PROCESSES. The white plicated striæ, covered with a black matter, which proceed from the uvea to the crystalline lens, upon which they lie.

CILIUM. The hair on the eyelid and the eyelid.

CIMOLIA ALBA, (*Cimolia*, *æ*, f. *κιμωλία*; from *Κιμωλιος*, Cimolus, an island in the Cretan sea, where it is procured). Tobacco-pipe clay. Its virtues are similar to those of the bolar earths; but it is never administered medicinally.

CIMOLIA PURPURESCENS. Fulers earth. A bolar earth, of a greyish brown colour.

CINÆ SEMEN. See *Santonicum*.

CINARA, (*Cinara*, *æ*, f. *κινάρα*; from *κινεω*, to move; *quasi movet ad venerem*). Common artichoke. *Cynara scolymus*; *foliis subspinosis pinnatis indivisisque, calycinis squamis ovatis*, of Linnæus. Class. *Syngenesia*. Order. *Polygamia æquales*.

A native of the southern parts of Europe, but cultivated here for culinary purposes. The leaves are bitter, and afford, by expression, a considerable quantity of juice, which, when strained, and mixed with an equal quantity of white wine, has been given successfully in dropies; but it is very uncertain in its operation.

CINCHONA, (*Cinchona*, *æ*, f. so named, from the *Countess del Cinchon*, the lady of a Spanish viceroy, whose cure in the year 1646 is said first to have brought the Peruvian bark into reputation; or perhaps it may be derived from *kinkina*, its Indian name). In 1649 a Jesuit brought a considerable quantity of it into Italy, which was distributed by the fathers of that order; from which circumstance it was called *Jesuits bark*). *Quinquina*. *Cortex peruvianus*. Jesuits bark. Officinal cinchona, or Peruvian bark. The tree, which affords this valuable medicine, is the *Cinchona officinalis* (*Cinchona foliis ellipticis subtus pubescentibus corollæ, limbo lanato*. Class. *Pentandria*. Order. *Monogynia*), a native of Peru. The bark is brought to us in pieces of different sizes, some rolled up into short thick quills, and others flat; the outside is brownish, and generally covered in part with a whitish moss; the inside is of a yellowish, reddish, or rusty iron colour. The best sort breaks close and smooth, and proves friable betwixt the teeth: the inferior kinds appear, when broken, of a woody texture, and in chewing separate into fibres. The former pulverizes more easily than the latter, and looks, when powdered, of a light brownish colour, resembling that of cinnamon, or somewhat paler. It has a slight smell, approaching to mustiness, yet so much of the aromatic kind as not to be disagreeable. Its taste is considerably bitter, astringent, very durable in the mouth, and accompanied with some degree of aromatic warmth, but not sufficient

to prevent its being ungrateful. The medicinal properties of this drug are very considerable. It cures intermittent, remittent, nervous, and putrid fevers; putrid sore throat, scarlatina, and dysentery; stops excessive discharges, and is in general use as a tonic and stomachic; it is also of infinite service in local affections, as gangrene, scrophula, ill-conditioned ulcers, rickets, scurvy, &c. and in most diseases where there is no inflammatory diathesis. The official preparations of this bark are the powder, the extract, the tincture, and the decoction.

CINCHONA ANGUSTIFOLIA.—The systematic name of the narrow leaved Peruvian bark tree. See *Chinchona angustifolia*.

CINCHONA CARIBÆA. The systematic name of the Caribæan bark-tree. See *Chinchona caribæa*.

CINCHONA CORTEX PERUVIANUS RUBER. *Chinchina rubra*. The medicinal qualities of this red bark are similar to those of the former.

CINCHONA CORTEX PERUVIANUS FLAVUS. *Cortex chinæ flavus*. *Coriex chinæ regius*. The medicinal properties of this new species are also nearly the same as those of the cinchona officinalis. See *Cinchona*.

CINCHONA FLORIBUNDA. The systematic name of the plant which affords the Saint Lucia bark. See *Chinchona Sanctæ Lucie*.

CINCHONA OFFICINALIS. The systematic name of the Peruvian bark-tree. See *Cinchona*.

CINCINNUS. The hair on the temples. See *Capillus*.

CINERES CLAVELLATI, (*Clavellatus*; from *clavus*, a wedge. The name of *cineres clavellati* originated from the little wedges or billets into which the wood was cut to make potash). *Kali impurum*. Impure potash. Potash, in this state, is called in the new chemical nomenclature, *carbonas potassæ alkalescens*. It is from

this salt the various preparations of the kali are made; as the *sal alkalinus fixus vegetabilis purificatus*, the *kali preparatum*, the *aqua kali*, the *lixivium causticum*, the *kali purum*, &c.

CINERES RUSSICI. Impure Russian potash.

CINERITOUS, (*Cineritius*; from *cinis*, ashes). Of the colour of ashes. A name applied to the cortical substance of the brain, from its resemblance to an ash colour.

CINNABAR, (*Cinnabar*, is, f. *cinnabari*, n. indecl. *cinnabaris*, is, f. *κινναβάρης*. *Minium* and several substances were so called by the antients). A red mineral substance composed of mercury combined with sulphur. It is found in the Dutchy of Deuxponts, in the Palatinate, in Spain, South America, &c. It is called native vermilion, and cinnabar in flowers. Artificial cinnabar is employed as a mild mercurial, and as an alterative. See *Hydrargyrus sulphuratus ruber*.

CINNABAR FACTITIA. See *Hydrargyrus sulphuratus ruber*.

CINNABAR NATIVA. See *Cinnabar*.

CINNAMOMUM, (*Cinnamomum*, i, n. *κινναμωμων*; from *kinamon*. Arab.). Cinnamon. The tree which affords the true cinnamon, which is its inner bark, is the *Laurus cinnamomum* of Jacquin, a native of Ceylon. *Laurus foliis trinerviis ovato-oblongis: nervis versus apicem evanescentibus*. Class. *Enneandria*. Order. *Monogynia*. Cinnamon bark is one of the most grateful of the aromatics; of a very fragrant smell, and a moderately pungent, glowing, but not fiery taste, accompanied with considerable sweetness, and some degree of adstringency. It is one of the best cordial, carminative, and restorative spices we are in possession of, and is generally mixed with the diet of the sick. The essential oil, on account of its high price, is seldom used: a tincture, simple and spirituous water, are di-

rected to be kept in the shops. The flowers of this plant are called *flores cassie* in the shops.

CINQUEFOIL. See *Pentaphyllum*.

CIRCOCELE, (*Circocele*, es, f. *κίρκομηλη*; from *κίρσος*, *varix*, or a dilatation of a vein, and *κηλη*, a tumour).

Variocèle. An enlargement of the veins of the spermatic cord.

CIRCON EARTH. *Terra circonia*. A peculiar species of earth, discovered in the jargon of Ceylon; which is also called *circon*.

CIRCULATION OF THE BLOOD, (*Circulatio*, *ōnis*, f. from *circulo*, to compass about). A vital action performed in the following manner: the blood is returned into the right auricle of the heart by the descending and ascending venæ cavæ, which, when distended, contracts and sends its blood into the right ventricle; from the right ventricle it is propelled through the pulmonary artery to circulate through, and undergo a change in, the lungs, being prevented from returning into the right auricle by the closing of the valves, which are situated there for that purpose. Having undergone this change in the lungs, it is brought to the left auricle of the heart by the four pulmonary veins, and from thence it is evacuated into the left ventricle. The left ventricle, when distended, contracts, and throws the blood through the aorta to every part of the body, to be returned by the veins into the two venæ cavæ. It is prevented from passing back from the left ventricle into the auricle by a valvular apparatus; and the beginning of the pulmonary artery and aorta is also furnished with similar organs, to prevent its returning into the ventricles.—(See *Heart*). It is by means of this important action, that every part of the body lives, becomes warm, and is nourished, the various secretions separated, and the chyle converted into blood. In the fœtus the blood passes from the umbilical veins,

partly into the vena portæ, and partly through the canalis venosus, into the ascending cava. The lungs being contracted, a very small quantity circulates through them, and the greater part flows through the canalis arteriosus and foramen ovale to the left side of the heart, and into the aorta, and is carried back by the umbilical arteries to the placenta.

CIRCŪLUS ARTĒRIOSUS IRĪDIS. The artery which runs round the iris and forms a circle, is so termed.

CIRCUMCISION, (*Circumcisio*, *ōnis*, f. from *circumscido*, to cut about). The cutting off the prepuce from the glans penis; an antient custom still practised amongst the Jews.

CIRCUMFLEXUS, (*Circumflexus*, sc. *musculus*). *Circumflexus palati* of Albinus. *Spheno-salpingo-staphilinus*, seu *staphilinus externus* of Winslow. *Musculus tubæ novæ* of Valsalva. *Palato-salpingeus* of Douglas. This muscle arises from the spinous process of the sphenoid bone, behind the foramen ovale, which transmits the third branch of the fifth pair of nerves; from the Eustachian tube, not far from its osseous part; it then runs down along the pterygoideus internus, passes over the hook of the internal plate of the pterygoid process by a round tendon, which soon spreads into a broad membrane. It is inserted into the velum pendulum palati, and the semilunar edge of the os palati, and extends as far as the suture which joins the two bones. Generally some of its posterior fibres join with the constrictor pharyngis superior, and palato-pharyngæus. Its use is to stretch the velum, to draw it downwards, and to a side towards the hook. It hath little effect upon the tube, being chiefly connected to its osseous part.

CISSAMPELOS, (*Cissampelos*, i, f. *κισσαμπελος*; from *κισσος*, ivy, and *αμπελος*, the vine). The wild vine, with leaves like the ivy.

CISSAMPĒLOS PARIERA. The systematic name of the *pariera brava*. See *Pariera brava*.

CISTUS CRETICUS. The systematic name of the plant from which the ladanum of the shops is obtained. See *Ladanum*.

CITRĀGO. See *Melissa*.

CITRARĪA. See *Melissa*.

CITRATS, (*Citras, tis*, m. from *citrus*, the citron). Salts formed by the union of the citric acid, or acid of lemons, with different bases; as the *citrat of alumin*, *citrat of ammoniac*, &c.

CITRĒA. See *Limon*.

CITRIC ACID. *Acidum citricum*. The juice of lemons. The citric acid may be obtained pure in concrete crystals, by the following method: Saturate boiling lemon-juice with pulverized chalk. The acid forms with the lime a salt that is scarce soluble, and the mucilaginous and extractive substances remain dissolved in the supernatant liquor; the precipitate is to be washed with lukewarm water, till it ceases to deepen in colour; it dissolves nearly as well as sulphate of lime; it is then to be treated with as much sulphuric acid as is requisite to saturate the chalk, diluted in ten parts of water; and this mixture is to be boiled for a few minutes. Afterwards, it must be cooled and filtered; the sulphate of lime remains on the filter, and the liquor affords a crystallized acid by evaporation.

CITRON. See *Limon*.

CITRUL, SICILIAN. See *Citrullus*.

CITRULLUS. Sicilian citrul, or water-melon. The seeds of this plant, *Cucurbita citrullus*; *foliis multipartitis*, of Linnæus, were formerly used medicinally, but now only to reproduce the plant. Water-melon is cooling, and somewhat nutritious; but so soon begins to ferment, as to prove highly noxious to some stomachs, and bring

on spasms, diarrhœas, cholera morbus, colics, &c.

CITRUS. See *Limon*.

CITRUS AURANTIUM. The systematic name of the orange tree. See *Aurantium*.

CITRUS MEDICA. The systematic name of the lemon tree. See *Limon*.

CIVET-CAT. See *Zibethum*.

CIVETTA. See *Zibethum*.

CLARET, (*Claretum, i*, n. from *clareo*, to be clear). A French wine, that may be given with great advantage as a tonic and antiseptic, where red port wine disagrees with the patient; and in typhoid fevers of children and delicate females, it is far preferable, as a common drink.

CLARY. See *Horminum*.

CLAVICLE, (*Clavicula, æ*, f. dim. of *clavis*: so called from its resemblance to a key). Collar-bone. A bone shaped like the letter *s*, situated obliquely upon the upper part of the chest, and connecting the scapula and humerus to the thorax.

CLAVUS, (*Clavus, i*, m. a nail). A fixed pain in the forehead, which may be covered by one's thumb, giving a sensation like as if a nail were driven into the part. When connected with hysterics, it is called *clavus hystericus*. This term is also applied to *corns*, from their resemblance to the head of a nail.

CLAY. Argillaceous earth. *Alumin*. See *Alumin*.

CLEAVERS. See *Aperine*.

CLEIDO-MASTOIDEUS. See *Sterno-cleido-mastoideus*.

CLEMĀTIS, (*Clematis*, f. κληματις; from κλημα, a tendril). A plant, so named from its climbing up trees, or any thing it can fasten upon with its tendrils.

CLEMĀTIS RECTA. The systematic name of the upright virgin's bower. See *Flammula Jovis*.

CLEMĀTIS VITALBA. The sys-

tematic name of the traveller's joy.
See *Vitalba*.

CLIMBING BIRTHWORT. See *Aristolochia tenuis*.

CLINICAL, (*Clinicus*, κλινικός; from κλινω, a bed). Any thing concerning a bed: thus clinical lectures, notes, a clinical physician, &c.; which mean lectures given at the bed-side, observations taken from patients when in bed, a physician who visits his patients in their bed, &c.

CLINOID, (*Clinoidēus*; from κλινω, a bed, and εἶδος, resemblance). Resembling a bed. The four processes surrounding the sella turcica of the sphæroid bone, are so called, of which two are anterior, and two posterior.

CLITORIS, (*Clitoris*, ἰdis, f. κλειτορίς; from κλείω, to enclose or hide; because it is hid by the labia pudendorum). *Columella*. A small glandiform body, like a penis in miniature, and like it covered with a præpuce, or foreskin. It is situated above the nymphæ, and before the opening of the urinary passage of women. Anatomy has discovered that the clitoris is composed, like the penis, of a cavernous substance, and of a glans, which has no perforation, but is like that of the penis, exquisitely sensible. The clitoris is the principal seat of pleasure: during coition it is distended with blood, and after the venereal orgasm it becomes flaccid and falls. Instances have occurred where the clitoris was so enlarged, as to enable the female to have venereal commerce with others; and in Paris this fact was made a public exhibition of to the faculty. Women thus formed appear to partake, in their general form, less of the female character, and are termed hermaphrodites. The clitoris of children is larger in proportion, than in full grown women: it often projects beyond the external labia at birth.

CLITORISMUS, (*Clitorismus*, i, n.). A morbid enlargement of the clitoris.

CLONIC SPASMS, (*Spasmi clonici*; from κλονεω, to move to and from). See *Convulsion*.

CLOVE-BARK. See *Cassia caryophyllata*.

CLOVE-GILLIFLOWER. See *Caryophyllum rubrum*.

CLOVE-JULY-FLOWER. See *Caryophyllum rubrum*.

CLOVE-PINK. See *Caryophyllum rubrum*.

CLOVES. See *Caryophyllum aromaticum*.

CLUTIA ELUTERIA. *Cascarilla clutia*. The systematic name of the tree which affords the cascarilla bark. See *Cascarilla*.

CLYSMUS. A glyster. See *Enema*.

CLYSMA, (*Clyfma*, ātis, n. κλυσμα; from κλυζω, to wash out). *Clyster*.

CLYSTER. See *Enema*.

CNIDI COCCI. See *Coccognidia*.

CNIDI GRANA. See *Coccognidia*.

COAGULABLE LYMPH. *Albumen Albumina*. Albuminous principle of the serum of blood. This substance, which has a great affinity to the white of eggs, is a component part of the serum of the human blood. It may be obtained in considerable quantities, by stirring the serum about with a stick, when it adheres to its sides. In certain diseased actions it is separated from the blood, and is often found in very considerable quantities in the circumscribed cavities of the body. It has neither taste nor smell; it always possesses a white and opaque colour; is of a glutinous consistence, and, if dried by a gentle heat, becomes horny. Its presence is detected by an admixture of the diluted mineral acids. See also *Albumen*.

COAGULATION, (*Coagulatio*, ōnis, f. from *con*, and *ago*, to drive together). The separation of the glutinous or viscid particles, contained in any fluid, from the more thin and not coagulable particles: thus, when milk curdles, the coagulable parti-

cles form the curd; and when acids are thrown into any fluid containing coagulable particles, they form what is called a *coagulum*.

COAGULUM ALUMINIS. This is recommended as an efficacious application to relaxations of the conjunctive membrane of the eye.

COBALT, (*Cobaltum*, *i*, n. Germ.). A heavy semimetal, of a reddish white colour, and close grain; so brittle as to be readily reduced into powder by the pestle. Dissolved in muriatic acid, it forms a sympathetic ink. None of its preparations are used in medicine.

COBWEBS. See *Araneorum tela*.

COCCINELLA, (*Coccinella*, *a*, f. dim. from *coccus*, a berry; from its resemblance to a berry). *Cochineal*. The female of a species of insect called *Coccus cacti*, that is found on, and collected in South America, from the *Opuntia* or Indian fig-tree. It possesses stimulating qualities, and is ordered by the College in the *tinctura cantharidis*—*cardamomi composita*, and *cinchonæ composita*; but, most probably, on account of the beautiful red colour which it imparts to them.

COCCOGNIDIA. *Grana cnidia*. *Cocci cnidii*. The seeds of the *Daphne mezereum* are so termed. They are violently purgative.

COCCULUS INDUS, (*Cocculus*, *i*, m. *κοκκυλος*, dim of *κοκκος*, a berry). The berry so called is rougous and kidney-shaped, and contains a white nucleus; it is the produce of the *Menispermum cocculus*; *foliis cordatis, retusis, mucronatis*; *caule lacero*, of Linnaeus. The berries possess an inebriating quality; and are supposed to impart that power to most of the London porter.

COCCUS BAPHICA. See *Hermes*.

COCCUS CACTI. The systematic name of the cochineal animal. See *Coccinella*.

COCCYGEUS, (*Coccygeus*, *sc. musc.* from *κοκκυξ*; because it is inserted

into the coccyx). A muscle of the os coccygis situated within the pelvis. It arises, tendinous and fleshy, from the spinous process of the ischium, and covers the inside of the sacro-ischiatic ligament: from this narrow beginning it gradually increases to form a thin fleshy belly, interspersed with tendinous fibres. It is inserted into the extremity of the os sacrum, and near the whole length of the os coccygis, laterally. Its use is to support and move the os coccygis forwards, and to tie it more firmly to the sacrum.

COCCYGIS OS, (*Coccyx*, *ycis*, or *ygis*, m. from *κοκκυξ*, the cuckoo, whose bill it is said to represent). *Os coccyx*. A small irregular-shaped bone of the pelvis, attached to the apex of the sacrum, that sustains the rectum, and prevents the rupture of the perineum in parturition.

COCHINEAL. See *Coccinella*.

COCHLEA, (*Cochlea*, *a*, f. *κοχλεα*; from *κοχλυζω*, to turn round). A cavity of the internal ear, resembling the shell of a snail, in which are observed, the *modiolus*, or *nucleus*, extending from its basis to the apex, the *scala tympani*, *scala vestibuli*, and *spiral lamina*.

COCHLEA TERRESTRIS. See *Limax*.

COCHLEARE, (*Cochleare*, *is*, n. from *cochlea*, a cockle, whose shell its bowl represents). A spoonful. In prescriptions it is sometimes abbreviated thus, *coch*. *Cochleare magnum*, is a table spoonful; *cochleare medium*, a desert or pap spoonful; and *cochleare minimum*, a tea spoonful.

COCHLEARIA ARMORACIA. The systematic name of the horse-radish. See *Raphanus rusticanus*.

COCHLEARIA HORTENSIS, (*Cochlearia*, *a*, f. from *cochleare*: from the resemblance of its leaves to a spoon). Lemon scurvy-grass. This indigenous plant, *Cochlearia officinalis* of Linnaeus (*Cochlearia foliisradicalibus*

cordato-subrotundis; caulinis oblongis subsinuatis. Class. *Tetradynamia*. Order. *Siliculosa*), is cultivated in gardens for its medicinal qualities. Its expressed juice has been long considered as the most effectual of the scorbutic plants.

COCHLEĀRIA OFFICINĀLIS. The systematic name of the lemon scurvy-grass. See *Cochlearia hortenſis*.

COCOS BUTYRACEA. The systematic name of the plant which affords the palm oil. See *Palm oil*.

CODAGA-PALA. See *Conessi cortex*.

CÆLIAC ARTERY, (*Cæliacus*, belonging to the belly; from *κοιλία*, the belly). *Arteria cæliaca*. The first branch given off from the aorta in the cavity of the abdomen. It sends branches to the diaphragm, stomach, liver, pylorus, duodenum, omentum, and spleen.

CÆLIAC PASSION. A species of diarrhœa. See *Diarrhœa*.

COFFEA, (*Coffea*, *a*, f. from *κοφάω*, a mixing together, Hebr.; so called from the pleasant potation which is made from its berry). Coffee. The seeds of the *Coffea arabica*; *floribus quinquifidis, dispermis*, of Linnæus. Good turkey coffee is by far the most salutary of all liquors drank at meal time. It possesses nerve and adstringent qualities, and may be drank with advantage at all times, except when there is bile in the stomach. It is said to be a good antidote against an over dose of opium.

COFFEA ARABICA. The plant whose seeds are called coffee. See *Coffea*.

COFFEE. See *Coffea*.

COHESION, (*Cohæſio*, *ōnis*, f. from *con*, and *hæreo*, to stick together). *Vis cohesionis*. *Vis adhesionis*. *Vis attractionis*. That force of matter, whereby its parts are connected in such a way that they resist upon their removal or separation.

COHOBATION (*Cohabatio*, *ōnis*, f. A termed invented by Paracelsus) Chemists use this term to signify the distillation of a fluid poured afresh upon a substance of the same kind as that upon which it was before distilled, and repeating this operation several times to make it more efficacious.

COÏTUS, (*Coitus*, *us*, m. from *coeo*, to go together). The conjunction of the male and female in the act of procreation.

COLCHICUM, (*Colchicum*, *i*, n. from *Colchis*, a city of Armenia; where this plant is supposed to have been very common). Common meadow saffron. *Colchicum autumnale* of Linnæus. *Colchicum foliis planis lanceolatis erectis*. Class. *Hexandria*. Order. *Trigynia*. A native of England. The root is thought to possess diuretic and expectorant qualities; and with this view an oxymel and a syrup are directed by the colleges of London and Edinburgh. An over-dose proves narcotic and cathartic.

COLCHICUM AUTUMNALE. The systematic name of the common meadow saffron. See *Colchicum*.

COLCHICUM ILLYRICUM. The plant supposed to afford the *hermodactyls*. See *Hermodactyli*.

COLD. Cold is a privation of heat. It is nothing positive, but somewhat of the negative kind. The human body contains within itself, as long as it is living, a principle of warmth: if any other body, being in contact with it, does at the same time impart to it more caloric or heat than it obtains from the human body, it is said to be warm; but if it receives from the human body more heat than it remits, it is said to be cold.

COLICA, (*Colica*, *a*, f. *κολικη*; from *κόλον*, the colon, one of the large intestines). The colic. It is known by a pain in the belly, and a sensation like a twisting round the navel, attended with vomiting and

costiveness. This genus of disease is arranged by Cullen in the class *neuroses*, and order *spasmi*. The species of colic are: 1. *Colica spasmodica*, arising from spasm: 2. *Colica pictorum*, the painter's, or Devonshire, or white lead colic, which arises from the poison of white lead, and is succeeded by palsy of the hands: 3. *Colica stercorea*, which is common to persons of a costive habit of body.

COLLIQUATIVE DIARRHŒA, (*Diarrhœa colliquativa*; from *colliqueo*, to melt or waste away). A purging which mostly takes place in phthisis, consuming the strength of the patient very rapidly and generally, alternating with profuse perspirations, which are also termed *colliquative*.

COLLUTORIUM, (*Collutorium*, *i*, *n*. from *colluo*, to wash). A fluid medicine which is used as a wash for the mouth.

COLLYRIUM, (*Collyrium*, *i*, *n*. from *κωλυω*, to check, and *ρς*, a defluxion). Any medicine was formerly so called, which was applied with that intention. The term is now only given to fluid applications for the eyes, or eye-waters.

COLÖCYNTHIS, (*Colocynthis*, *i* *dis*, *f*. *κολοκυνθις*; from *κωλον*, the colon, and *κινεω*, to move; because of its great purging powers). *Coloquintida*. Bitter apple, Bitter gourd. Bitter cucumber. The fruit which is the medicinal part of this plant, *Cucumis colocynthis*; *foliis multifidis*, *pmis globosis glabris*, is imported from Turkey. Its spongy membranous medulla or pith is directed for use; it has a nauseous, acrid, and intensely bitter taste; and is a powerful irritating cathartic. In doses of ten and twelve grains it operates with great vehemence, frequently producing violent gripes, bloody stools, and disordering the whole system. It is recommended in various complaints, as worms, mania, dropsy, epilepsy, &c.; but is seldom resorted to, except where

other more mild remedies have been used without success, and then only in the form of the *extractum colocynthis compositum* and the *pilula ex colocynthide cum aloë* of the pharmacopœias.

COLOMBA (*Colomba*, *a*, *f*.). *Colombo*. *Calomba*. *Colombo*. *Calumba*. The root so called is imported from Colomba in Ceylon, in circular, brown knobs, wrinkled on their outer surface, yellowish within, and consisting of cortical, woody, and medullary lamina. Its smell is aromatic; its taste pungent and nauseously bitter. It is much esteemed as a tonic in dyspeptic and bilious cases. A tincture is directed by the Colleges.

COLON, (*Colon*, *i*, *n*. *κωλον* from; *κωλος*, hollow; because it is generally found hollow in the dead body). The second portion of the large intestines. See *Intestines*.

COLOPHONIA, (*Colophonia*, *a*, *f*. *Κολοφωνα*, the city from whence it was first brought). *Resina nigra*. The black resin which remains in the retort after distilling the common resin with a strong fire.

COLOQUINTIDA. See *Colocynthis*.

COLTSFOOT. See *Tussilago*.

COLÜBER BERUS, (*Coluber*, *ri*, *m*. *quod colit umbram*, because it delights in shade). The systematic name of the viper. See *Vipera*.

COLUBRINA VIRGINÆANA. See *Serpentaria*.

COLUBRINUM LIGNUM, (*Colubrinus*; from *coluber*; so called from the snake-like contortions of its roots). This species of snake-wood is brought from America. It is solid, ponderous, acrid, extremely bitter, and inodorous; its bark is of a ferruginous colour, covered with cineritious spots.

COLUMBINE. See *Aquilegia*.

COLUMBO. See *Colomba*.

COLUMELLA, (*Columella*, *a*, *f*. a dim. of *columna*, a column). See *Uvula*, and *Clitoris*.

COLUMNÆ CARNĒÆ. See *Carnæ columna*.

CŌMA, (*Coma*, ātis, n. κομα; from κω or κωω, to lie down). A propensity to sleep.

COMĀTA, (*Comata*, κοματα; from *coma*). A diminution of the powers of voluntary motion, with sleep, or the senses impaired. It is an order of the class *neuroses* of Cullen's nosology.

COMATOSE. Having a strong propensity to sleep.

COMBUSTIO, (*Combustio*, ōnis, f. from *comburo*, to burn). A burn or scald.

COMBUSTION, (*Combustio*, ōnis, f. from *comburo*, to burn). It is difficult to give a good definition of combustion. It is a collection of phenomena, which certain bodies exhibit, when heated with access of air; the principal of which are the continuance or augmentation of heat, agitation, or intestine motion, the emission of light, flame, and a total change of the matter burned.

COMEDŌNES, (*Comedo*, ōnis, m.). See *Crinones*.

COMFRY. See *Symphitum*.

COMMISSŪRA ANTERIOR CERĒBRI. The white nerve-like substance which crosses the anterior part of the third ventricle of the brain, immediately above the infundibulum, and between the anterior crura of the fornix; uniting one hemisphere of the brain with the other.

COMMISSŪRA MAGNA CERĒBRI. The *corpus callosum* of the brain is so termed by some writers.

COMMISSŪRA POSTERIOR CERĒBRI. A white, nerve-like substance, which passes from one hemisphere of the brain across to the other, immediately over the opening of the aquæduct of Sylvius, in the posterior part of the third ventricle of the brain, and above the *corpora quadrigemina*.

COMMISSURE, (*Commissura*, æ, f. from *committo*, to join together). A

term applied in anatomy to the corners of the lips, where they meet together; and also to certain parts of the brain which go across from one hemisphere to the other.

COMPARATIVE ANATOMY. *Anatomia comparativa*. Zootomy. The dissection of animal bodies to compare them with the human.

COMPLEXUS, (*Complexus*, sc. *musc.* from *complector*, to comprise). A muscle situated on the back part of the neck, that draws the head backwards, and to one side; and when both act, they draw the head directly backward. It arises from the transverse processes of the seven superior vertebræ of the back and four inferior of the neck, by as many distinct tendinous origins; in its ascent it receives a fleshy slip from the spinous process of the first vertebræ of the back: from these different origins it runs upwards, and is every where intermixed with tendinous fibres. It is inserted, tendinous and fleshy, into the inferior edge of the protuberance in the middle of the os occipitis, and into a part of the curved line that runs forwards from that protuberance.

COMPRESSION, (*Compressio*, ōnis, f. from *comprimo*, to press together). By this term surgeons express a diseased state of the body, which is the effect of something pressing upon the brain. It should be distinguished from concussion and inflammation. When the brain is compressed either by bone, extravasated blood, or any other fluid, there is giddiness, nausea, vomiting, loss of sense and voluntary motion; coma and stupor, with a paralytic of some part or other; a stertorous breathing, and convulsive twitches. The pulse is in general oppressed and irregular.

COMPRESSOR NARIS, (*Compressor*, oris, m. from *comprimo*, to press together). *Rineus vel nasalis* of Douglas. A muscle of the nose, that compresses the alæ towards the sep-

tum nasi, particularly when we want to smell acutely. It also corrugates the nose, and assists in expressing certain passions. It arises, by a narrow beginning, from the root of the ala nasi externally, and spreads into a number of thin, separate fibres, which run up along the cartilage in an oblique manner towards the back of the nose, where it joins with its fellow, and is inserted into the narrow extremity of the os nasi and nasal process of the superior maxillary bone.

CONARIUM, (*Conarium*, *i*, *n*. *κωνάριον*; from *κωνος*, a cone). The pineal gland is so named, from its conical shape. See *Pineal gland*.

CONCENTRATION, (*Concentratio*, *onis*, *f*. from *con*, and *centrum*, having the same centre). The volatilizing of part of the water of fluids in order to improve their strength. The matter to be concentrated, therefore, must be of superior gravity to water. This operation is performed on some acids, particularly the sulphuric and phosphoric. It is also employed in solutions of alkalis and neutral salts.

CONCEPTION, (*Conceptio*, *onis*, *f*. from *concipio*, to conceive). The impregnation of the ovulum in the female ovarium by the subtile prolific aura of the semen virile. In order to have a fruitful coition it is necessary that the semen be propelled into the uterus or vagina, so that its fecundating vapour shall be conveyed through the Fallopian tubes to the ovarium: hence it is necessary that there be a certain state of the ovarium of the female in order to impregnate it; which is, that the ovum shall be mature, and embraced by the fimbriae of the Fallopian tube to convey that vivifying principle to the ovum. See *Generation*.

CONCHA, (*Concha*, *æ*, *f*. *κονχæ*, a liquid measure amongst the Athenians). A term applied by anatomists to several parts of the body, as the

hollow of the ear, the spongy bones of the nose, &c.

CONCHA AURIS. The hollow part of the cartilage of the outer ear.

CONCHÆ NARIUM, (*Concha*, *æ*, *f*. a shell). The turbinated portion of the ethmoid bone and the inferior spongy bones of the nose, which are covered by the Schneiderian membrane, are so termed.

CONCUSSION, (*Concussio*, *onis*, *f*. from *concutio*, to shake together). Concussion of the brain. This term is employed by surgeons to express a disease, which is the effect of the concussion the brain suffers from a fall or agitation. The symptoms arising from a mere concussion, are vertigo, confusion with pain of the head, tinnitus aurium, and dimness of sight. In general the person is able to walk about, and the symptoms gradually disappear; at other times they fall into a quiet sleep, and awake perfectly recovered. If, however, stupor and coma succeed, other mischief may be suspected, as compression, fracture, &c.

CONDIMENT, (*Condimentum*, *i*, *n*. from *condio*, to preserve or season). A pickle or preserve.

CONDYLE, (*Condylus*, *i*, *m*. *κονδυλος*; from *κονδι*, an ancient cup shaped like a joint). A rounded eminence of a bone in any of the joints.

CONDYLŌMA, (*Condyloma*, *ātis*, *n*. *κονδυλάμα*; from *κονδυλος*, a tubercle or knot). *Sarcoma*. A soft, wart-like excrescence, that appears about the anus and pudendum of both sexes. There are several species of condylomata, which have received names from their appearances, as *ficus*, *cristæ*, *tymus*, from their resemblance to a fig, &c.

CONESSI BARK. See *Coneffi cortex*.

CONESSI CORTEX, (*Coneffi*, *n*. ind. Malabrens). *Codago-pala*. *Cortex profluvii*. The bark of the *Ner*

rium antidyfentericum; foliis ovatis, acuminatis, petiolatis, of Linnæus. It grows on the coast of Malabar. It is of a dark black colour externally, and generally covered with a white moss or scurf. It is very little known in the shops; has an austere, bitter taste; and is recommended in diarrhœas, dysenteries, &c. as an adstringent.

CONFECTIO AROMATICA. *Confectio cardiaca*. This is an excellent medicine, possessing stimulant, antispasmodic, and adstringent virtues; and is exhibited, with these views, to children and adults in a vast variety of diseases, mixed with other medicines.

CONFECTIO CARDIACA. See *Confectio aromatica*.

CONFECTIO OPIATA. *Philonium londinense*. This very warm and stimulating confection is admirably calculated to relieve diarrhœas, spasms of the stomach and bowels, and is frequently ordered as a nervine, stimulant and adstringent.

CONFERVA, (*Conserva*, *a, f.* from *conferveo*, to knit together). A kind of moss: named from its use formerly in healing broken bones.

CONFERVA HELMINTHOCORTOS. See *Corallina corficana*.

CONFERVA RIVALIS. This plant, *Conserva rivalis; filimentis simplicissimis aequalibus longissimis*, of Linnæus, has been recommended in cases of spasmodic asthma, phthisis, &c. on account of the great quantity of vital air it contains.

CONFLUENT SMALL POX. See *Variola confluens*.

CONGELATION, (*Congelatio*, *ōnis*, *f.* from *congelō*, to freeze). That change of liquid bodies which takes place when they pass to a solid state, by losing the caloric which kept them in a state of fluidity.

CONGLOBATE GLAND, (*Glandula conglobata—conglobata*; from *con-globo*, to gather into a ball). Lymphatic gland. Globate gland: A

round gland formed of a contortion of lymphatic vessels, connected together by cellular structure, having neither a cavity nor an excretory duct: such are the mesenteric, inguinal, axillary glands, &c. See *Glands*.

CONGLOMERATE GLAND, (*Glandula conglomerata—conglomerata*; from *conglomerō*, to heap upon one. A gland composed of a number of glomerate glands, whose excretory ducts all unite into one common duct: such are the salival, parotid glands, &c.

CONIUM MACULATUM, (*Conium*, *i, n.* *κοινον*; from *κοινον*, dust, according to Linnæus; or from *conium*, *circumago*, on account of its inebriating, poisonous quality). The systematic name for the *cicuta* of the pharmacopœias. See *Cicuta*.

CONJUNCTIVE MEMBRANE.—*Membrana conjunctiva*. The thin, transparent, delicate membrane, that lines the internal superficies of one eyelid, and is reflected from thence, over the anterior part of the bulb, to the tarsus of the other eyelid. That portion which covers the transparent cornea cannot, without great difficulty, be separated from it. Inflammation of this membrane is called *ophthalmia*.

CONNEXION OF BONES. See *Articulation*.

CONSENT OF PARTS. The same as sympathy. See *Sympathy*.

CONSERVA, (*Conserva*, *a, f.* from *conferveo*, to keep). A conserve. A composition of some recent vegetable and sugar, beat together into an uniform mass of the consistence of honey; as conserve of hips, orange peel, &c.

CONSERVA ABSINTHII MARITIMI. For its virtues, see *Absinthum maritimum*.

CONSERVA ARI. This is occasionally exhibited as a stimulant and diuretic.

CONSERVA AURANTII HISPALENSIS. This is well calculated to form the basis of a tonic and stomachic

conserve, and may be given alone, as possessing such qualities.

CONSERVA CYNOSBÄTI. Conserve of hips: is cooling and adstringent; it is seldom given alone, but mostly joined to some other medicine in the form of linctus or electuary.

CONSERVA LUJŮLÆ. This preparation of wood sorrel possesses subacid, cooling, and antiseptic qualities.

CONSERVA MENTHÆ. This preparation of mint is given, occasionally, as a stomachic in sickness and weakness of the stomach.

CONSERVA PRŮNI SYLVESTRIS. Astringent virtues are ascribed to this medicine, which is now seldom used but amongst private formulæ.

CONSERVA ROSÆ. This composition affords a very excellent way of exhibiting roses: rubbed down with water it forms an excellent drink, with some lemon juice, in hæmorrhagic complaints: it may also be given with vitriolated zinc in form of an electuary.

CONSERVA SCILLÆ. This preparation of squills affords an excellent basis for an electuary, possessing expectorant and diuretic qualities.

CONSOLĪDA, (*Consolida*, æ, f. so called, *quia consolidandi et conglutinandī vi pollet*; named from its power and use in agglutinating and joining together things broken). Comfrey.

CONSOLĪDA MAJOR. See *Symphitum*.

CONSOLĪDA MEDIÆ. *Bugula*. Upright bugloss. Middle consound. This plant, *Ajuga pyramidalis*, *tetragnopyramidalis*, *villosa*, *foliis radicalibus maximis*, of Linnæus, possesses subadstringent and bitter qualities: and is recommended in *phthisis*, *aphthæ*, and *cynanche*.

CONSOLĪDA MINOR. See *Prunella*.

CONSOLĪDA REGĀLIS. *Calcatripa*. Many virtues are attributed to this plant, *Delphinium consolida*; *nectariis monophyllis*, *caule subdiviso*, of

Linnæus. The flowers are bitter, and a water distilled from them is recommended in ophthalmia. The herb is administered in calculous cases, obstructed menses, and visceral diseases.

CONSOLĪDA SARACENICA. See *Virga aurea*.

CONSOUND. See *Symphitum*.

CONSOUND, MIDDLE. See *Consolida media*.

CONSTIPATION, (*Constipatio*, ōnis, f. from *conslipo*, to crowd together). A person is said to be costive when the alvine excretions are not expelled daily, and when the fæces are so hardened as not to receive their form from the impress of the rectum upon them.

CONSTIPATION, (*Constipatio*, ōnis, f. from *conslipo*, to crowd together). Costiveness. See *Obstipatio*.

CONSTRUCTOR, (*Constrictor*, oris, m. from *constringo*, to bind together). A name given to those muscles which contract any opening of the body.

CONSTRUCTOR ISTHMI FAUCIUM. *Glossopharyngeus* of Winslow and Douglas. A muscle situated at the side of the entry of the fauces, that draws the *velum pendulum palati* towards the root of the tongue, which it raises at the same time, and with its fellow contracts the passage between the two arches, by which it shuts the opening of the fauces.

CONSTRUCTOR ORIS. See *Orbicularis oris*.

CONSTRUCTOR PHARYNGIS INFERIOR. *Crico-pharyngeus*. *Thyro-pharyngeus*. A muscle situated on the posterior part of the pharynx. It arises from the side of the thyroid cartilage, near the attachment of the sterno-hyoidæus and thyro-hyoidæus muscles; and from the cricoid cartilage, near the crico-thyroidæus; it is inserted into the white line, where it joins with its fellow, the superior fibres running obliquely upwards, covering nearly one half of the middle constrictor, and terminating in a point: the inferior fibres run more transverse-

ly, and cover the beginning of the œsophagus. Its use is to compress that part of the pharynx which it covers, and to raise it with the larynx a little upwards.

CONSTRUCTOR PHARYNGIS MEDIIUS. *Hyo-pharyngeus.* *Syndesma-pharyngeus* of Douglas. A muscle situated on the posterior part of the pharynx. It arises from the appendix of the os hyoides, from the corner of that bone, and from the ligament which connects it to the thyroid cartilage; the fibres of the superior part, running obliquely upwards, and covering a considerable part of the superior constrictor, terminate in a point; and is inserted into the middle of the cuneiform process of the os occipitis, before the foramen magnum, and joined to its fellow at a white line in the middle part of the pharynx. This muscle compresses that part of the pharynx which it covers, and draws it and the os hyoides upwards.

CONSTRUCTOR PHARYNGIS SUPERIOR. *Cephalo-pharyngeus.* *Pterygo-pharyngeus.* *Mylo-pharyngeus.* *Glossopharyngeus.* A muscle situated on the posterior part of the pharynx. It arises above from the cuneiform process of the os occipitis, before the foramen magnum, from the pterygoid process of the sphenoid bone, from the upper and under jaw, near the roots of the last dentes molares, and between the jaws. It is inserted in the middle of the pharynx. Its use is to compress the upper part of the pharynx, and to draw it forwards and upwards.

CONSUMPTION. Decline. See *Phthisis pulmonalis*.

CONTAGION, (*Contagio, ōnis, f.* from *contingo*, to meet or touch each other). *Effluvia.* *Miasma.* *Virus.* *Lues.* Infection. The very subtle particles arising from putrid or other substances, or from persons labouring under contagious diseases, which com-

municate the disease to others; thus the contagion of putrid fever, the effluvia of dead animal or vegetable substances, the miasm of bogs and fens, the virus of small-pox, lues venerea, &c. &c. There does not appear to be any distinction between contagious and infectious diseases. Would it not be proper to apply the term *contagious* (considering the derivation of the word) to those which are communicated by contact only, as the venereal disease, itch, &c; and *infectious*, to those which are caught through the medium of the atmosphere, &c. without contact, as putrid fever, &c.?

CONTRACTILITY. Expansive elasticity. A property in bodies, the effect of the cohesive power, by which their particles resume their former propinquity when the force ceases which was applied to separate them.

CONTRACTION, (*Contradio, ōnis, f.* from *contraho*, to draw together). *Contractura.* A rigid contraction of the joints. It is a genus of disease in the class *locales*, and order *dyscinæsia* of Cullen. The species are, 1. *Contractura ab inflammatione*, when it arises from inflammation: 2. *Contractura à spasmō*, called also tonic spasm and cramp, when it depends upon spasm: 3. *Contractura ob antagonistas paraliticos*, from the antagonist muscles losing their action: 4. *Contractura ab acrimoniâ irritante*, which is induced by some irritating cause: 5. *Contractura articularis*, originating from a disease of the joint.

CONTRE COU. A species of fracture of the skull, called in Latin *contra-fissura*, in which the fracture happens in that part of the bone opposite to where the blow was received.

CONTRA-INDICATION, (*Contra-indicatio, ōnis, f.* from *contra*, against, and *indico*, to show). A symptom attending a disease, which forbids the exhibition of a remedy that would otherwise be employed: for instance,

bark and acids are usually given in putrid fevers; but if there be difficulty of breathing or inflammation of the side, or of any viscus, they are contra-indications to their use.

CONTRA SEMEN. See *Santonium*.

CONTRAYĒVA, (*Contrayerva*, *æ*, f. from *contra*, against, and *yerva*, a herb. Span. *i. e.* a herb good against poisons). *Contrayerva*. This word is of Spanish origin, and signifies an antidote to poison. The officinal part of this plant, which is obtained from two plants, viz. *Dorstenia drakena*; *scapis radicatis, foliis pinnatifido-palmatis integerrimis, receptaculis ovalibus*, of Linnæus, and *Dorstenia Houstonii*; *scapis radicatis, foliis cordatis angulatis acutis, receptaculis quadrangulis*, of Linnæus, is the root. It has a peculiar kind of aromatic smell, and a light adstringent, warm, bitterish taste; and on being long chewed it discovers somewhat of a sweetish sharpness. Putrid and nervous fevers are the diseases in which this medicine was formerly used.

CONTUSION, (*Contusio, onis*, f. from *contundo*, to knock together). A bruise.

CONVALESCENCE. That space from the departure of a disease, to the recovery of the strength lost by it.

CONVALLARIA, (*Convallaria, æ*, f. from *convallis*, a valley: named from its abounding in valleys and marshes.

CONVALLARIA MAJĀLIS. The systematic name of the lilly of the valley. See *Lilium convallium*.

CONVALLARIA POLYGONĀTUM. The systematic name of Solomon's seal. See *Sigillum Salomonis*.

CONVOLVULUS, (*Convolvulus, i, m.* from *convolvere*, to roll together: so named from its spiral shape, and its twisting round other trees and shrubs). The herb bind-weed.

CONVOLVULUS JALAPPA. The

systematic name of the jalap plant. See *Jalapium*.

CONVOLVULUS MAJOR ALBUS. The juice of this plant, *Convolvulus sepium*; *foliis sagittatis, poslice truncatis*; *pedunculis tetragonis, unifloris*, of Linnæus, is violently purgative, and given in dropsical affections. A poultice of the herb, made with oil, is recommended in white swellings of the knee joint.

CONVOLVULUS MECHOACAN.— See *Mechoacanna radix*.

CONVOLVULUS SCAMMONIA.— The systematic name of the scammony plant. See *Scammonium*.

CONVOLVULUS SEPĪUM. See *Convolvulus major albus*.

CONVOLVULUS SOLDANELLA.— The systematic name of the sea convolvulus. See *Brassica marina*.

CONVOLVULUS TURPETHUM.— The systematic name of the turbith plant. See *Turpethum*.

CONVULSION, (*Convulsio, ōnis*, f.). Clonic spasm. A diseased action of muscular fibres, known by alternative relaxations, with violent and involuntary contractions of the muscular parts without sleep. Cullen arranges convulsion in the class *neuroses*, and order *spasmi*. Convulsions are universal or partial, and have obtained different names according to the parts affected or symptoms; as the *risus sardonicus* when the muscles of the face are affected; St. Vitus's dance, when the muscles of the arm are thrown into involuntary motions, with lameness and rotations. The hysterical epilepsy, or other epilepsies, arising from different causes, are convulsive diseases of the universal kind: the muscles of the globe of the eye, throwing the eye into involuntary distortions in defiance to the direction of the will, are instances of partial convulsion. The muscles principally affected in all species of convulsions, are those immediately under the direction of the will

as those of the eyelids, eye, face, jaws, neck, superior and inferior extremities. The muscles of respiration, acting both voluntarily and involuntarily, are not unfrequently convulsed; as the diaphragm, intercostals, &c. The more immediate causes of convulsions are, 1. Either mental affection, or any irritating cause exciting a greater action in the arterial system of the brain and nerves. 2. An increase of nervous energy, which seems to hold pace or be equi-potent with the increased arterial energy excited in the brain. 3. This increased energy, conveying its augmented effects, without the direction of the will, to any muscles destined to voluntary motion, over-irritates them. 4. The muscles, irritated by the increased nervous energy⁶ and arterial influx, contract more forcibly and involuntarily by their excited vis insita, conjointly with other causes, as long as the increased nervous energy continues. 5. This increased energy in the nervous system may be excited either by the mind, or by any acrimony in the blood, or other stimuli sufficiently irritating to increase the arterial carbon, nervous influence, and the vires insitæ of muscles. 6. After muscles have been once accustomed to act involuntarily, and with increased action, the same causes can readily produce the same effects on those organs. 7. All parts that have muscular fibres may be convulsed. 8. The sensations in the mind most capable of producing convulsions, are timidity, horror, anger, great sensibility of the soul, &c.

CONYZA CÆRULEA, (*Conyza*, æ, f. *κονίζα*; from *κονίς*, dust; because its powder is sprinkled to kill fleas in places where they are troublesome). The herb flea-bane. This acrid plant is exhibited on the continent in some diseases of the chest.

CONYZA MEDIA. *Arnica Suedensis*. *Inula dysenterica*; *foliis amplexi-*

caulibus, cordato-oblongis; caule villosa, paniculato; squamis calycinis, setaceis, of Linnæus. An acrid, subaromatic plant, possessing antidysenteric virtues. It is sometimes called *arnica spuria*.

COPAIVA BALSAM. See *Balsamum Copaivæ*.

COPAIFERA OFFICINĀLIS. The systematic name of the plant from which the Copaiva balsam is obtained. See *Balsamum Copaivæ*.

COPAL, (*Copal*, n. ind. The American name of all clear odoriferous gums). Gum copal. This resinous substance is imported from Guinea, where it is found in the sand on the shore. It is of a yellow colour, faintly glistening, imperfectly transparent, and apt to break with a conchoidal fracture. It is tasteless, and, while cold, inodorous. It is used dissolved in rectified spirit of wine in laxities of the gums, with the same views as mastich.

COPHOS, (*Κωφος*, dumb). Deaf or dumb: also a dullness in any of the senses.

COPHOSIS, (*Cophosis*, is, f. *κωφισις*; from *κωφος*, deaf). A difficulty of hearing. It is often symptomatic of some disease. See *Dyscœcia*.

COPPER, (*Cuprum*, i, n. *quasi æ Cyprium*; so named from the island of Cyprus, whence it was formerly brought). An imperfect metal, of a red colour, and very ductile. It exists in nature in a perfect metallic state, in mineralization by oxygen and carbonic acid; in combination with muriatic acid; in union with arseniac acid; and in a compound with metallic arsenic. Its colours in these ores are, usually, shades of blue, red, green, and orange. Pure copper obtained from its ores, is of a bright red colour; has an unpleasant smell, which is rendered stronger by heat or friction; a nauseous, styptic taste, less sensible, however, than that of iron; and is hard, elastic, and sonorous; if exposed to the air or mois-

ture, its surface becomes changed into a hard green coating. Nitric acid oxydates copper with an energy and rapidity which occasion the disengagement of azot with effervescence. The diluted acid totally dissolves the metal, and produces a nitrate of copper. Sulphuric acid, when concentrated and aided by caloric, has the power of dissolving copper, which by immediate evaporation affords copperas. The acetous acid, whether hot or cold, acts upon copper only with an energy sufficient to corrode it. The salt thus formed is termed *verdigrise*. The uses of this metal in the arts, are numerous. All its preparations are very violent poisons, and ought never to be given internally, but with the greatest caution. The sulphat of copper is a powerful tonic and diuretic, and is given internally in dropsies and weaknesses. Externally, it is employed by surgeons as an escharotic. See *Cuprum vitriolatum*.

COPPERAS. A name given to blue, green, and white vitriol.

COR, (*Cor, dis, n.*). See *Heart*.

CORACO-BRACHIĀLIS, (*Κορακο-βραχιαίος*; from *κοραξ*, a crow, and *βραχίον*, the arm). *Coraco-brachialis*. A muscle, so called from its origin and insertion. It is situated on the humerus, before the scapula. It arises, tendinous and fleshy, from the forepart of the coracoid process of the scapula, adhering, in its descent, to the short head of the biceps; inserted, tendinous and fleshy, about the middle of the internal part of the os humeri, near the origin of the third head of the triceps, called *brachialis externus*, where it sends down a thin, tendinous expansion to the internal condyle of the os humeri. Its use is to raise the arm upwards and forwards.

CORACO-HYOIDĒUS, (*Coraco-hyoideus, sc. musculus, κορακο-υοιδαίος*; from *κοραξ*, a crow, and *υοειδης*, the bone called *hyoides*). See *Omo-hyoideus*.

CORACOID, (*Coracoideus, κορακοειδης*; from *κοραξ*, a crow, and *ειδης*, resemblance; because it is shaped like the beak of a crow). A name given to a process on the upper and anterior part of the scapula.

CORAL. See *Corallium*.

CORALLINA, (*Corallina, dim. of corallium*; from *κορη*, a daughter, and *αλς*, the sea; because it is generated in the sea). *Muscus maritimus. Corallina officinalis*. Coralline. A marine production, resembling a small plant without leaves, consisting of numerous brittle cretaceous substances, friable betwixt the fingers, and crackling between the teeth. Powdered, it is administered to children as an anthelmintic.

CORALLĪNA CORSICĀNA. *Helmintho-corton. Conserva helmintho-cortos. Corallina rubra. Corallina melito-corton. Lemitho-corton.* Corsican worm-weed. *Fucus helmintho-corton* of De la Tourrette. This plant has gained great repute in destroying all species of intestinal worms. Its virtues are extolled by many; but impartial experimentalists have frequently been disappointed of its efficacy. The Geneva Pharmacopœia directs a syrup to be made of it.

CORALLĪNA MELITO-CORTON. See *Corallina corsicana*.

CORALLĪNA RUBRA. See *Corallina corsicana*.

CORALLINE. See *Corallina*.

CORALLINE, CORSICAN. See *Corallina corsicana*.

CORALLĪUM ALBUM. A hard, white, calcareous, brittle substance, the nidus of the *Madrepora oculata*. Class. *Vermes*. Order. *Lithophyta*. It is sometimes exhibited as an absorbent earth.

CORALLĪUM RUBRUM, (*Corallium, i, n. κοραλλιον*; from *κορη*, a daughter, and *αλς*, the sea: so named, because it is generated in the sea). The red coral is mostly employed medicinally. It is a hard, brittle, cal-

careous substance, resembling the stalk of a plant, and the habitation of the *Iris nobilis*. Class. *Vermes*. Order. *Zoophitæ*. When powdered, it is exhibited as an absorbent earth to children; but does not appear to claim any preference to common chalk.

CORDIA MYXA. The systematic name of the Sebesten plant. See *Sebesten*.

CORDIALS. Medicines are generally so termed, which possess warm and stimulating properties, and that are given to raise the spirits.

CORIANDER. See *Coriandrum*.

CORIANDRUM, (*Coriandrum*, *i*, n. *κοριανδρον*; from *κορη*, a pupil, and *ανη*, a man; because of its roundness like the pupil of a man's eye). *Coriander*. *Coriandrum sativum* of Linnæus. *Coriandrum fructibus globosis*. Class. *Pentandria*. Order. *Digynia*. Every part of the plant has a very offensive odour; but upon being dried the seeds have a tolerably grateful smell, and their taste is moderately warm, and slightly pungent. They possess a stomachic and carminative power, and are directed in the *infusum amarum*, *infusum sennæ tartarificum*, and some other compositions of the pharmacopœias.

CORIANDRUM SATIVUM. The systematic name of the plant called *coriander* in the pharmacopœias. See *Coriandrum*.

CORN, (*Clavus*, *i*, m.). A hardened portion of cuticle, produced by pressure: so called, because a piece can be picked out like a corn of barley. Corns are sometimes connected with the periosteum.

CORNŒA OPACA. The sclerotic membrane of the eye is so called, because it is of a horny consistence and opaque. See *Sclerotic membrane*.

CORNŒA TRANSPARENS. The transparent portion of the sclerotic membrane, through which the rays of light pass, is so called, to distin-

guish it from that which is opaque. See *Sclerotic membrane*.

CORNFLOWER. See *Cyanus*.

CORN-SALLAD. This is the *Valeriana locusta* of Linnæus. It is cultivated in our gardens, and eaten amongst the early sallads. It is a very wholesome succulent plant, possessing antiscorbutic and gently aperient virtues.

CORNU AMMONIS. *Cornu arietis*. When the pes hippocampi of the human brain is cut transversely through, the cortical substance is so disposed as to resemble a ram's horn. This is the true cornu ammonis, though the name is often applied to the *pes hippocampi*.

CORNU ARIETIS. See *Cornu ammonis*.

CORNU CERVI. Hartshorn. The horns of several species of stag, as the *cervus alces*, *cervus dama*, *cervus elaphus*, and *cervus taranda*, are used medicinally. Boiled, they impart to the water a nutritious jelly, which is frequently served to the table, and given in diseases: but the chief use of the horns is for calcination; to afford the *liquor volatilis cornu cervi*, ammoniac, the carbonate of ammoniac, &c. which are in frequent use as important articles in the materia medica.

CORNU CERVICALCINATUM. See *Cornu cervi ustum*.

CORNU CERVI USTUM. *Cornu cervi ustum*. Burnt hartshorn shavings possess absorbent, antacid, and astringent properties, and are given in form of decoction, as a common drink in diarrhœas, pyrosis, &c.

CORNŪA, (*Cornu*. n. ind. pl. *cornua*). Warts. Horny excrescences, which mostly form on the joints of the toes. Similar diseased productions have been known to arise on the head and other parts.

CORŌNA GLANDIS. The round, prominent margin terminating the

glans penis, and on which the odoriferous glands are situated.

CORONA VENÉRIS. Venereal blotches on the forehead are so termed.

CORONAL SUTURE, (*Coronālis*; from *corona*, a crown or garland: so named, because the ancients wore their garlands in its direction). *Sutura coronalis*. The suture of the head, that extends from one temple across to the other, uniting the two parietal bones with the frontal.

CORONARY VESSELS. *Vasa coronaria*. The arteries and veins of the heart and stomach. The term coronary is here given from *corona*, a crown, surrounding any part in the manner of a crown.

CORONOID, (*Coronoides*, *κορωνοειδής*; from *κορωνή*, a crow, and *ειδός*, likeness). Processes of bones are so called, that have any resemblance to a crow's beak.

CORPORA CAVERNOSA PENIS. Two spongy bodies that arise, one from each ascending portion of the ischium, and form the whole bulk of the penis above the urethra, and terminate obtusely behind its glans.

COROPRA FIMBRIATA. The flattened terminations of the posterior crura of the fornix of the brain, which turn round into the inferior cavity of the lateral ventricle, and end in the *pedes hippocampi*.

CORPORA OLIVARIA. The two external prominences of the medulla oblongata, that are shaped somewhat like an olive.

CORPORA PYRAMIDALIA. Two internal prominences of the medulla oblongata, which are more of a pyramidal shape than the former.

CORPORA QUADRIGEMINA. See *Tubercula quadrigemina*.

CORPORA STRIATA. So named from their appearance. See *Cerebrum*.

CORPUS ANNULARE. A synonym of pons Varolii. See *Pons Varolii*.

CORPUS CALLŌSUM. *Commissura magna cerebri*. The white medullary part joining the two hemispheres of the brain, and coming into view under the falx of the dura mater when the hemispheres are drawn from each other. On the surface of the *corpus callosum* two lines are conspicuous, called the *raphe*.

CORPUS LUTEUM. The granulous papilla which is found in that part of the ovarium of females, from whence an ovum had proceeded: hence their presence determines that the female has been impregnated; and the number of the *corpora lutea* corresponds with the number of impregnations. It is, however, asserted by a modern writer, that *corpora lutea* have been detected in young virgins, where no impregnations could possibly have taken place.

CORPUS MUCŌSUM. See *Rete mucosum*.

CORPUS PAMPINIFORME, (*Pampiniformis*; from *pampinus*, a tendril, and *forma*, likeness, resembling a tendril). Applied to the spermatic chord, and thoracic duct also. The plexus of veins surrounding the spermatic artery in the cavity of the abdomen.

CORPUS RETICULARE. See *Rete mucosum*.

CORPUS SPONGIOSUM URETHRÆ. *Substantia spongiosa urethræ*. *Corpus spongiosum penis*. This substance originates before the prostate gland, surrounds the urethra, and forms the bulb; then proceeds to the end of the corpora cavernosa, and terminates in the *glans penis*, which it forms.

CORROBORANTS, (*Corroborantia*, *sc. medicamenta*). Medicines, or whatever gives strength to the body, as bark, wine, beef, cold bath, &c.

CORROSIVE SUBLIMATE. See *Hydrargyri muriatus*.

CORROSIVES, (*Corrosiva*; from *corrodo*, to eat away). See *Escharotics*.

CORRUGATION. The contraction

of any part into folds or wrinkles.

CORRUGATOR SUPERCILII, (*Corrugator*, *gris*, m. from *corruga*, to wrinkle). *Musculus supercilii* of Winslow. *Musculus frontalis verus*, seu *corrugator*, of Douglas. A small muscle situated on the forehead. When one muscle acts, it is drawn towards the other, and projects over the inner canthus of the eye. When both muscles act, they pull down the skin of the forehead, and make it wrinkle, particularly between the eyebrows.

CORTEX, (*Cortex*, *icis*, d. g.). This term is very generally, though improperly, given to the Peruvian bark. It applies to any rind or bark.

CORTEX ANGELINÆ. The bark of a tree growing in Grenada. A decoction of it is recommended as a vermifuge. It excites tormina, similar to jalap, and operates by purging.

CORTEX ANGUSTURÆ. See *Angustura cortex*.

CORTEX BELA-AYE. See *Bela-aye cortex*.

CORTEX CANELLÆ MALABRICÆ. See *Cassia lignea*.

CORTEX CARDINALIS DE LUGO. The Peruvian bark was so called, because the Cardinal Lugo had testimonials of above a thousand cures performed by it in the year 1653.

CORTEX CHINÆ REGIUS. See *Cinchona cortex peruvianus fluvius*.

CORTEX CHINÆ SURINAMENSIS. This bark is remarkably bitter, and preferable to the other species in intermittent fevers.

CORTEX CHINCHINÆ. See *Cinchona*.

CORTEX ELUTHERIÆ. See *Cascarilla cortex*.

CORTEX GEOFFROYÆ JAMAICENSIS. Bulge-water-tree bark. The bark of the *Geoffroya jamaicensis*; *inermis foliolis lanceolatis*, of Swartz. It is principally used in Jamaica, and, with great success, as a vermifuge.

CORTEX LAVOLA. The bark bearing this name is supposed to be the

produce of the tree which affords the *anisum stellatum*. Its virtues are similar.

CORTEX MAGELLANICUS. See *Winteranus cortex*.

CORTEX MASSOY. The produce of New Guinea, where it is beaten into a pulaceous mass with water, and rubbed upon the abdomen to allay tormina of the bowels. It partakes of the smell and flavour of cinnamon.

CORTEX PERUVIĀNUS. See *Cinchona*.

CORTEX PERUVIĀNUS RUBER. See *Cinchona cortex peruvianus ruber*.

CORTEX POCGEREBÆ. This bark is sent from America; and is said to be serviceable in diarrhoeas, dysenteries, and hepatic fluxes.

CORTEX WINTERANUS. See *Winteranus cortex*.

CORTICAL SUBSTANCE. *Substantia corticalis*. Cineritious substance. The external substance of the brain is of a darker colour than the internal, and surrounds the medullary substance, as the bark does the tree; hence it is termed *cortical*. See also *Kidney*.

CORŸLUS, (*Corylus*, *i*, f. Derivation uncertain; according to some, from *καρυα*, a walnut). The hazel tree. The nuts of this tree are much eaten in this country: they are hard of digestion, and often pass the bowels very little altered; if, however, they are well chewed, they give out a nutritious oil. An oil is also obtained from the wood of this tree, *Corylus avellana*; *stipulis ovatis*, *obtusis*, of Linnæus, which is efficacious against the tooth-ache, and is said to kill worms.

CORŸLUS AVELLĀNA. The hazelnut tree. See *Corylus*.

CORŸZA, (*Coryza*, *a*, f. *καρυζα*; from *καρυα*, the head, and *ζωω*, to boil). An increased discharge of mucus from the nose. See *Catarrh*.

COSMETIC, (*Cosmetica*, *κοσμητικά*;
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from *κατασκευα*, to beautify). Washes, or any application that preserves the beauty and smoothness of the skin, is so called.

COSTA, (*Costa*, *a*, f. *a custodiendo*; because the ribs surround and defend the vital parts). A rib. The ribs are four and twenty in number, twelve on each side of the thorax.

COSTUS AMARUS. See *Costus arabicus*.

COSTUS ARABICUS, (*Costus*, *i*, m. *κοστος*; from *kasta*, Arab). The root of this tree possesses bitter and aromatic virtues, and is considered as a good stomachic. Formerly there were two other species, the *bitter* and *sweet*, distinguished for use. At present the Arabic only is known, and that is seldom employed.

COSTUS DULCIS. See *Costus arabicus*.

COTŪLA FŒTĪDA, (*Cotula*, *a*, f. dim. of *cos*, a whetstone, from the resemblance of its leaves to a whetstone; or from *κεῖλαν*, a hollow). *Chamamelum fetidum*. Mayweed. Stinking camomile. This plant, *Anthemis cotula*; *receptaculis conicis, paleis setaceis, seminibus nudis*, of Linnæus, has a very disagreeable smell; the leaves, a strong, acrid, bitterish taste; the flowers, however, are almost insipid. It is said to have been useful in hysterical affections, but is very seldom employed.

COTYLOID CAVITY, (*Cotyloideus*; from *κοτυλη*, the name of an old measure, and *ειδος*, resemblance). The acetabulum is so termed by some.

COUCH-GRASS. See *Gramen caninum*.

COUGH, (*Tussis*, *is*, f.). A sonorous concussion of the thorax, produced by the sudden expulsion of the inspired air.

COUNTER-OPENING. *Contra-apertura*. An opening made in any part of an abscess opposite to one already in it. This is often done in order

to afford a readier egress to the collected pus.

COWHAGE. See *Dolichos*.

COWPER'S GLANDS, (*Cowperi glandulæ*; named from Cowper, who first described them). Three large muciparous glands of the male, two of which are situated before the prostate gland under the accelerator muscles of the urine, and the third more forward, before the bulb of the urethra. They excrete a fluid, similar to that of the prostate gland, during the venereal orgasm.

COXA, (*Coxa*, *a*, f.). The ischium is sometimes so called, and sometimes the os cocygis.

CRAMBE MARITĪMA. The systematic name for the sea coal. See *Sea coal*.

CRAMP, (*Crampus*, *i*, m. *krampe*; from *krimpen*, to contract. Germ. This word was first used by Van Helmont). A spasm of a muscle or muscles. See *Contraction*.

CRANESBILL, BLOODY. See *Geranium sanguinarium*.

CRANIUM, (*Cranium*, *i*, n. *κερανον*, quasi *καρανον*; from *καρη*, the head). The skull, or superior part of the head. See *Caput*.

CRASIS, (*Crasis*, *is*, f. *κρασις*; from *κραννυμι*, to mix). A term applied to the humours of the body, when there is such an admixture of their principles as to constitute a healthy state: hence, in dropsies, scurvy, &c. the crasis, or healthy mixture of the principles of the blood, is destroyed.

CRASSAMENTUM, (*Crassamentum*, *i*, n. from *crassus*, thick). See *Blood*.

CRASSULA, (*Crassula*, *a*, f. from *crassus*, thick: so named from the thickness of its leaves). See *Faba crassa*.

CREAM OF TARTAR. See *Tartris potassa acidulus*.

CREMASTER, (*Cremaster*, *eris*, m.

κρεμαστος; from κρεμαω, to suspend). A muscle of the testicle, by which it is suspended and drawn-up, and compressed in the act of coition. It arises from Poupart's ligament, passes over the spermatic cord, and is lost in the cellular membrane of the scrotum, covering the testicles.

CREPITUS LUPI. See *Bovista*.

CRESS, WATER. See *Nasturtium aquaticum*.

CRĒTA PRĒPĀRĀTA. Prepared chalk is a carbonate of lime, and possesses antacid qualities: it is exhibited, in form of electuary, mixture, or bolus, in pyrosis, cardialgia, acidities of the primæ viæ, rhachitis, crusta lactea, &c. and is an antidote against white arsenic.

CRETACEOUS ACID. Fixed air. See *Carbonic acid*.

CRETE, DITTANY OF. See *Dicamnus creticus*.

CRIBRIFORM BONE, (*Cribriformis*; from *cribrum*, a sieve, and *forma*, likeness; because it is perforated like a sieve). The ethmoid bone is so called. See *Ethmoid bone*.

CRICO. Names compounded of this word belong to muscles which are attached to the cricoid cartilage.

CRICO-ARYTÆNOIDĒUS LATĒRALIS. A muscle of the glottis, that opens the *rima* by pulling the ligaments from each other.

CRICO-ARYTÆNOIDĒUS POSTĪCUS. A muscle of the glottis, that opens the *rima glottidis* a little; and by pulling back the arytxenoid cartilage, stretches the ligament so as to make it tense.

CRICO-PHARYNGEUS. See *Constrictor pharyngis inferior*.

CRICO-THYROIDĒUS. The last of the second layer of muscles between the os hyoides and trunk, that pulls forwards and depresses the thyroid cartilage, or elevates and draws backwards the cricoid cartilage.

CRICOID CARTILAGES, (*Cricoides*, κρικουειδης; from κρικος, a ring,

and ειδος, resemblance). The round ring-like cartilages of the larynx.

CRĪNIS, (*Crinis*, is, m.). The hair on the back of the head. See *Capillus*.

CRINŌNES, (*Crinones*, um; from *crinis*, the hair). *Comedones*. Collections of a sebaceous fluid in the cutaneous follicles upon the face and breast, which appear like black spots, and when pressed out, look like small worms, or, as they are commonly called, maggots.

CRISIS, (*Crisis*, is, f. κρισις; from κριω, to judge). The sudden change of symptoms in acute febrile diseases, indicating recovery or death.

CRISTA GALLI. An eminence of the ethmoid bone, so called from its resemblance to a cock's comb.

CRITICAL DAYS. Many physicians have been of opinion, that there is something in the nature of fevers which generally determines them to be of a certain duration; and, therefore, that their terminations, whether salutary or fatal, happen at certain periods of the disease, rather than at others. These periods, which were carefully marked by Hippocrates, are called *critical days*. The critical days, or those on which we suppose the termination of continued fevers especially to happen, are the third, fifth, seventh, ninth, eleventh, fourteenth, seventeenth, and twentieth.

CROCUS, (*Crocus*, i, m. Κροκος of Theophrastus. The story of the young Crocus, turned into this flower, may be seen in the fourth book of Ovid's *Metamorphoses*. Some derive this name from κροκη, or κροκη, a thread; whence the stamens of flowers are called κροκοειδης. Others, again, derive it from *Coriscus*, a city and mountain of Cilicia). Saffron. The prepared stigmata of the *Crocus sativus* of Linnæus. *Crocus spatha univalvi radicali, corollæ tuba longissima*. Class. *Triandria*. Order. *Monog-*

nia. Saffron has a powerful, penetrating, diffusive smell, and a warm, pungent, bitterish taste. Many virtues were formerly attributed to this medicine, but little confidence is now placed in it. The Edinburgh College directs a tincture, and that of London a syrup of this drug.

CROCUS. A term given by the older Chemists to several preparations of metallic substances, from their resemblance; thus, *crocus martis*, *crocus veneris*.

CROCUS ANTIMONII. *Crocus metallorum*. This preparation is a sulphurated oxyd of antimony, and therefore called *oxydum stibii sulphuratum* in the new chemical nomenclature. It possesses emetic and drastic cathartic powers, producing a violent diaphoresis afterwards.

CROCUS ANTIMONII. See *Oxydum stibii sulphuratum*.

CRŌCUS SATIVUS. The systematic name for the officinal saffron. See *Crocus*.

CROTON CASCARILLÆ. The plant which affords the Cascarilla bark. See *Cascarilla*.

CROTON LACCIFERUM. The systematic name of the plant upon which gum-lac is deposited.

CROTON TIGLIUM. The tree which affords the pavaua wood and tiglii seeds. See *Lignum pavauæ*, and *Tiglia grana*.

CROTON TINCTORIUM. The systematic name of the lacmus plant. See *Bezetta cærulea*.

CROTAPHITE MUSCLE, (*Crotaphites*, *κροταφίτης*; from *κροταφος*, the temple). See *Temporalis*.

CROUP. Inflammation of the trachea. See *Cynanche*.

CROW-FOOT. See *Ranunculus*.

CROW-FOOT CRANESBILL. See *Geranium batrachoides*.

CRUCIBLE, (*Crucibulum*, *i*, *n*. from *crucio*, to torment: so named, because, in the language of old chemists, metals are tormented in it, and

tortured to yield up their powers and virtues). A chemical instrument, mostly made of clay, sand, and sometimes of black-lead, forged iron, or platina. It is used for roasting, calcination, and fusion.

CRUOR, (*Cruor*, *oris*, *m*.). The red part of the blood. See *Blood*.

CRŪRA. The plural of *crus*, a leg or root; applied to some parts of the body, from their resemblance to a leg or root: thus, *crura cerebri*, *crura cerebelli*, the *crura* of the diaphragm, &c. &c.

CRURĀLIS, (*Cruralis*, *sc*. *musculus*; from *crus*, the leg). *Cruræus*. A muscle of the leg, situated on the fore-part of the thigh. It arises, fleshy, from between the two trochanters of the os femoris, but nearer the lesser, firmly adhering to most of the fore part of the os femoris; and is inserted, tendinous, into the upper part of the patella, behind the rectus. Its use is to assist the vasti and rectus muscles in the extension of the leg.

CRŪRAL HERNIA. Femoral hernia. A tumour under the groin, and in the upper part of the thigh, arising from a protrusion of part of an abdominal viscus under Poupart's ligament. See *Hernia cruralis*.

CRUSTA LACTEA. A disease that mostly attacks some part of the face of infants at the breast. It is known by an eruption of broad pustules, full of a glutinous liquor, which form white scabs when they are ruptured. It is cured by mineral alteratives.

CRŪPTÆ, (*Crypta*, *æ*, *f*. *κρυπται*; from *κρυπτω*, to hide). A term given by anatomists to the little rounded appearances, at the end of the small arteries of the cortical substance of the kidneys, that appear as if the artery were convoluted upon itself.

CRYSTALLINE LENS, (*Lens crystallina*—*crystallina*, from its crystal-like appearance). A lentiform pellucid body, enclosed in a membranous capsule, called the capsule of the

crystalline lens, and situated in a peculiar depression in the anterior part of the vitreous humour. Its use is to transmit and refract the focus of the rays of light to the vitreous humour.

CRYSTALLIZATION, (*Crystallizatio*, *ōnis*, f. from *crystallus*, a crystal). A property by which crystallizable bodies tend to assume a regular form, when placed in circumstances favorable to that particular disposition of their particles. Almost all minerals possess this property, but it is most eminent in saline substances. The circumstances which are favorable to the crystallization of salts, and without which it cannot take place, are two: 1. Their particles must be divided and separated by a fluid, in order that the corresponding faces of those particles may meet and unite. 2. In order that this union may take place, the fluid which separates the integrant parts of the salt must be gradually carried off, so that it may no longer divide them.

CUBEBAE, (from *cubabah*, Arab.). *Piper caudatum*. Cubebs. The dried berries of the *Piper cubeba*; *foliis oblique ovatis, seu oblongis venosis acutis, spica solitaria pedunculata oppositifolia, fructibus pedicellatis*, of Linnæus. They are of an ash-brown colour, generally wrinkled, and resembling pepper, but furnished each with a slender stalk. They are a warm spice, of a pleasant smell, and moderately pungent taste; and may be exhibited in all cases where warm spicy medicines are indicated.

CUBEBS. See *Cubebæ*.

CUBIT, (*Cubitus*, *i*, m. from *cubo*, to lie down; because the ancients used to lie down on that part at their meals). The fore-arm, or that part between the bend of the arm, including the elbow and wrist.

CUBITAL ARTERY, (*Arteria cubitalis, vel ulnaris*). A branch of the brachial that proceeds in the fore-arm, and gives off the recurrent and inter-

osseals, and forms the palmary arch, from which arise branches going to the fingers, called digitals.

CUBITAL NERVE, (*Nervus cubitalis, vel ulnaris*). Ulnar nerve. It arises from the brachial plexus, and proceeds along the ulna.

CUBOIDES OS, (*Cuboides*, *κυβοειδης*; from *κυβος*, a cube or die, and *ειδος*, likeness). A tarsal bone of the foot, so called from its resemblance.

CUCKOW FLOWER. See *Cardamine*.

CUCULLARIS MUSCLE, (*Cucullaris, sc. musculus*; from *cucullus*, a hood: so named, because it is shaped like a hood). See *Trapezius*.

CUCUMBER. See *Cucumis*.

CUCUMBER, BITTER. See *Colocynthis*.

CUCUMBER, SQUIRTING. See *Cucumis agrestis*.

CUCUMBER, WILD. See *Cucumis agrestis*.

CUCUMIS, (*Cucumis, is, m. quasi curvimeres*, from their curvature). The cucumber. This fruit is the produce of the *Cucumis sativus*; *foliorum angulis rectis; pomis oblongis scabris*, of Linnæus. It is cooling and aperient, but very apt to disagree with bilious stomachs. It should always be eaten with pepper and oil. The seeds were formerly used medicinally.

CUCUMIS AGRĒSTIS. Wild or squirting cucumber. *Cucumis asininus*. The dried juice of this plant, *Momordica elaterium*; *pomis hispidus cirrhis nullis*, of Linnæus. Class. *Monoecia*. Order. *Syngenesia*; is the elaterium of the shops. It has neither smell nor taste, and is the most powerful cathartic in the whole materia medica. Its efficacy in dropsies is said to be considerable; it, however, requires great caution in the exhibition. Small doses are to be given at first, and repeated at proper intervals.

CUCUMIS ASININUS. See *Cucumis agrestis*.

CUCUMIS COLOCYNTHIS. The systematic name for the officinal bitter apple. See *Colocynthis*.

CUCUMIS MELO. The systematic name of the melon plant. See *Melo*.

CUCUMIS SATIVUS. The systematic name of the cucumber plant. See *Cucumis*.

CUCURBITA, (*Cucurbita*, *a*, f. *a* curvitate, according to Scaliger; the first syllable being doubled, as in *calcula*, *populus*, &c.) The common pumpkin. The seeds of this plant, *Cucurbita pepo*; *foliis lobatis*, *pomis levibus*, are used indifferently with those of the *Cucurbita lagenaria*; *foliis subangulatis*, *tomentosis*, *basi subtus biglandulosis*; *pomis lignosis*, of Linnæus, or gourd. They contain a large proportion of oil, which may be made into emulsions; but is superseded by that of sweet almonds.

CUCURBITA CITRULLUS. The systematic name of the water-melon plant. See *Citrullus*.

CUCURBITA LAGENARIA. The systematic name of the bottle gourd plant. See *Cucurbita*.

CUCURBITA PEPO. The systematic name of the common pumpkin. See *Cucurbita*.

CULILAWAN CORTEX. *Culitlawan*. *Cortex caryophylloides*. The bark of the *Laurus culilawan*; *foliis triplinerviis oppositis*, of Linnæus. It very much resembles cinnamon in appearance and properties.

CULINARY, (*Culinarius*, sc. *herba*; from *culina*, a kitchen). Any thing belonging to the kitchen, as culinary salt, culinary herbs.

CUMIN SEEDS. See *Cuminum*.

CUMINUM, (*Cuminum*, i, n. *κuminum*; from *κωμ*, to bring forth; because it was said to cure sterility). *Cuminum*. Cumin. *Cuminum cyminum* of Linnæus. Class. *Hexandria*. Order. *Digynia*. The seeds of cumin, which are the only part of the plant in use, have a bitterish taste, accompanied with an aromatic flavour, but not

agreeable. They are, generally, preferred to other seeds for external use in discussing indolent tumours, as the encysted, serophulous, &c. and give name both to a plaster and cataplasm in the pharmacopœias.

CUMINUM CYMINUM. The systematic name of the cumin plant. See *Cuminum*.

CUNEIFORM, (*Cuneiformis*; from *cuneus*, a wedge, and *forma*, likeness). Several bones are so called, being shaped, or fixed in, like a wedge: such are the sphæroid bone, and some bones of the wrist and tarsus.

CUPEL. *Calillus cinireus*. A chemical instrument, which suffers the baser metals to pass through it, when exposed to heat, and retains the pure metal. This process is termed cupellation.

CUPELLATION, (*Cupellatio*, ōnis. f. from *kuppel*, Germ.). The purifying of perfect metals by means of an addition of lead, which at a due heat becomes vitrified, and promotes the vitrification and calcination of such imperfect metals as may be in the mixture, so that these last are carried off in the fusible glass that is formed, and the perfect metals are left nearly pure. The name of this operation is taken from the vessels made use of, which are called cupels.

CUPRESSUS, (*Cupressus*, *κυπρεσσος*, or *κυπαρισσος*; so called, *απο τη κωνη παρισσος της αλκυωνας*, because it produces equal branches. Every part of this plant, *Cupressus sempervirens*; *foliis imbricatis squamis quadrangulis*, of Linnæus, was formerly used medicinally. It abounds with a bitter, aromatic, terebinthinate fluid; and is said to be the remedy against intermittents. Its wood is extremely durable, and constitutes the cases of the Egyptian mummies.

CUPRESSUS SEMPERVIRENS.— The systematic name of the cupressus of the shops. See *Cupressus*.

CUPRUM, (*Cuprum*, i, n. *quasi*

as *Cyprium*: so called from the island of Cyprus, whence it was brought). See *Copper*.

CUPRUM AMMŌNIACALE. See *Sulphas cupri ammoniacalis*.

CUPRUM VITRIOLĀTUM. *Vitriolum Romanum*. See *Sulphas cupri*.

CURCŪMA, (*Curcuma*, *a*, f. from the Arabic *curcum*, or *hercum*). Turmeric. *Curcuma longa*. *Curcuma rotunda*. *Curcuma longa*; *foliis lanceolatis*; *nervis lateralibus numerosissimis*, of Linnæus. The root of this plant is imported here in its dried state from the East Indies, in various forms. Externally it is of a pale yellow colour, wrinkled, solid, ponderous, and the inner substance of a deep saffron or gold colour: its odour is somewhat fragrant; to the taste it is bitterish, slightly acrid, exciting a moderate degree of warmth in the mouth, and on being chewed it tinges the saliva yellow. It is now very seldom used medicinally, but retains a place in our pharmacopœias.

CURCŪMA LONGA. The turmeric plant. See *Curcuma*.

CURCŪMA ROTUNDA. See *Curcuma*.

CURRENTS. See *Ribes*.

CURSUTA. A root so called in the Edinburgh Pharmacopœia. It possesses a bitter taste, and resembles gentian in many of its properties.

CUSCŪTA, (*Cuscuta*, *a*, f. According to Linnæus, a corruption from the Greek *καούλα*, or *καδύλα*, which is from the Arabic *Chesfuth*, or *Chasuth*). See *Epithymum*.

CUSCŪTA EPITHYUM. The systematic name of dodder of thyme. See *Epithymum*.

CUSCŪTA EUROPÆA. The systematic name of a species of dodder of thyme. See *Epithymum*.

CUSPIDATI, (*Cuspidatus*, *sc. dens*; from *cuspis*, a point; because they are pointed). See *Teeth*.

CUTANEOUS, (*Cutaneus*, *sc. morbus*; from *cutis*, the skin). Belong-

ing to the skin, as cutaneous eruptions, &c.

CUTICLE, (*Cuticula*, *a*, f. dim. of *cutis*, the skin). *Epidermis*. Scarf-skin. A thin, pellucid, insensible membrane, of a white colour, that covers and defends the true skin, with which it is connected by the hairs; exhaling and inhaling vessels, and the rete mucosum.

CUTIS, (*Cutis*, *is*, f.). *Dermis*. The true skin. A thick, fibrous, vascular, and nervous membrane, that covers the whole external surface of the body, and is the situation of the organ of touch, exhalation, and inhalation.

CUTIS ANSERINA, (*Anserina*; from *anser*, *eris*, a goose). The rough state the skin is sometimes thrown into from the action of cold or other cause, in which it looks like the skin of the goose.

CYĀNUS, (*Cyanus*, *i*, f. *κυανος*, cerulean or sky-blue: so called from its colour). Blue-bottle. Cornflower. The flowers of this plant, *Centaurea cyanus*; *calycibus serratis*; *foliis linearibus, integerrimis, infimis dentatis*, of Linnæus, were formerly in frequent use; but their antiphlogistic, antispasmodic, cordial, aperient, diuretic, and other properties are now, with great propriety, forgotten.

CYCLĀMEN, (*Cyclamen*, *inis*, n. *κυκλαμεν*; from *κυκλας*, circular; either on account of the round form of the leaves, or of the roots). Cyclamen, or sow-bread. See *Arthanita*.

CYCLĀMEN EUROPÆUM. The systematic name of the sow-bread. See *Arthanita*.

CYDŌNIUM MĀLUM, (*Cydonium*; from *Cydon*, a town in Crete, where they grew). The quince. The tree which affords this fruit is the *Pyrus cydonia* of Linnæus. *Pyrus foliis integerrimis, floribus solitariis*. Class. *Icosandria*. Order. *Pentagynia*. Quince seeds are directed by the London Col-

lege to be made into a mucilage, which is recommended in aphthous affections and excoriations of the mouth and fauces.

CYMINUM. See *Cuminum*.

CYNANCHE, (*Cynanche*, *es*, f. κυανυχνη; from κυων, a dog, and ανχω, to suffocate or strangle. It is so called from dogs being said to be subject to it). Sore throat. It is a genus of disease in the class *pyrexia*, and order *phlegmasia* of Cullen. It is known by pain and redness of the throat, attended with a difficulty of swallowing and breathing. The species of this disease are: 1. *Cynanche trachialis*, the croup, a disease that mostly attacks infants, who are suddenly seized with difficulty of breathing and a crouping noise: it is an inflammation of the mucous membrane of the trachea, that induces the secretion of a very tenacious coagulable lymph, which lines the trachea and bronchia, and impedes respiration. 2. *Cynanche tonsillaris*, when the pain and redness attack the mucous membrane of the fauces, but more especially the tonsils. 3. *Cynanche pharyngea*, when the the pharynx is chiefly affected. 4. *Cynanche parotideæ*. The mumps; an inflammation of the parotid gland, rendering deglutition difficult. 5. *Cynanche maligna*. The ulcerated, malignant, putrid sore throat. This is characterized by the deglutition being less difficult than in the other species, by spots of a whitish or ash colour attacking the tonsils and mucous membrane of the fauces, sometimes spreading all over the throat, at other times forming distinct ulcers. It is always attended with great prostration of strength and typhus fever, and is very contagious.

CYNARA. See *Cinara*.

CYNARA SCOLYMUS. The systematic name of the artichoke. See *Cinara*.

CYNOCRAMBE, (*Cynocrambe*, κυνοκραμβη; from κυων, a dog, and κραμ-

βη, cabbage; a herb of the cabbage tribe, with which dogs are said to physic themselves). Dog's mercury. *Mercurialis perennis* of Linnæus. A poisonous plant very common in our hedges. It produces vomiting and purging, and the person then goes to sleep, from which he does not often awake.

CYNOGLOSSUM, (*Cynoglossum*, i, n, κυνογλωσσον; from κυων, a dog, and γλωσση, a tongue: so named from its supposed resemblance). *Lingua canina*. Hound's tongue. This plant, *Cynoglossum officinale*; *staminibus corallæ brevioribus*; *foliis lato lanceolatis, tomentosis, sessilibus*, of Linnæus, possesses narcotic powers, but is seldom employed medicinally. Acids are said to counteract the ill effects from an over dose more speedily than any thing else, after clearing the stomach.

CYNOGLOSSUM OFFICINALE.—The systematic name for hound's tongue. See *Cynoglossum*.

CYNOMORIUM COCCINEUM. The systematic name of the *fungus melitenfis*. See *Fungus melitenfis*.

CYNOREXIA, (*Cynorexia*, *e*, f. κυνορεξια; from κυων, a dog, and ορεξια, appetite). A voracious or canine appetite. See *Bulimia*.

CYNOSBATUS. See *Cynosbatus*.

CYNOSBATUS, (*Cynosbatus*, i, f. from κυων, a dog, and βατος, a thorn; so called, because dogs are said to be attracted by its smell). *Cynosbatus*. The dog-rose, or wild brier, or hip tree. *Rosa canina germinibus ovatis pedunculisque glabris, caule petiolisque aculeatis*, of Linnæus. Class. *Icosandria*. Order. *Polygynia*. The fruit of this tree, called heps or hips, has a sourish taste, and obtains a place in the London pharmacopœias in the form of conserve. It is seldom employed but to give form to more active remedies, in pills, boluses, linctuses, &c.

CYPÆRUS LONGUS, (*Cyperus*, i, m. κυπερος; from κυπαρος, a little

round vessel, which its roots are said to resemble). *Cyperus*, or English galangale. *Cyperus longus*; *culmo triquetro folioso, umbella foliosa supra-decomposita*; *pedunculis nudis, spicis alternis*, of Linnæus. The smell of the root of this plant is aromatic, and its taste warm, and somewhat bitter. It is now totally fallen into disuse.

CYPÆRUS ROTUNDUS. This species, the round cyperus, *Cyperus rotundus*; *culmo triquetro subnudo, umbella decomposita*; *spicis alternis linearibus*, of Linnæus, is generally preferred to the former, being a more gratefully aromatic bitter. It is chiefly used as a stomachic.

CYPRESS SPURGE. See *Esula minor*.

CYSTIC DUCT. *Ductus cysticus.* The membranous canal that conveys the bile from the hepatic duct into the gall-bladder.

CYSTIC ARTERY. *Arteria cystica.* A branch of the hepatic.

CYSTITIS, (*Cystitis, idis*, f. *κυστιτις*; from *κυστις*, the bladder). Inflammation of the bladder. A genus of disease arranged by Cullen in the class *pyrexia*, and order *phlegmasia*. It is known by great pain in the region of the bladder, attended with fever, a hard pulse, a painful discharge of urine, and a frequent desire to make water.

CYSTOCĒLE, (*Cystocèle, es*, f. *κυστοκήλη*; from *κυστις*, the bladder, and *κήλη*, a tumour). An hernia formed by the protrusion of the urinary bladder.

CYTĪNUS, (*Cytinus, i*, f. *κυτινος*; from *κυα*, to produce: so called from its fecundity). The bud or flower of the pomgrenate.

CYTĪNUS HYPOCISTIS. The plant from whose fruit the *succus hypocistidis* is obtained. See *Hypocistis*.

D.

D A

DACTYLUS; (*Dactylus, i*, m. *δακτυλος*, a finger: so called from the likeness of its fruit to a finger). The date. The oblong fruit of the *Phoenix dactylifera*; *frondibus pinnatis*; *foliolis ensiformibus complicatis*, of Linnæus: before they are ripe, dates are rather rough and astringent; but when perfectly matured, they are much of the nature of the fig.—See *Carica*. Senegal dates are most esteemed, they having a more sugary, agreeable flavour than those of Ægypt and other places.

DÆMONOMANIA, (*Dæmonomania, a*, f. *δαίμωνομανία*; from *δαίμων*, a demon, and *μανία*, madness). That species of melancholy, where the patient supposes himself to be possessed of devils.

D A

DAISY, COMMON. See *Bellis minor*.

DAISY, OX-EYE. See *Bellis major*.

DAMSON. The fruit of the *Prunus damascena*, which, when perfectly ripe, affords a wholesome article for pies, tarts, &c. gently opening the body; but when damsons are not perfectly mature, they produce cholicky pains, diarrhœa, and convulsions in children.

DANDELION. See *Taraxacum*.

DANDRIF. See *Pityriasis*.

DANE-WORT. See *Ebulus*.

DAPHNE, (*Daphne, es*, f. *δαφνη*; from *δαω*, to burn, and *φωνη*, a noise; because of the noise it makes when burnt). The laurel or bay tree.

DAPHNE, FLAX LEAVES. See *Thymelæa*.

DAPHNE GNIDIUM. The syste-

matic name of the tree which affords the *garou*. See *Thymelæa*.

DAPHNE LAUREOLA. The systematic name of the spurge laurel. See *Laureola*.

DAPHNE MEZERÏUM. The systematic name of the mezereon. See *Mezereum*.

DARTOS, (*Dartos*, *i*, *m*. and *darton*, *i*, *n*. *δαρτος*; from *δερμα*, to excoriate: so called from its raw and excoriated appearance). The part so called, under the skin of the scrotum, is by some anatomists considered as a muscle, although it appears to be no more than a condensation of the cellular membrane lining the scrotum. It is by means of the dartos that the skin of the scrotum is corrugated and relaxed.

DATE PLUM, INDIAN. See *Indian date plum*.

DATES. See *Dactylus*.

DATŪRA STRAMONIUM, (*Datura*, *f*. Blancard says it is derived from the Indian word *datiro*, of which he knows not the meaning). The systematic name of the common thorn apple. See *Stramonium*.

DAUCUS, (*Daucus*, *i*, *m*. *δαυκος*, *απο το δαυιν*, from its relieving the colic and discharging flatulencies). The carrot. The cultivated root of the *Daucus carota*, *seminibus hispidis, petiolis subtus nervosis*, of Linnæus. Class. *Pentandria*. Order. *Digynia*. Scraped, and applied in the form of a poultice, it is an useful application to phagedenic ulcers, and to cancers and putrid sores. The seeds, which obtain a place in the materia medica, have a light aromatic smell, and a warm acrid taste, and are esteemed for their diuretic qualities, and for their utility in calculous and nephritic complaints. The boiled root is said by many to be difficult of digestion; but this is the case only when the stomach is weak. It contains a considerable quantity of the saccharine principle, and is very nutritious.

DAUCUS CAROTA. The systematic name of the carrot plant. See *Daucus*.

DAUCUS CRETICUS. Candy carrot. The seeds of this plant, *Athamanta cretensis*; *foliis linearibus planis, hirsutis*; *petalis bipartitis*; *seminibus oblongis, hirsutis*, of Linnæus, are brought from the isle of Candy: they have an aromatic smell, and a slightly biting taste; and are occasionally employed as carminatives and diuretics in diseases of the primæ viæ and urinary passages.

DAUCUS SATIVUS. A variety of the *daucus carota*, whose seeds are preferred by some practitioners.

DAUCUS SYLVESTRIS. Wild carrot or bird's nest. The seeds of the wild plant are said to be more efficacious than those of the garden carrot: they possess demulcent and aromatic qualities, and are given, in infusion or decoction, in calculous complaints.

DEAD NETTLE. See *Labium album*.

DEADLY NIGHTSHADE. See *Beladonna*.

DECIDUA, (*Decidua*, *sc*. *membrana*; from *decido*, to fall down). *Membrana decidua*. A very thin and delicate membrane or tunic, which adheres to the gravid uterus, and is said to be a reflexion of the chorion, and on that account, is called *decidua reflexa*. The tunica decidua comes away after delivery in small pieces mixed with the *lochia*.

DECOCTION, (*Decoctum*, *i*, *n*. from *decoquo*, to boil). Any medicine boiled in a watery fluid. In a chemical point of view it is a continued ebullition with water, to separate such parts of bodies as are only soluble at that degree of heat.

DECOCTUM ALTHÆÆ. This preparation, directed in the Edinburgh Pharmacopœia, may be exhibited as a common drink in nephralgia, and many diseases of the urinary passages with advantage.

DECOCTUM CHAMÆMELI. A very common and excellent vehicle for tonic powders, pills, &c. It is also in frequent use for fermentation and glysters.

DECOCTUM CINCHONÆ. This way of administering the bark is very general, as all the other preparations may be mixed with it as necessity requires. It is a very proper fomentation for prolapsus of the uterus and rectum.

DECOCTUM CORNU CERVI. *Decoctum album.* This preparation of hartshorn possesses absorbent and antacid qualities, and is a very excellent drink in fevers attended with diarrhoea and acidities of the primæ viæ.

DECOCTUM GEOFFRÆ. This is by far the most proper form for administering this medicine, which possesses laxative, narcotic, and anthelmintic virtues.

DECOCTUM GUAIACI COMPOSITUM. This possesses stimulant and diaphoretic qualities, and is generally exhibited in cutaneous diseases which are dependant on a vitiated state of the humours.

DECOCTUM HELLĒBÖRI ALBI. The itch and some eruptions of the scalp are occasionally removed by this application, which should be used as a lotion.

DECOCTUM HORDEI. Barley decoction is a very nutritive and softening drink, and the most proper of all liquors in inflammatory diseases. It is an excellent gargle in inflammatory sore throats, mixed with a little nitre.

DECOCTUM HORDĒI COMPOSITUM. From the pectoral and demulcent qualities of this decoction, it may be administered as a common drink in catarrh, and several affections of the chest.

DECOCTUM MEZEREI. An acrid and very stimulating decoction, sometimes exhibited in indolent glandular swellings.

DECOCTUM PRO ENĒMATE. A very excellent form for an emollient glyster. A variety of medicines may be added to answer particular indications.

DECOCTUM PROFOMENTO. This preparation possesses antiseptic properties, and may be directed with advantage in sphacelus.

DECOCTUM SARSAPARILLÆ.—This is much extolled by some practitioners in phthisis, and to restore the strength after a long course of mercury.

DECOCTUM SARSAPARILLÆ COMPOSITUM. The alterative property of this compound is very great: it is generally given after a course of mercury, where there has been nodes and indolent ulcerations, and with great benefit.

DECOCTUM SENEKÆ. The chief qualities of the seneka are contained in this form. An addition of a small quantity of liquorice obviates an unpleasant sensation otherwise produced by it in the fauces.

DECOCTUM ULMI. This may be employed, with great advantage, as a collyrium in chronic ophthalmia. It is given internally in some cutaneous eruptions.

DECOMPOSITION. A separation of parts. See *Analysis*.

DECORTICATION, (*Decortatio, onis*, f. from *de*, from, and *cortex*, bark). The stripping any thing of its bark, husk, or shell: thus almonds, and the like, are decorticated, that is, deprived of their pellicle, when ordered for medicinal purposes.

DECREPITATION, (*Decrepitatio, onis*, f. from *decrepo*, to crackle). A kind of crackling noise, which takes place in bodies when heated: it is peculiar to some kinds of salt; which, from a state of solution, are crystallized so rapidly, that the crystals formed burst into minute pieces.

DECUSSATION, (*Decussatio, onis*, f. from *decutio*, to divide). When

nerves or muscular fibres cross one another, they are said to decussate each other.

DEFERENS VAS, (*Deferens*; from *defero*, to convey; because it conveys the semen to the vesiculæ seminales). See *Vas deferens*.

DEFLAGRATION, (*Deflagratio, onis*, f. from *deflagro*, to burn). Calcination. A chemical term, chiefly employed to express the burning or setting fire to any substance; as nitre, sulphur, &c.

DEFLUXION, (*Defluxio, onis*, f. from *defluo*, to run off). A discharge of a fluid from any part.

DEGLUTITION, (*Deglutitio, onis*, f. from *deglutio*, to swallow down). A natural action, by which the masticated bolus or a fluid is conveyed from the mouth into the fauces, and from thence through the œsophagus into the stomach.

DELETERIOUS, (*Deleterius, δηλητηριος*; from *δηλω*, to hurt or injure). Those substances are so called, which are of a poisonous nature.

DELIQUESCENT. Deliquation, or the gradually melting down of crystallized salts, from exposure to the air.

DELIRIUM ANIMI. See *Syncope*.

DELIRIUM, (*Delirium, i, n.* from *deliro*, to rave). A febrile symptom, consisting in the persons acting or talking unreasonably. It is to be carefully distinguished from an alienation of the mind, without fever.

DELPHINIUM, (*Delphinium, i, n.* *δελφινιον*; from *δελφινος*, the dolphin). Larkspur: formerly so called from the likeness of its flower to the dolphin's head.

DELPHINIUM CONSOLIDA. The systematic name of the *consolida regalis*. See *Consolida regalis*.

DELPHINIUM STAPHYSAGRIA. The systematic name of slave-acre. See *Staphisagria*.

DELTOIDES, (*Deltoides, δελτοειδης*; from *δελτα*, the Greek letter Δ, and

δω, a likeness; shaped like the Greek delta). A muscle of the superior extremity, situated on the shoulder. It arises exactly opposite to the trapezius from one-third part of the clavicle, from the acromium and spine of the scapula, and is inserted, tendinous, into the middle of the os humeri, which bone it lifts up directly; and it assists with the supra-spinatus and coracobrachialis in all the actions of the humerus, except the depression; it being convenient that the arm should be raised and sustained in order to its moving on any side.

DEMENTIA, (*Dementia, æ, f.* from *de*, and *mens*, without mind). Madness, delirium, absence of intellect.

DEMULCENTS, (*Demulcentia, sc. medicamenta*; from *demulceo*, to soften). Medicines are thus called, which possess a power of diminishing the effects of stimuli on the sensible solids of the body. There are two orders of demulcents: 1. *Lenient demulcents*, as *starch*, *gum arabic*, and *olive oil*: these are best adapted to irritable constitutions, and those with a remarkable disposition to have secretions morbidly augmented. 2. *Diluent demulcents*, as *water* and *watery substances*: these are calculated for such as have a diminution of the secretions, and whose habits are naturally torpid.

DENS, (*Dens, tis, m. quasi edens*; from *edo*, to eat, or from *odus, οδους*). A tooth. Many herbs have this specific name, from their fancied resemblance to the tooth of some animal; as *dens leonis*, the dandelion; *dens canis*, dog's tooth, &c.

DENS LEONIS. See *Taraxacum*.

DENTAGRA, (*Dentagra, æ, f.* *οδονταγρα*; from *odus*, a tooth, and *αγρα* a seizure). The tooth-ach: also an instrument for drawing the teeth.

DENTARIA, (*Dentaria, æ, f.* from *dens*, a tooth: so called, because its root is denticulated). *Dentillaria*. Tooth wort. This plant is to be distinguished from the pelletory of Spain, which

is also called *dentaria*. It is the *Plumbago europæa*; *foliis amplexicaulibus, lanceolatis scabris*, of Linnæus. The root was formerly esteemed, prepared in a variety of ways, as a cure for the tooth-ache, arising from caries.

DENTATA. See *Dentatus*.

DENTATUS, (*Dentatus*; from *dens*, a tooth, from its tooth-like process). *Dentata. Epistropheus*. The second vertebra of the neck. It differs from the other cervical vertebræ, by having a tooth-like process at the upper part of the body.

DENTES LACTEI. The milk teeth. See *Teeth*, and *Dentition*.

DENTIFRICE, (*Dentifricium*, i, n. from *dens*, a tooth, and *frico*, to rub). A medicine to clean the teeth.

DENTILLARIA, (from *dentella*, a little tooth: so called, because its root is denticulated). See *Dentaria*.

DENTITION, (*Dentitio, onis*, f. from *dentio*, to breed teeth). The breeding or cutting of the teeth. The first dentition takes place about the sixth or seventh month, and the teeth are termed the *primary* or *milk* teeth. About the seventh year these fall out, and are succeeded by others, which remain during life, and are called the *secondary* or *perennial* teeth. The last dentition takes place between the ages of twenty and five-and-twenty, when the four last grinders appear; they are called *dentes sapientiæ*. See also *Teeth*.

DEOBSTRUENTS, (*Deobstruentia, sc. medicamenta*; from *de*, and *obstruo*, to obstruct). Medicines that are exhibited with a view of removing any obstruction.

DEPILATORY, (*Depilatoria, sc. unguenta*; from *de*, of, and *pilus*, the hair). Any application which removes the hairs from any part of the body; thus, a pitch cap pulls the hairs of the head out by the roots.

DEPRESSOR, (*Depressor, oris, m.* from *deprimo*, to press down). Several muscles are so termed, because

they depress the parts into which they are inserted.

DEPRESSOR ALÆ NASI. See *Depressor labii superioris alæque nasi*.

DEPRESSOR ANGULI ORIS. *Triangularis* of Winslow. *Depressor labiorum communis* of Douglas. A muscle of the mouth and lip, situated below the under lip. It arises, broad and fleshy, from the lower edge of the lower jaw, near the chin; and is inserted into the angle of the mouth, which it pulls downwards.

DEPRESSOR LABII SUPERIORIS ALÆQUE NASI. *Depressor alæ nasi* of Albinus. *Incisivus medius* of Winslow. *Depressor labii superioris proprius* of Douglas. A muscle of the mouth and lip, situated above the mouth, that draws the upper lip and ala nasi downwards and backwards. It arises, thin and fleshy, from the superior maxillary bone, immediately above the joining of the gums, with the two incisor teeth and cuspidatus; from thence it runs upwards, and is inserted into the upper lip and root of the ala of the nose.

DEPRESSOR LABII INFERIORIS. *Quadratus* of Winslow. *Depressor labii inferioris proprius* of Douglas. A muscle of the mouth and lip, that pulls the under lip and skin of the side of the chin downwards, and a little outwards.

DEPRESSOR LABII SUPERIORIS PROPRIUS. See *Depressor labii superioris alæque nasi*.

DEPRESSOR LABIORUM COMMUNIS. See *Depressor anguli oris*.

DEPRESSOR OCULI. See *Rectus inferior oculi*.

DEPRIMENS. See *Rectus inferior oculi*.

DEPURATION. The freeing a liquor or solid body from its foulness.

DERIVATION, (*Derivatio, onis*, f. from *derivo*, to drain off). The doctrines of derivation and revulsion, talked of by the ancients, are now

wholly exploded. Derivation means the drawing away any disease from its original seat, to another part.

DERMA, (Δερμα, the skin). See *Cutis*.

DERMATODES, (Δερματοειδής; from δερμα, a skin or leather, and εἶδος, likeness). See *Dura mater*.

DERMATOLOGĪA, (*Dermatologia*, α, f. δερματολογία; from δερμα, the true skin, and λογία, a discourse). A treatise upon the skin.

DERMATO-PATHOLOGĪA, (*Dermato-pathologia*, α, f. from δερμα, the skin, and παθολογία, the pathology). A treatise on diseases of the skin.

DESCENSUS, (*Descensus*, us, m. from *descendo*, to move downwards). Chemists call it a distillation *per descensum*, by descent, when the fire is applied at top, and round the vessel, whose orifice is at the bottom.

DESPUMATION, (*Despumatio*, onis, f. from *despumo*, to clarify). The clarifying of any liquor, by throwing up its foulness in a froth, and removing it.

DESQUAMATION, (*Desquamatio*, onis; from *desquamo*, to scale off). The falling off of the cuticle or skin, in the form of small scales.

DETERGENTS, (*Detergentia*, sc. *medicamenta*; from *detergo*, to wipe off). Those applications are so termed by surgeons, which possess the property of cleansing foul ulcers.

DETONATION, (*Detonatio*, onis, f. from *detono*, to make a noise). The noise produced by the explosion of nitre, or substances containing nitre, when heated, which is greater or less, according to the manner and quantity of the composition, the sudden or gradual application of the heat, the coolness of the vessels, &c.

DETRAHENS QUADRATUS. See *Platysma myoides*.

DETRUSOR URINÆ. The muscular coat of the urinary bladder was formerly so called.

DEVIL'S DUNG. See *Affasatida*.

DIABĒTES, (*Diabetes*, α, or is, m. διαβήτη; from δια, through, and βαίνω, to pass). An immoderate flow of urine. It is a genus of disease in the class *neuroses*, and order *spasmi* of Cullen. There are two species of this complaint: 1. *Diabetes serosus*, in which there is a superabundant discharge of limpid urine, of its usual urinary taste: 2. *Diabetes mellitus*, in which the urine is very sweet, and contains a great quantity of sugar.

DIÆRĒSIS, (*Diæresis*, is, f. διαίρεσις; from δι, to divide or separate). A solution of continuity of the soft parts of the human body.

DIAGNŌSIS, (*Diagnosis*, is, f. διάγνωσις; from διαγιγνώσκω, to discern or distinguish). The science which delivers the signs by which a disease may be distinguished from another disease; hence those symptoms which distinguish such affections are termed *diagnostic*.

DIALŪSIS, (*Dialysis*, is, f. διάλυσις; from α διαλυω, to dissolve). A solution of continuity, or a destruction of parts. An order in the class *locales* of Cullen's nosology is termed *Dialyses*.

DIANTHUS CARYOPHYLLUS.—The systematic name of the clove-pink. See *Caryophyllum rubrum*.

DIAPHANOUS, (Διαφανής; from δια, through, and φαίνω, to shine). A term applied to any substance which is transparent; as the hyaloid membrane covering the vitreous humour of the eye, which is as transparent as glass.

DIAPHORĒSIS, (*Diaphoresis*, is, f. διαφορησις; from διαφορέω, to carry through). Perspiration or increased cutaneous secretion.

DIAPHORETICS, (*Diaphoretica*, sc. *medicamenta*, διαφορητικά; from διαφορέω, to carry through). Sudorifics. Medicines which, from being taken internally, increase the discharge by the skin. This class of medicines comprehends five orders: 1. *Pungent dia-*

phoretics, as the *volatile salts* and *essential oils*, which are well adapted for the aged; those in whose system there is little sensibility; those who are difficultly affected by other diaphoretics; and those whose stomachs will not bear large doses of medicines. 2. *Calefacient diaphoretics*, such as *serpentaria*, *contrayerva*, and *guaiacum*: these are given in cases where the circulation is low and languid. 3. *Stimulant diaphoretics*, as antimonial and mercurial preparations, which are best fitted for the vigorous and plethoric. 4. *Antispasmodic diaphoretics*, as *opium*, *musk*, and *camphire*, which are given to produce a diaphoresis, when the momentum of the blood is increased. 5. *Diluent diaphoretics*, as water, whey, &c. which are best calculated for that habit in which a predisposition to sweating is wanted; and in which no diaphoresis takes place, although there be evident causes to produce it.

DIAPHRAGM, (*Diaphragma*, *ātis*, n. *διαφραγμα*; from *δια*, and *φραγναι*, to divide). *Septum transversum*. The midriff. A muscle that divides the cavity of the thorax from that of the abdomen. It is composed of two muscles; the first and superior of these arises from the sternum, and the ends of the last ribs on each side. Its fibres, from this semi-circular origination, tend towards their centre, and terminate in a tendon, or aponeurosis, which is termed the *centrum tendinosum*. The second and inferior muscle comes from the vertebræ of the loins by two productions, of which that on the right side comes from the first, second, and third vertebræ of the loins; that on the left side is somewhat shorter, and both these productions join and make the lower part of the diaphragm, which joins its tendons with the tendon of the other, so that they make but one muscular partition. It is covered by the pleura on its upper side, and by

the peritonæum on the lower side. It is pierced in the middle, for the passage of the vena cava; in its lower part for the œsophagus, and, the nerves which go to the upper orifice of the stomach, and betwixt the productions of the inferior muscle, passes the aorta, the thoracic duct, and the vena azygos. It receives arteries and veins called phrenic or diaphragmatic, from the cava and aorta; and sometimes on its lower part two branches from the vena adiposa, and two arteries from the lumbares. It has two nerves which come from the third vertebra of the neck, which pass through the cavity of the thorax, and are lost in its substance. In its natural situation the diaphragm is convex on the upper side towards the breast, and concave on its lower side towards the belly: therefore, when its fibres swell and contract, it must become plain on each side, and consequently the cavity of the breast is enlarged to give liberty to the lungs to receive air in inspiration; and the stomach and intestines are pressed for the distribution of their contents; hence the use of this muscle is very considerable; it is the principal agent in respiration, particularly in inspiration; for when it is in action the cavity of the thorax is enlarged, particularly at the sides, where the lungs are chiefly situated; and as the lungs must always be contiguous to the inside of the thorax and upper side of the diaphragm, the air rushes into them, in order to fill up the increased space. In expiration it is relaxed and pushed up by the pressure of the abdominal muscles upon the viscera of the abdomen; and at the same time that they press it upwards, they pull down the ribs, by which the cavity of the thorax is diminished, and the air suddenly pushed out of the lungs.

DIAPHRAGMITIS, (*Diaphragmitis*, *itis*, f. *διαφραγμιτις*; from *διαφραγμα*,

the diaphragm). *Paraphrenitis*. An inflammation of the diaphragm. See *Paraphrenitis*.

DIARRHŒA, (*Diarrhœa*, *a*, f. *διάρροια*; from *διέρρω*, to flow through). A purging. It is distinguished by frequent stools with the natural excrement, not contagious, and seldom attended with pyrexia. It is a genus of disease in the class *neuroses*, and order *spasmi* of Cullen, containing the following species: 1. *Diarrhœa crapulosa*. The feculent diarrhœa, from *crapulus*, one who overloads his stomach. 2. *Diarrhœa biliosa*. The bilious, from an increased secretion of bile. 3. *Diarrhœa mucosa*. The mucous, from a quantity of slime being voided. 4. *Diarrhœa hepatic*. The hepatic, in which there is a quantity of serous matter, somewhat resembling flesh, voided; the liver being primarily affected. 5. *Diarrhœa lienterica*. The lientery; when the food passes unchanged. 6. *Diarrhœa celiaca*. The celiac passion: the food passes off in this affection in a white liquid state like chyle. 7. *Diarrhœa verminosa*. Arising from worms.

DIARTHROSIS, (*Diarthrosis*, *is*, f. from *διαρθρῶν*, to articulate). A moveable connexion of bones. This genus has five species, viz. enarthrosis, arthrodia, ginglymus, trochoides, and amphyarthrosis.

DIASTÄSIS, (*Diastesis*, *is*, f. from *διαστέλλω*, to separate). A separation of the ends of bones.

DIASTÖLE, (*Diastole*, *es*, f. from *δια*, and *στέλλω*, to stretch). The dilation of the heart and arteries.

DIÄTHESIS, (*Diatheſis*, *is*, f. *διαθεσις*; from *διαθῆμι*, to dispose). Any particular state of the body: thus, in inflammatory fever, there is an inflammatory diathesis, and, during putrid fever, a putrid diathesis.

DICROTIC, (*Dicroticus*, *ſc. pulsus*; from *δι*, twice, and *κρῶν*, to strike). A term given to a pulse in which the

artery rebounds after striking, so as to convey the sensation of a double pulsation.

DICTAMNUS, (*Dictamnus*, *i*, m. from *Dictamnus*, a city in Crete, on whose mountains it grows). Dittany.

DICTAMNUS ALBUS. White fraxinella, or bastard dittany. *Dictamnus albus*; *foliis pinnatis, caule simplici*, of Linnæus. Class. *Decandria*. Order. *Monogynia*. The root of this plant is the part directed for medicinal use; when fresh, it has a moderately strong, not disagreeable, smell. Formerly it was much used as a stomachic, tonic, &c. but is now fallen into disuse.

DICTAMNUS CRÉTICUS. Dittany of Crete. The leaves of this plant, *Origanum dictamnus*; *foliis inferioribus tomentosis, spicis nutantibus*, of Linnæus, are now rarely used; they have been recommended as emmenagogue and alexipharmic.

DIDŸMI, (*Didymi*; from *διδυμος*, double). Twins. An old name of the testicles, and two eminences of the brain, from their double protuberance.

DIERVILLA, (*Diervilla*, *a*, f. named in honor of Mr. Dierville, who first brought it from Arcadia). The young branches of this species of honeysuckle, *Lonicera diervilla*; *racemis terminalibus, foliis serratis*, of Linnæus, are employed in North America as a certain remedy in gonorrhœa and suppression of urine. It has not yet been exhibited in Europe.

DIET, (*Dietæ*, *a*, f. *διαίτα*). The dietetic part of medicine is no inconsiderable branch, and seems to require a much greater share of regard than it commonly meets with. A great variety of diseases might be removed by the observance of a proper diet and regimen, without the assistance of medicine, were it not for the impatience of the sufferers. However, it may on all occasions come in as a proper assistant to the cure, which sometimes cannot be performed with-

out a due observance of the non-naturals. That food is, in general, thought the best and most conducive to long life, which is most simple, pure, and free from irritating, and such as approaches nearest to the nature of our own bodies in a healthy state, or capable of being easiest converted into their substance by the vis vitæ, after it has been duly prepared by the art of cookery: but the nature, composition, virtues, and uses of particular aliments can never be learnt to satisfaction, without the assistance of practical chemistry.

DIETETICS. That part of medicine which considers the way of living with relation to food, or diet suitable to any particular case.

DIGASTRICUS, (*Digastricus*, *sc. musc.* from *di*, twice, and *gaster*, a belly). *Biventer maxillæ inferioris*. A muscle so called from its having two bellies, situated externally between the lower jaw and *os hyoides*. It arises, by a fleshy belly, from the upper part of the processus mastoideus, and descending, it contracts into a round tendon, which passes through the stylohyoidæus, and an annular ligament which is fastened to the *os hyoides*; then it grows fleshy again, and ascends towards the middle of the edge of the lower jaw, where it is inserted. Its use is to open the mouth by pulling the lower jaw downwards and backwards; and when the jaws are shut, to raise the larynx, and consequently the pharynx, upwards, as in deglutition.

DIGESTION, ANIMAL, (*Digestio*, *onis*, *f.* from *digero*, to dissolve). The change that the food undergoes in the stomach, by which it is converted into chyme. The circumstances necessary to effect a healthy digestion of the food are: 1. A certain degree of heat of the stomach. 2. A free mixture of saliva with the food in the mouth. 3. A certain quantity of healthy gastric juice. 4. The na-

tural peristaltic motion of the stomach. 5. The pressure of the contraction and relaxation of the abdominal muscles and diaphragm. From these circumstances, the particles of the food are softened, dissolved, diluted, and intimately mixed into a soft pap, called chyme, which passes through the pylorus of the stomach into the duodenum. The fluid which is termed gastric juice, is separated by the minute arteries opening into the cavity of the stomach.—See *Gastric juice*. From various experiments of physiologists, it is ascertained that the gastric juice reduces the aliments into an uniform pap, even out of the body; that it acts in the same manner after death; and that it is the chief agent in the process of digestion.

DIGESTION, CHEMICAL. An operation in which such matters as are intended to act slowly on each other, are exposed to a slow heat, continued for some time.

DIGESTIVES, (*Digestiva*, *sc. medicamenta*; from *digero*, to dissolve). A term applied by surgeons to those substances which, when applied to an ulcer or wound, promote suppuration: such are the *unguentum resinæ flavæ*, *unguentum elemi*, warm poultices, fomentations, &c.

DIGITALIS, (*Digitalis*, *is*, *f.* from *digitus*, a finger; because its flower represents a finger). Common fox-glove. *Digitalis purpurea*; *calycinis foliolis ovatis acutis, corollis obtusis, labio superiore integro*, of Linnæus. Class. *Didynamia*. Order. *Angiospermia*. The leaves of this plant have a bitter nauseous taste, but no remarkable smell; they have been long used externally to ulcers and scrophulous tumours with considerable advantage. Respecting the internal use of this plant, we are told of its good effects in epilepsy, scrophula, and phthisis; and Dr. Withering and others have established its reputation as a diuretic

in dropfies. It is, however, necessary to observe, that this remedy must be cautiously administered; for the plant is of so deleterious a nature, that three grains of the dried leaf have been known to produce the most dreadful tormina.

DIGITĀLIS PURPURĒA. The systematic name of fox-glove. See *Digitalis*.

DIGĪTUS, (*Digitus, i, m.*). A finger or toe.

DIGĪTUS MANUS. A finger. The fingers and thumb in each hand consist of fourteen bones, there being three to each finger; they are a little convex and round towards the back of the hand, but hollow and plain towards the palm, except the last, where the nails are. The order of their dispositions is called first, second, and third *phalanx*. The first is longer than the second, and the second longer than the third. What has been said of the fingers, applies to the toes also.

DIGĪTUS PEDIS. A toe. See *Digitus manus*.

DILL. See *Anethum*.

DILUENTS, (*Diluentia*; from *diluo*, to wash away). See *Attenuants*.

DIOSCŌRĒA. Named in honor of Dioscorides.

DIOSCŌRĒA ALĀTA. See *Yams*.

DIOSCŌRĒA BULBĪFERA. See *Yams*.

DIOSCŌRĒA SATĪVA. See *Yams*.

DIOSPŶROS LOTUS. See *Indian date plum*.

DIPLOE, (*Diploe, is, f.* from *διπλω*, to double). *Meditullium*. The spongy substance between the two tables of the skull.

DIPLŌPIA, (*Diplopia, æ, f.* from *διπλω*, to double, and *οπτομα*, to see). *Visus duplicatus*. A disease of the eye, in which the person sees an object double or triple.

DIRECTOR, (*Sulcus, i, m.*). A surgical instrument in which there

is a groove for the cutting instrument to slide.

DISCUTIENTS, (*Discutientia*; from *discutio*, to shake in pieces). A term in surgery applied to those substances which possess a power of repelling or resolving tumours.

DISEASE. *Morbus*. Any alteration from a perfect state of health is a disease. A disease is variously termed, when it pervades the whole system, and does not depend on any other disease; as an inflammatory fever, for instance: it is called a *general disease*, to distinguish it from inflammation of the eye, or any other viscus, which is a *partial* or *local* one: and when it does not depend on another disease, it is termed an *idiopathic disease*, which may be either general or partial, to distinguish it from a *symptomatic affection*, which depends upon another disease, and is produced by consent of parts. See also *Endemic, Epidemic, Sporadic, &c.*

DISLOCATION, (*Dislocatio, onis, f.* from *disloco*, to put out of place). *Luxation*. The secession of a bone of a moveable articulation from its natural cavity.

DISPENSARY. The shop or place in which medicines are prepared.

DISPENSATORY. A book which treats of the composition of medicines.

DISSECTION, (*Dissectio, onis, f.* from *disseco*, to cut asunder). The cutting to pieces of any part of an animal or vegetable, for the purpose of examining its structure.

DISTICHIĀSIS, (*Distichiasis, is, f.* from *δις*, double, and *τιχια*, a row). A disease of the eyelash, in which there is a double row of hairs, the one row growing outwards, the other inwards towards the eye.

DISTILLATION, (*Distillatio, onis, f.* from *distillo*, to drop by little and little). A chemical process, very si-

similar to evaporation, instituted to separate the volatile from the fixed principles by means of heat. Distillatory vessels are either alembics or retorts; the former consist of an inferior vessel, called a cucurbit, designed to contain the matter to be examined, and having an upper part fixed to it, called the capital or head. In this last the vapours are condensed by the contact of the surrounding air, or, in other cases, by the assistance of cold water surrounding the head, and contained in a vessel called a refrigerator. From the lower part of the capital proceeds a tube, called the nose, beak, or spout, through which the vapours, after condensation, are, by a proper figure of the capital, made to flow into a vessel called the receiver, which is usually spherical. These receivers have different names, according to their figure, being called mattraffes, balloons, &c. Retorts are a kind of bottle of glass, pottery, or metal, the bottom being spherical, and the upper part gradually diminishing into a neck, which is turned on one side.

DITTANDER. See *Nasturtium hortense*.

DITTANY, BASTARD. See *Dictamnus albus*.

DITTANY OF CRETE. See *Dictamnus creticus*.

DITTANY, WHITE. See *Dictamnus albus*.

DIURĒSIS, (*Diuresis*, is, f. *diureo*; from *δια*, through, and *ρεω*, to flow). An increased secretion of urine. See *Diabetes*.

DIURETICS, (*Diuretica*, sc. *medicamenta*, *diuretica*; from *διερω*, a discharge of urine). Those medicines or substances are so called which, when taken internally, augment the flow of urine from the kidneys. This class of medicines comprehends three orders: 1. *Stimulating diuretics*, as *mills*, *colchium*, and *cantharides*, which are best calculated for the aged, the

lax, the phlegmatic, and those with highly diminished sensibility. 2. *Refrigerating diuretics*, as the *acetosa*, *acetum*, *kali acetatum*, and *tremor tartar*; the constitutions in which these are chiefly preferable to others are, the young, the sanguine, and those of remarkable sensibility. 3. *Diluent diuretics*, as *water*, *acidulated water*, and *whew*, which are well adapted for those constitutions in which serosity appears to be deficient, and in which there is a high degree of inanition.

DIVARICATION. The crossing of any two things: thus when the muscular or tendinous fibres intersect each other at different angles, they are said to divaricate.

DIVERTICULUM, (*Diverticulum*, i, n.). A malformation or diseased appearance of intestine, in which a portion of intestine goes out of the regular course of the tube; and thereby forms a diverticulum, or deviation from the usual course, of the alimentary canal.

DIVERTICULUM NUCKII. The opening through which the round ligaments of the uterus pass. Nuck asserted that it remained open a long time after birth; to these openings he gave the name of *diverticula*.

DOCIMASTIC ART. *Ars docimastica*. The art of examining fossils, in order to discover what metals, &c. they contain.

DOCK-CRESSES. See *Lampsana*.

DOCK, SOUR. See *Acetosa*.

DOCK, WATER. See *Hydrolapathum*.

DODDER OF THYME. See *Ephithymum*.

DOG AND DUCK WATER. See *Epsom water*.

DOG-ROSE. See *Cynobatus*.

DOG'S BANE, SYRIAN. This plant, *Asclepias Syriaca* of Linnæus, is particularly poisonous to dogs, and also to the human species. Boiling appears to destroy the poison in the

young shoots, which are then said to be esculent, and flavoured like asparagus.

DOG'S GRASS. See *Gramen caninum*.

DOG'S MERCURY. See *Cynocrambe*.

DOG-STONES. See *Satyrion*.

DOGMA, (*Dogma*, *ālis*, n. *δογμα*; from *δοξα*, to be of opinion). An opinion founded on reason and experience.

DOLICHOS, (*Dolichos*, *i*, m. from *δολῆχος*, long: so called from its long shape). Cowhage. *Dolichos pruriens*; *volubilis*, *leguminibus racemosis*, *valvulis subcarinatis hirtis*, *pedunculis ternis*, of Linnæus. Class. *Diadelphia*. Order. *Decandria*. The pods of this plant are covered with sharp hairs, which are the parts employed medicinally in form of electuary, as anthelmintics.

DOLICHOS SOJA. The plant which affords the Indian kidney bean. It is much cultivated in Japan, where it is called *daidsu*: and where the pods supply their kitchens for various purposes; but the two principal are, with a sort of butter, termed *miso*, and a pickle called *sooju*.

DOLICHOS PRURIENS. The systematic name of the cowhage. See *Dolichos*.

DOLOR FACIEI. See *Tic doloureux*.

DOLOUREUX TIC. *Dolor faciei*. A painful intermittent disease which attacks the face. It consists in a chronic fixed pain, which has paroxysms of acute pain, and, during its presence, gives violent lancinating twitches, like the ticking of a clock. The seat of this affection is in the branches of the facial nerve and the fifth pair.

DORONICUM, (*Doronicum*, *i*, n. Arab.). Leopard's bane. See *Arnica*.

DORONICUM GERMANICUM. See *Arnica*.

DORONICUM PARDALIANCHES.

The systematic name of the Roman leopard's bane. See *Doronicum romanum*.

DORONICUM ROMANUM. Roman leopard's bane. *Doronicum pardalianches*; *foliis cordatis, obtusis, denticulatis*; *radicalibus petiolatis*; *caulinis amplexicaulibus*, of Linnæus. The root of this plant, if given in a full dose, possesses poisonous properties; but instances are related of its efficacy in epileptical and other nervous diseases.

DORSI SPINALIS. See *Spinalis dorsi*.

DORSTENIA. (Named in honor of Dr. Dorsten). A name of the *Contrayerva*.

DORSTENIA DRAKENA. The systematic name of the *contrayerva*. See *Contrayerva*.

DORSTENIA HOUSTONII. See *Contrayerva*.

DOVE'S FOOT. See *Geranium columbinum*.

DRACO SYLVESTRIS. See *Parmica*.

DRACOCEPHALUM CANARIENSE. The systematic name of the balsam of Gilead. See *Moldavica*.

DRACONIS SANGUIS. See *Sanguis draconis*.

DRACONTIUM, (*Dracontium*, *i*, n. *δρακωνιον*; from *δρακων*, a dragon: so called, because its roots resemble a dragon's tail). *Dracontium*, *sive serpentaria*. Dragon's wort. This plant is the *Arum dracunculus* of Linnæus. Its roots and leaves are extremely acrimonious, more so than the *arum maculatum*, with which it agrees in medicinal virtues.

DRAGACANTHA. See *Tracacantha*.

DRAGANT GUM. See *Tragacantha*.

DRAGONS. See *Dracontium*.

DRAGON'S BLOOD. See *Sanguis draconis*.

DRAKENA. See *Contrayerva*.

DRASTIC, (*Drastica*. *sc. medica*)

menta, δραστηνός, active, brisk; from δραω, to effect). A term generally applied to those medicines which are very violent in their action; thus, drastic purges, emetics, &c.

DROPSY, (*Hydrops*, ὕψις, m. from ὕδωρ, water). See *Ascites*, *Anasarca*.

DROPWORT. See *Ceanothe*, and *Filipendula*.

DROPWORT HEMLOCK. See *Ceanothe*.

DROPWORT WATER. See *Ceanothe*.

DROSĒRA, (from δροσερός, dewy, which is from δροσός, dew; drops hanging on the leaves like dew). Sun-dew.

DROSĒRA ROTUNDĪFOLĪA. The systematic name of the sun-dew. See *Ros solis*.

DUCTILITY. A property by which bodies are dilated by repeated or continued pressure. It is peculiar to metals.

DUCTS, BILIARY. See *Biliary ducts*.

DUCTUS AD NASUM. See *Canalis nasalis*.

DUCTS COMMŪNIS CHOLĒDŌCHUS. See *Choledochus ductus*.

DUCTUS HEPATĪCUS. See *Hepatic duct*.

DUCTUS LACHRYMĀLIS. See *Lachrymal ducts*.

DUCTUS LACTIFĒRI. *Ductus galactiferi*. The excretory ducts of the glandular substance composing the female breast. The milk passes along these ducts to the nipple.

DUCTUS PANCREATĪCUS. The pancreatic duct. It is white and small, and arises from the sharp extremity of the pancreas, runs through the middle of the gland towards the duodenum, into which it pours its contents by an opening common to it and the *ductus communis choledochus*.

DUCTUS SALIVĀLES. The excretory ducts of the salivary glands, which convey the saliva into the mouth.

DUCTUS STENŌNIS. The Stenonian duct, which was so called after its discoverer. *Steno* arises from all the small excretory ducts of the parotid gland. It passes transversely over the masseter muscle, penetrates the buccinator, and opens into the mouth.

DUCTUS WARTHONIĀNUS. The excretory duct of the maxillary glands; so named after its discoverer.

DUNG, DEVIL'S. See *Affatida*.

DUŌDĒNUM, (*Duodenum*, i, n. from *duodenus*, consisting of twelve: so called, because it was supposed not to exceed the breadth of twelve fingers; but as the ancients dissected only animals, this does not hold good in the human subject). The first portion of the small intestines. See *Intestines*.

DURA MATER, (from *durus*, hard, and *mater*, a mother; called *dura*, from its comparative hardness with the *pia mater*, and *mater*, from its being supposed to be the source of all the other membranes). *Dura meninx*. *Dermatodes*. A thick membrane, formed of two layers, that surrounds and defends the brain, and adheres strongly to the internal surface of the cranium. It has three considerable processes, the falciform, the tentorium, and the septum cerebelli; and several sinusses, of which the longitudinal, lateral, and inferior longitudinal are the principal.

DURA MENINX. See *Dura mater*.

DWALE. See *Belladonna*.

DWARF ELDER. See *Ebulus*.

DYSÆSTHĒSĪÆ, (*Dysæsthesia*, æ, f. δυσαισθησία; from δυσ, difficultly, and αισθανομαι, to feel or perceive). The senses injured or destroyed by the imperfections of the organs. It is an order in the class *locales* of Cullen's nosological arrangement.

DYSCINESĪÆ, (*Dyscinesia*, æ, f. δυσκίνησια; from δυσ, bad, and κινεω, to move). Motion impeded, or depraved, from an imperfection of the

organ. An order in the class *locales* of Cullen's nosology.

DYSECOEA, (*Dyssecœa*, *a*, f. δυσκοια; from *δυ*, difficult, and *ακοι*, hearing). Hearing diminished or destroyed. A genus of disease in the class *locales* and order *dysæsthesiæ* of Cullen, containing two species: *Dyssecœa organica*, which arises from wax in the meatus, injuries of the membrane, or inflammation and obstruction of the tube: *Dyssecœa atonica*, when without any discernible injury of the organ.

DYSENTERY, (*Dysentēria*, *a*, f. δυσεντερια; from *δυ*, difficultly, and *εντερα*, the bowels). Flux. A genus of disease in the class *pyrexia*, and order *profluvia* of Cullen's nosology. It is known by contagious pyrexia; frequent griping stools; tenesmus; stools, chiefly mucous, sometimes mixed with blood, the natural fæces being retained or voided in a hardened state; loss of appetite, and nausea.

DYSLOCHIA, (*Dyslochia*, *a*, f. δυσλοchia; from *δυ*, difficultly, and *λοchia*, the lochia). A suppression of the lochia.

DYSŌPIA, (*Dysopia*, *a*, f. δυσοπια; from *δυ*, bad, and *ωπ*, an eye). Sight depraved, requiring one certain quantity of light, one particular distance, or one position. A genus of disease in the class *locales*, and order *dysæsthesiæ* of Cullen, containing the five following species: 1. *Dysopia tenebrarum*, requiring objects to be placed in a strong light. 2. *Dysopia luminis*, objects only discernible in a weak light. 3. *Dysopia diffitorum*, in which distant objects are not perceived. 4. *Dysopia proximorum*, in which objects too near are not perceived. 5. *Dysopia lateralis*, in which objects are not seen, unless placed in an oblique position.

DYSOREXIA, (*Dysorexia*, *a*, f. δυσορεxia; from *δυ*, bad, and *ορεξις*,

appetite). The appetite depraved, or deficient. An order in the class *locales* of Cullen's nosology.

DYSPEPSIA, (*Dyspepsia*, *a*, f. δυσπεψια; from *δυ*, bad, and *πεπτις*, to concoct). Want of appetite, accompanied by nausea, vomiting, flatulence, heartburn, costiveness, and pain in the stomach, with other symptoms of debility in the organ of digestion. It is symptomatic of scirrhus, ulcer, poison, worms, chlorosis, pregnancy, gout, nephritis, &c. It is arranged by Cullen in the class *neurosis*, and order *adynamia*.

DYSPERMATISMUS, (*Dyspermatisimus*, *i*, m. δυσπερματισμος; from *δυ*, bad, and *σπερμα*, seed). Slow or impeded emission of semen during coition. A genus of disease in the class *locales*, and order *epischeses* of Cullen.

DYSPHŌNIA, (*Dysphonia*, *a*, f. δυσφωνια; from *δυ*, bad, and *φωνη*, the voice). A difficulty of speaking.

DYSPNŌEA, (*Dyspnœa*, *a*, f. δυσπνοια; from *δυ*, difficult, and *πνεω*, to breathe). Continual difficult respiration, without sense of stricture, and accompanied with cough through the whole course of the disease. A genus of disease in the class *neuroses*, and order *spasmi* of Cullen.

DYSURIA, (*Dysuria*, *a*, f. δυσουρια; from *δυ*, difficult, and *ουρις*, urine). Difficulty and pain in discharging the urine. A genus of disease in the class *locales*, and order *epischeses* of Cullen, containing six species: 1. *Dysuria ardens*, a sense of heat, without any manifest disorder of the bladder. 2. *Dysuria spasmodica*, from spasm. 3. *Dysuria compressionis*, from a compression of the neighbouring parts. 4. *Dysuria phlogistica*, from violent inflammation. 5. *Dysuria calculosa*, from stone in the bladder. 6. *Dysuria mucosa*, from an abundant secretion of mucus.

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EAR, (*Auris*, is, f.). The organ of hearing is situated at the side of the head, and is divided into external and internal ear. The *auricula*, commonly called the ear, constitutes the external, and contains several eminences and depressions, as the *helix*, *antihelix*, *tragus*, *antitragus*, *concha auricule*, *scapha*, and *lobulus*. The external auditory passage, containing the wax, proceeds from its middle down to the membrane of the tympanum, which divides the external from the internal parts of this organ. Behind the *membrana tympani* is an irregular cavity, the cavity of the tympanum, in which are four little bones, the *malleus*, *incus*, *stapes*, and *os orbiculare*; and four openings, one of the Eustachian tube, mastoid sinus, fenestra ovalis, and fenestra rotunda. The tympanum is terminated by the labyrinth. The labyrinth is the remaining part of the internal ear, consisting of the *cochlea*, *vestibulum*, and *semicircular canals*. The arteries of the ear are the external and internal auditory. The veins empty themselves into the external jugulars. The muscles of the ear are divided into three classes: the common, proper, and internal. The common muscles are, the *attollens aurem*, *anterior auris*, and *retrahentes auris*, which move the whole ear. The proper are, *helicis major*, *helicis minor*, *tragicus*, *antitragicus*, and *transversus auris*; these affect the parts only to which they are connected. The muscles of the internal ear are, *laxator tympani*, *tensor tympani*, and *stapedius*, which belong to the *officula auditus*. The nerves of the external ear are branches of the *nervus auditorius durus*, and those

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of the internal ear are branches of the *nervus auditorius mollis*.

EARTH. *Terra*. Modern chemists are of opinion, that no bodies should be admitted as true earths, but such as are perfectly insipid, insoluble, and infusible; and therefore they admit but of seven earths, which are equally simple and elementary. The first constitutes rock crystal, quartz, gritstone, flints, and all hard stones which strike fire with steel, and is called *vitriifiable earth*, or *silice*, because it is the only earth that forms a transparent glass by combination with alkalis. The second is termed *argillaceous earth*, which, in a state of purity, is almost opaque, and disposed in thin plates or laminæ. It is tasteless, like vitriifiable earth, but adheres to the tongue. The other five are, *calcareous earth*, *barytic earth*, *magnesian earth*, *earth of glucine* or *terra circona*, and *earth of jargon*. These simple or elementary earths have distinct properties, and constitute the principles of all those termed compound earths, stones, &c.

EARTH, ABSORBENT. See *Absorbents*.

EARTH, ALUMINOUS. Earth which contains alum. These are found in several parts of England, Scotland, and many other places. See *Alumen*.

EARTH, ANIMAL CALCAREOUS. This term is applied to crabs claws, &c. which are calcareous earth, and obtained from the animal kingdom.

EARTH, ARGILLACEOUS. See *Earth*.

EARTH, BOLAR. See *Bole*.

EARTH, FULLERS. *Cimolia purpurescens*. A compact bolar earth,

commonly of a greyish colour. It is sometimes applied by the common people to inflamed breasts, legs, &c. with a view of cooling.

EARTH, HEAVY. See *Barytes*.

EARTH, JAPAN. See *Catechu*.

EARTH, MINERAL CALCAREOUS. Those calcareous earths which are obtained from the mineral kingdom. The term is applied in opposition to those obtained from animals.

EARTH NUT. See *Pig nut*.

EARTH, SEALED. *Terra sigillata*. Little cakes of solar earths, which are stamped with impressions. They were formerly in high estimation as absorbents, but now fallen into disuse.

EARTH WORM. *Lambricus terrestris*, *Vermis terrestris*. These insects are supposed to possess a diuretic and antispasmodic virtue, with which views they are occasionally employed in foreign countries.

EARWAX. *Cerumen aurium*. A waxy secretion found in the meatus auditorius externus, into which it is separated by the glands around that canal.

EASTERN ANACARDIUM. See *Anacardium*.

EASTERN BUCK WHEAT. See *Buck wheat*, *Eastern*.

EASTERN FOX GLOVE. See *Fox glove*, *Eastern*.

EATON'S STYPTIC. French brandy highly impregnated with calcined green vitriol.

EAU-DE-LUCE. See *Spiritus ammoniæ succinatus*.

EAU-DE-RABEL. This is composed of one part of sulphureous acid to three of rectified spirit of wine. It is much used in France in the cure of gonorrhœas, leucorrhœa, &c.

EBULLITION, (*Ebullitio*, *onis*, f. from *ebullio*, to bubble up). Boiling. This consists in the change which a fluid undergoes from a state of liquidity to that of an aeriform fluid or gas, in consequence of the application of

heat, which dilates and converts it into vapour.

EBULUS, (*Ebulus*, *i*. f. from *ebullio*, to make boil: so called, because of its use in purifying the humours of the body). Dwarf elder, or dancwort. The root, interior bark, leaves, flowers, berries, and seeds of this herbaceous plant, *Sambucus ebulus*; *cyniëstrifidis*, *slipulis foliaceis*, *caule herbaceo*, of Linnæus, have all been administered medicinally, in moderate doses, as resolvents and deobstruents, and, in larger doses, as hydragogues. The plant is chiefly employed by the poor of this country, amongst whom it is in common use as a purgative.

ECCHYMOMA, (*Ecchymoma*, *atis*, n. *εκχυμα*, an extravasation of blood). *Ecchymosis*. Extravasation. Contusion. A black and blue swelling, either from a bruise or extravasation of blood. A genus of disease in the class *locales*, and order *tumores* of Cullen.

ECCHYMOSIS, (*Ecchymosis*, *is*, f. from *εκχω*, to pour out). See *Ecchymoma*.

ECCOPROTICS, (*Eccoprotica*, *se. medicamenta*, *εκκοπτικά*; from *εκ*, and *κοπος*, dung). Opening medicines, whose operation is very gentle; such as *manna*, *senna*, &c.

ECTŌPIÆ, (*Ectopia*, *æ*, f. *εκτοπία*; from *εκτοπος*, out of place). Parts displaced. It constitutes an order in the class *locales* of Cullen's nosology.

ECTROPYUM, (*Ectropium*, *i*, n. *εκτροπιον*; from *εκτρεπει*, to invert). An extraversion of an eyelid, so that its internal surface is outermost.

EFFERVESCENCE, (*Effervescentia*, *æ*, f. from *effervesco*, to grow hot). A small degree of ebullition. That agitation which is produced by mixing an acid and an alkali together.

EFFLORESCENCE, (*Efflorescentia*; from *effloresca*, to blow as a flower). A preternatural redness of the skin. In chemistry it means that phenome-

non which takes place upon crystals, producing a white powder, when exposed to air.

EFFLUVIA, (*Effluvium*, *i*, *n*. from *effluo*, to spread abroad). See *Contagion*.

EGGS, (*Ovum*, *i*, *n*.). The eggs of poultry are chiefly used as food: the different parts are likewise employed in pharmacy and in medicine. The calcined shell is esteemed as an absorbent. The oil of the egg is softening, and is used externally to burns and chaps. The yolk of the egg renders oil miscible with water, and is triturated with the same view with resinous and other substances.

ELAPHOBOSCUM, (*Elaphoboscum*, *i*, *n*. *ελαφοβόσκον*; from *ελαφος*, a stag, and *βισκαο*, to eat; so called, because deer eat them greedily). The wild parsnip. See *Pastinaca*.

ELASTIC FLUID. See *Gaz*.

ELASTIC GUM. See *Indian rubber*.

ELASTICITY. A force in bodies, by which they endeavour to restore themselves to the posture from whence they were displaced by any external force. To solve this property, many have recourse to the universal law of nature, attraction, by which the parts of solid and firm bodies are caused to cohere together: whereby when hard bodies are struck or bent, so that the component parts are a little moved from one another, but not quite disjoined or broken off, nor separated so far as to be out of the power of that attracting force, by which they cohere together; they certainly must, on the cessation of the external violence, spring back with a very great velocity to their former state; but in this circumstance the atmospherical pressure will account for it as well; because such a violence, if it be not great enough to separate the constituent particles of a body far enough to let in any foreign matter, must occasion many vacuola between the se-

parated surfaces, so that upon the removal they will close again by the pressure of the aerial fluid upon the external parts, *i. e.* the body will come again into its natural posture. The included air, likewise, in most bodies, gives that power of resiliency upon their percussion; and because a tolerable understanding of the affair is of great importance in physical reasoning, and helpful to the knowledge of many modern writings, it may be worth giving an abstract hereof from the best authors upon the subject.

If two bodies perfectly *elastic* strike one against another, there will be or remain in each the same relative velocity as before, *i. e.* they will recede with the same velocity as they meet together with. For the compressive force, or the magnitude of the stroke in any given bodies, arises from the relative velocity of those bodies, and is proportional to it: and bodies perfectly *elastic* will restore themselves completely to the figure they had before the shock; or, in other words, the restitutive force is equal to the compressive, and therefore must be equal to the force with which they came together, and consequently they must by elasticity recede again from each other with the same velocity. Hence, taking equal times before and after the shock, the distances between the bodies will be equal: and therefore the distances of times from the common center of gravity will, in the same times, be equal. And hence the laws of percussion of bodies perfectly elastic are easily deduced.

ELATERIUM, (*Elaterium*, *i*, *n*. *ελατηριον*; from *ελαυνω*, to stimulate or agitate: so named from its great purgative qualities). The juice of the *Cucumis agrestis*. See *Cucumis agrestis*.

ELATINE, (*Elatine*, *es*, *f*. *ελατινη*; from *ελατταν*; smaller, being the smaller species), Fluellen. Female speedwell. *Antirrhinum elatine* of Linnæus.

The leaves of this plant have a roughish bitter taste, but no smell. It was formerly much used against scurvy and old ulcerations, but now wholly forgotten.

ELCŌSIS, (*Elcosis*, *is*, f. *ελκοςις*; from *ελκε*, an ulcer). A disease attended with fetid, carious, and chronic ulcers. The term is seldom used.

ELDER. See *Sambucus*.

ELDER DWAF. See *Ebulus*.

ELECAMPANE. See *Enula campana*.

ELECTRICITY, (*Electricitas*, *ātis*, f. from *electrum*, *ηλεκτρον*, from *ελκω*, the sun, because of its bright shining colour; or from *ελκω*, to draw, because of its magnetic power). A property which certain bodies possess when rubbed, heated, or excited, whereby they attract remote bodies, and frequently emit sparks or streams of light. The ancients first observed this property in amber, which they called *electrum*, and hence arose the word electricity. The efficacy of electricity in the cure of several diseases has been supported by many very respectable authorities, especially in paralytic diseases. It considerably augments the circulation of the blood, and excites the action of the absorbents.

ELECTRUM, (*Electrum*, *i*, n. *ηλεκτρον*). Amber was so called by the ancients. See *Amber*.

ELECTUARIUM CASSIÆ. This is a very elegant, pleasant, and mild aperient, calculated for the feeble and for children.

ELECTUARIUM CATECHU. A very useful adstringent, and, perhaps, the most efficacious way of giving the catechu to advantage. Ten scruples of this electuary contain one grain of opium.

ELECTUARIUM OPIATUM. This preparation, ordered in the Edinburgh Pharmacopœia, is an excellent aromatic adstringent, and calculated for the debilitated, the aged, and ner-

vous. One grain of opium is contained in about a drachm.

ELECTUARIUM SCAMMONII. This is a strong stimulating cathartic and calculated to remove worms from the primæ viæ, with which view it mostly exhibited.

ELECTUARIUM E SENNÆ. mild and elegant aperient: well adapted for pregnant women, and the whose bowels are easily moved.

ELECTUARY, (*Electuarium*, *i*, from *eligo*, to choose). A medicine containing several ingredients that are mixed together by a fluid into a consistence of honey.

ELEMENTS. Radicals. First principles. The minutest particles of any substance, which can no further be divided or decomposed by chemical analysis. Many substances cannot be farther decomposed by the chemical analysis, but this does not entitle the ranking them among the elements. Though they are yet decomposed, it does not follow that they are *undecomposable*; as, perhaps, neither our senses nor our instruments will ever reach those substances which by their nature admit of no sort of decomposition. The bodies which are known to us at present, however, as simple substances, amount to forty-one; some of these may be sensibly exhibited in their simple state, and combined with other matters: these are termed *ostensible*, *producible*, *simple substances*, to distinguish them from those whose existence or presence is only inferred from facts, and are called *unostensible*, *unproducible*, *simple substances*. The following is a list of simple substances at present known.

Unproducible simple Substances.

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|-----------------|------------------|-------------|---|
| 1. Phlogiston, | or | 6. Sulphur. | } |
| basis of light. | 7. Phosphor. | | |
| 2. Oxygen. | 8. Muriatic | | |
| 3. Hydrogen. | 9. Fluoric | | |
| 4. Azotic | 10. Boracic | | |
| 5. Carbonic | 11. Rad. of gold | | |

12. Rad. of platina 22. Rad. of nickel.
 13. — silver. 23. — cobalt.
 14. — mercury 24. — arsenic.
 15. — lead. 25. — mangan.
 16. — copper. 26. — molybd.
 17. — iron. 27. — wolfranc
 18. — tin. 28. — uranium
 19. — zinc. 29. — titanium
 20. — bismuth. 30. — tellurium
 21. — antim. 31. — chronic.

Producible, offerfible, fimple Subftances.

- | | | |
|---------------|---------------|----------|
| 32. Caloric. | 37. Strontian | } Earth. |
| 33. Siliceous | 38. Argillac. | |
| 34. Calcar. | 39. Glucine | |
| 35. Magnesi. | 40. Vegetab. | |
| 36. Ponder. | 41. Mineral | } Alk. |

ELEMI, (*Elemi*, n. ind. It is faid this is its Ethiopian name). Gum elemi. The parent plant of this resin is fupposed to be the *Amyris elemifera*; *foliis ternis quinato-pinnatifque fubtus tomentofis*, of Linnæus. Elemi is brought here from the Spanifh Weft Indies: it is moft efteemed when foftifh, fomewhat transparent, of a pale whitifh colour, inclining a little to green, and of a ftrong, though not unpleafant fmell. It is only ufed in ointments and plafters, and is a powerful digeftive.

ELEOSELINUM, (*Eleofelinum*, i, n. *ελεοσελινον*; from *ελος*, a lake, and *σελινον*, parfley). See *Apium*.

ELEPHANTIASIS, (*Elephantiasis*, i, f. *ελεφαντιασις*; from *ελεφας*, an elephant: fo named from the legs of people affected with this diforder growing fcaly, rough, and wonderfully large, like the legs of an elephant). *Elephas*. A difeafe that moftly affects the feet, which appear fomewhat like thofe of the elephant. It is known by the fkin being thick, rough, wrinkly, unctuous, and void of hair, and moftly without the fenfe of feeling. It is faid to be contagious. Cullen makes it a genus of difeafe in the clafs *cachexia*, and order *impetigines*.

ELETTARI PRIMUM. See *Amomum verum*.

ELEUTHERIA BARK. See *Cascarilla cortex*.

ELEUTHERIE CORTEX. See *Cascarilla cortex*.

ELEVATOR, (*Elevator*, oris, m. from *elevo*, to lift up). A mufcle is fo called whose office is to lift up the part to which it is attached. Alfo a chirurgical inftrument with which furgeons raife any deprefsed portion of bone, but chiefly thofe of the cranium.

ELEVATOR LABII SUPERIORIS PROPRIUS. See *Levator labii fuperioris alæque nafi*.

ELEVATOR LABII INFERIORIS PROPRIUS. See *Levator labii inferioris*.

ELEVATOR LABIORUM COMMUNIS. See *Levator anguli oris*.

ELICHRYSUM, (*Elichryfum*, i, n. *ηλιοχρυςον*; from *ελος*, the fun, and *χρυςος*, gold: fo called from their fhining yellow appearance). *Stachas citrina*. Goldilocks. This fmall downy plant is the *Gnaphalium stachas* of Linnæus. The flowers are warm, pungent, and bitter, and faid to poffefs aperient and corroborant virtues.

ELIXIR, (*Elixir*, n. ind. from *elekfer*, an Arabic word fignifying quinteffence). A term formerly applied to many preparations fimilar to compound tinctures. It is now very little employed.

ELLEBORUM. See *Helleborus albus*.

ELM. See *Ulmus*.

ELM-LEAVED SUMACH. See *Sumach*.

ELYTROCELE, (*Elytrocele*, es, f. *ελυτροκηλη*; from *ελυτροι*, the vagina, and *κηλη*, a tumour). A hernia in the vagina.

ELYTROID, (*Elytroides*, *ελυτροειδης*; from *ελυτρον*, a fheath, and *ειδος*, form). The tunica vaginalis is fo called by fome writers, becaufe it includes the teftis like a fheath.

EMBROCATION, (*Embrocatio, onis*, f. from *εμβρῆχω*, to moisten or soak in). A fluid application to rub any part of the body with.

EMBRYO, (*Embryo, onis*, m. *ἐμβρυον*; from *ἐμβρύω*, to bud forth). The *fœtus in utero* is so called before the fifth month of pregnancy, because its growth resembles that of the budding of a plant.

EMBRYOTOMY, (*Embryotomia, æ*, f. *ἐμβρυοτομία*; from *ἐμβρυον*, a fœtus, and *τέμνω*, to cut). The separating of any part of the fœtus whilst in *utero*, to extract it.

EMETICS, (*Emetica, sc. medicamenta, ἐμετικά*; from *ἐμεω*, to vomit). Under this name are to be considered those medicines which, taken into the stomach in a sound state, are capable of exciting vomiting. This class of medicines may be divided into four orders: 1. *Irritating emetics*, as *antimonium tartarizatum*, *vitriolum album*, and *hydrargyrus vitriolatus*, which are to be selected for the vigorous in constitution, the melancholic, and those who are with difficulty affected by emetics. 2. *Evacuating emetics*, as *ipecacuanha*, *asarum*, and *scilla*, adapted to any habit, but are to be preferred for the plethoric and infirm. 3. *Calefacient emetics*, as *mustard* and *horseradish*, which are principally adapted for the delicate and debilitated. 4. *Narcotic emetics*, as *nicotiana* and *tabacum*, admissible only in those constitutions where there is no degree of irritability in the nervous system.

EMINENTIÆ QUADRIGEMINÆ.
See *Tubercula quadrigemina*.

EMMENAGOGUES, (*Emmenagoga, sc. medicamenta, ἐμμηναγωγά*; from *ἐμμηνα*, the menses, and *αγω*, to move). Those medicines that possess a power of promoting that monthly discharge of blood by the uterus, which, from a law of the animal œconomy, should take place in certain conditions of the female system.

The articles belonging to this class may be referred to four orders: 1. *Stimulating emmenagogues*, as *hydrargyrite* and *antimonial preparations* which are principally adapted for the young, and those with peculiar insensibility of the uterus. 2. *Irritating emmenagogues*, as *aloes*, *savine*, and *Spanish flies*: these are to be preferred in torpid and chlorotic habits. 3. *Tonic emmenagogues*, as *ferruginous preparations*, *cold bath*, and *exercise*, which are advantageously selected for the lax and phlegmatic. 4. *Antispasmodic emmenagogues*, as *assafœtida*, *castor* and *pediluvia*: the constitutions to which these are more especially suited are the delicate, the weak, and the irritable.

EMOLLIENTS, (*Emollientia, sc. medicamenta*; from *emollio*, to soften). Those substances which possess a power of relaxing the living animal fibre without producing that effect from any mechanical action. The different articles belonging to this class of medicines may be comprehended under the following orders: 1. *Humectant emollients*, as *warm water* and *tepid vapours*, which are fitted for the robust, and those in the prime of life. 2. *Relaxing emollients*, as *alibœa*, *malva*, &c. These may be employed in all constitutions, while, at the same time, they do not claim a preference to others from any particular habit of body. 3. *Lubricating emollients*, as *bland oils*, *fat*, and *lard*. The same observation will hold of this order as was made of the last mentioned. 4. *Atonic emollients*, as *opium* and *pediluvia*: these are applicable to any constitution, but are to be preferred in habits where the effects of this class are required over the system in general.

EMPHYSĒMA, (*Emphysema, atis, n ἐμφυσήμα*; from *ἐμφυσω*, to inflate) Air in the cellular membrane. See *Pneumatosis*.

EMPIRIC, (*Empiricus, ἐμπειρικός*

from *in*, *in*, and *πειρα*, experience). One who practises the healing art upon experience, and not theory. This is the true meaning of the word empiric: but it is now applied, in a very opposite sense, to those who deviate from the line of conduct pursued by scientific and regular practitioners, and vend nostrums, or sound their own praise in the public papers.

EMPLASTRUM AMMŌNIACI CUM HYDRARGYRO. This mixture of ammoniacum hydrargyrus and sulphurated oil is said to possess resolvent virtues, and the plaster is recommended with this view to be applied to nodes, tophes, indurated glands, and tumours.

EMPLASTRUM ASÆFETIDÆ.—This plaster, ordered by the Edinburgh Pharmacopœia, is said to possess anodyne and antispasmodic virtues. It is therefore occasionally directed to be applied to the umbilical region in hysterical cases.

EMPLASTRUM CANTHARIDIS. The virtues of this plaster are enumerated under the title of cantharides.

EMPLASTRUM CÉRÆ COMPOSITUM. This is a gently drawing preparation, calculated to promote a moderate discharge from a blistered surface, with which intention it is mostly used. Where the stronger preparations irritate, this will be found, in general, to agree.

EMPLASTRUM CUMINI. A warm stomachic plaster, which, when applied to the stomach, expels flatulency. To indolent scrophulous tumours, where the object is to promote suppuration, this is an efficacious plaster.

EMPLASTRUM LADANI COMPOSITUM. This may be used with the same intentions as the cumin plaster, to which it is in no way superior, though composed of more expensive materials.

EMPLASTRUM LITHARGYRI.—Excoriations of the skin, slight burns,

and the like may be covered with this plaster: but it is in more general use, as a defenitive, where the skin becomes red from lying a long time on the part.

EMPLASTRUM LITHARGYRI COMPOSITUM.—This is a warm, stimulating, and suppurative plaster, calculated to promote maturation of indolent or scirrhous tumours, and to allay the pains of sciatica, arthodynea, &c.

EMPLASTRUM LITHARGYRI CUM HYDRARGYRO. Plasters of this compound are frequently applied to resolve venereal bubos, nodes, tophes, and swelled joints from the same cause.

EMPLASTRUM LITHARGYRI CUM RESINA. This is the common adhesive plaster used by surgeons to retain dressings in their places, and to keep together the edges of wounds, ulcers, &c.

EMPLASTRUM PĪCIS BURGUNDIÆ COMPOSITUM. From the slight degree of redness this stimulating application produces, it is adapted to gently irritate the skin, and thus relieve rheumatic pains. Applied to the temples it is sometimes of use in pains of the head.

EMPLASTRUM SAPŌNIS. Discutient properties are attributed to this elegant plaster, with which view it is applied to lymphatic and other indolent tumours. It forms an admirable, defenitive, and soft application, spread on linen, to surround a fractured limb.

EMPLASTRUM THURIS COMPOSITUM. This plaster is said to possess strengthening, as well as adhesive powers. By keeping the skin firm, it may give tone to the relaxed muscles it surrounds, but cannot, in any other way, impart more strength than the common adhesive plaster.

EMPROSTHŌTŌNUS, (*Emprosthotonus*, *i*, *m*. *εμπροσθοτονος*; from *εμπροσθεν*, before, or forwards, and *τὸν*,

to draw)). A clonic spasm of several muscles, so as to keep the body in a fixed position and bent forward. Cullen considers it as a species of tetanus. See *Tetanus*.

EMPYĒMA, (*Empyema*, *ātis*, n. *ἐμπύημα*; from *εν*, within, and *πύον*, pus). A collection of pus in the cavity of the thorax. It is one of the terminations of pleuritis.

EMPYREUMA, (*Empyreuma*, *ātis*, n. *ἐμπύρευμα*; from *ἐμπύρεω*, to kindle, and *πύρ*, fire). The offensive smell that distilled waters and other substances receive from being exposed too much to fire.

EMPYREUMATIC. Smelling as it were burnt: thus empyreumatic oils are those distilled with a great heat, and impregnated with a smell of the fire.

EMULGENT VESSELS, (*Vasa emulgentia*; from *emulgeo*, to milk out: applied to the veins and arteries which go from the aorta and vena cava to the kidneys, because the ancients supposed they strained, and, as it were, milked the serum through the kidneys). Renal vessels. The vessels of the kidneys are so termed. The emulgent artery is a branch of the aorta. The emulgent vein evacuates its blood into the ascending cava.

EMULSIO ARABICA. This cooling and demulcent emulsion, ordered in the Edinburgh Pharmacopœia, may be drank ad libitum to mitigate ardor urinæ, whether from the venereal virus, or any other cause. In difficult and painful micturition and strangury it is of infinite service.

EMULSIO CAMPHORATA. A much more useful form of giving camphire than that directed by the London Pharmacopœia; yet a great quantity of the camphire is unnecessarily lost in this preparation. It is calculated for the stomachs of those who can only bear small quantities of camphire.

EMULSION, (*Emulsio*, *onis*, f.).

A soft and somewhat oily medicine resembling milk.

EMUNCTORY, (*Emunctorium*, i. n. from *emungo*, to drain off). The excretory ducts of the body are so termed: thus the exhaling arteries of the skin constitute the great emunctory of the body.

ENAMEL. See *Teeth*.

ENARTHROSIS, (*Enarthrosis*, i. s. f. *ἐναρθρωσις*; from *εν*, in, and *αρθρον*, a joint). The ball and socket joint. A species of diarthrosis, or moveable connexion, in which the round head of one bone is received into the deep cavity of another, so as to admit of motion in every direction; as the head of the os femoris with the acetabulum of the os innominatum. See *Articulation*.

ENCANTHIS, (*Encanthis*, *īdis*, f. *ἐγκανθις*; from *εν*, in, and *κανθος*, the angle of the eye). An excrescence or intumescence of the lachrymal caruncle, which is situated in the inner angle or canthus of the eye.

ENCAUMA, (*Encauma*, *ātis*, n. *ἐγκαυμα*; from *εν*, in, and *καίω*, to burn). *Encaustis*. A pustule produced from a burn.

ENCĒPHALON, (*Encephalon*, i. n. *ἐγκεφαλον*; from *εν*, in, and *κεφαλή*, the head). *Encephalum*. By some writers the cerebrum only is so called; and others express by this term the contents of the cranium.

ENDEMIC, (*Endemicus*, *ἐνδημικος*; from *εν*, in, and *δημος*, people). A disease is so termed that is peculiar to a certain class of persons, or country; thus struma is endemial to the inhabitants of Derbyshire and the Alps; scurvy to seafaring people; and the plica polonica is only to be met with in Poland.

ENDIVE. See *Endivia*.

ENDIVIA, (*Endivia*, *æ*, f. *quasi eundo viâ, quia passim nascitur*; named from the quickness of its growth). *Endiva*. Endive. This plant, *Cichorium endivia*; floribus solitariis, pe-

hinculatis; foliis integris, crenatis, of Linnæus, is an extremely wholesome salad, possessing bitter and anodyne qualities.

ENĒMA, (*Enema*, *ātis*, n. *ἐνέμα*; from *ἐνέμι*, to inject). Clyster. Injection. A glyster.

ENERGY, (*Energia*, *a*, f. from *ἐνεργεω*, to act). Action. The degree of force exercised by any power: thus, nervous energy, muscular energy, &c.

ENGLISH MERCURY. See *All-good*.

ENSIFORM, (*Ensiformis*, *sc.* cartilage: from *ensis*, a sword, and *forma*, resemblance). Sword-like. A term applied to a cartilage. See *Cartilago ensiformis*.

ENTĒRĪTIS, (*Enteritis*, *īdis*, f. *ἐντέρις*; from *ἐντέροι*, an intestine). Inflammation of the intestines. It is a genus of disease in the class *pyrexiae*, and order *phlegmasiæ* of Cullen, and is known by the presence of pyrexia, fixed pain in the abdomen, costiveness, and vomiting.

ENTĒROCĒLE, (*Enterocèle*, *es*, f. *ἐντεροκήλη*; from *ἐντέροι*, an intestine, and *κήλη*, a tumour). *Hernia intestinalis*. Every hernia may be so called that is produced by the protrusion of an intestine, whether it is in the groin, navel, or elsewhere.

ENTĒRO-EPIPLOCĒLE, (*Entero-epiplocèle*, *es*, f. *ἐντερο-επιπλοκήλη*; from *ἐντέροι*, an intestine, *επιπλον*, the epiploon, and *κήλη*, a tumour). A rupture formed by the protrusion of part of an intestine, with a portion of the epiploon.

ENTĒRO-HYDROCELE, (*Entero-epiplocèle*, *es*, f. *ἐντερο-επ. πλοκήλη*; from *ἐντέροι*, an intestine, *ὕδωρ*, water, and *κήλη*, a tumour). An intestinal hernia with water in the scrotum.

ENTĒROMPHĀLUS, (*Enteromphalus*, *i*, m. *ἐντερομφᾶλις*; from *ἐντέροι*, an intestine, and *ομφαλός*, the navel). An umbilical hernia produced by the

protrusion of a portion of an intestine.

ENTĒRORAPHĪA, (*Enteroraphia*, *a*, f. *ἐντεροράφη*; from *ἐντέροι*, an intestine, and *ράφη*, a suture). The sewing together the divided edges of an intestine.

ENTROPĪUM, (*Entropium*, *i*, n. *ἐντροπίον*; from *ἐν*, and *τρέπω*, to turn). A disease of the eyelids, occasioned by the eyelashes and eyelid being inverted towards the bulb of the eye.

ENŪLA CAMPĀNA, (*Enula*, *a*, f. a corruption of *hēnula* or *Helenium*, from *Helene*, the island where it grew). *Helenium*. Common inula, or elecampane. *Inula helenium; foliis amplexicaulibus ovalis rugosis subtus tomentosis, calycum squamis ovalis*, of Linnæus. Class. *Syngenesia*. Order. *Polygamia superflua*. This plant, though a native of Britain, is seldom met with in its wild state, but mostly cultivated. The root, which is the part employed medicinally, in its recent state, has a weaker and less grateful smell than when thoroughly dried, and kept for a length of time, by which it is greatly improved, its odour then approaching to that of Florentine orris. It was formerly in high estimation in dyspepsia, pulmonary affections, and uterine obstructions, but is now fallen into disuse.

ENURĒSIS, (*Enuresis*, *is*, f. *ἐνυρησις*; from *ἐνυρεω*, to make water). An involuntary flow of urine. A genus of disease in the class *locales*, and order *apocenosæ* of Cullen, containing two species: 1. *Enuresis atonica*, the sphincter of the bladder having lost its tone from some previous disease: 2. *Enuresis ab irritatione, vel compressionē vesicæ*, from an irritation or compression of the bladder.

EPHĒLIS, (*Ephelis*, *īdis*, f. *ἐφηλις*; from *ἐπι*, and *ἥλιος*, the sun). A broad, solitary, or aggregated spot, attacking most commonly the face, back of the hand, and breast, from exposure to the sun.

EPHEMĒRA, (*Ephemera*, *α*, f. *ἐφμερα*; from *ἐπ*, upon, and *ἡμέρα*, a day). A fever which begins, is perfectly formed, and runs through its course, in the space of twelve hours.

EPHIDRŌSIS, (*Ephidrosis*, *is*, f. *ἐπιδρώσις*; from *ἐπιδ*, to perspire). *Sudatio. Mador*. A violent and morbid perspiration. A genus of disease in the class *locales*, and order *apocynoses* of Cullen.

EPHIPPIUM, (*Ephippium*, *i*, n. *ἐφίππιον*, a saddle, which it is thought to resemble). See *Sella turcica*.

EPICOLIC REGION, (*Regio epicolica*; from *ἐπ*, upon, and *κώλον*, the colon). That part of the abdomen which lies over the head of the cæcum and sigmoid flexure of the colon.

EPICRANIUM, (*Epicranium*, *i*, n. *ἐπικράνιον*; from *ἐπ*, and *κράνιον*, the cranium). The common integuments, aponeurosis, and muscular expansion which lie upon the cranium.

EPICRANIUS. See *Occipito-frontalis*.

EPIDEMIC, (*Epidemicus*, *ἐπιδημικός*; from *ἐπ*, upon, and *δημος*, the people). A contagious disease is so termed that attacks many people at the same season, and in the same place; thus putrid fever, plague, dysentery, &c. are often epidemic.

EPIDENDRUM VANILLA. The systematic name of the vanelloe plant. See *Vanilla*.

EPIDERMIS, (*Epidermis*, *idis*, f. *ἐπιδερμις*; from *ἐπ*, upon, and *δέρμα*, the true skin). The scarf-skin. See *Cuticle*.

EPIDIDYMISS, (*Epididymis*, *idis*, f. *ἐπιδιδυμις*; from *ἐπ*, upon, and *διδυμος*, a testicle). A hard vascular oblong substance, that lies upon the testicle, formed of a convolution of the *vas deferens*. It has a thick end, which is convex, and situated posteriorly; and a thin end, which is rather flat, and situated inferiorly. The epididymis adheres to the testicle by

its two extremities only, for its middle part is free, forming a bag, to which the tunica vaginalis of the testicle is attached.

EPIGASTRIC REGION, (*Epigastriacus*, *ἐπιγαστρικός*; from *ἐπ*, upon, above, and *γαστήρ*, the stomach). The part of the abdomen that lies over the stomach.

EPIGLOTTIS, (*Epiglottis*, *idis*, *ἐπιγλωττις*; from *ἐπ*, upon, and *γλῶττις*, the tongue). The cartilage at the root of the tongue that falls upon the glottis or superior opening of the larynx. Its figure is nearly oval, it is concave posteriorly, and convex anteriorly. Its apex or superior extremity is loose, and is always elevated upwards by its own elasticity. While the back of the tongue is drawn backwards in swallowing, the epiglottis is put over the aperture of the larynx, hence it shuts up the passage from the mouth into the larynx. The base of the epiglottis is fixed to the thyroid cartilage, the os hyoides, and the base of the tongue, by a strong ligament.

EPILEPSY, (*Epilepsia*, *α*, f. *ἐπιληψία*; from *ἐπιλαμβάνω*, to seize upon: so called, from the suddenness of its attack). Convulsions with sleep, and usually froth issuing from the mouth. It is a genus of disease in the class *neuroses*, and order *spasmi* of Cullen, and contains nine species: 1. *Epilepsia traumatica*, arising from an injury of the head: 2. *Epilepsia à dolore*, from pain: 3. *Epilepsia verminosa*, from the irritation of worms: 4. *Epilepsia à veneno*, from poisons: 5. *Epilepsia exanthematica*, from the repulsion of cutaneous eruptions: 6. *Epilepsia à cruditate ventriculi*, from crudities of the stomach: 7. *Epilepsia ab inanitione*, from debility: 8. *Epilepsia uterina*, from hysterical affections: 9. *Epilepsia ex onanismo*, from onanism.

EPINYCTIS, (*Επινυκτις*; from *ἐπ*,

on and *νύξ*, night). A pustule, which rises in the night, forming an angry tumor on the skin of the arms, hands, and thighs, of the size of a lupine, of a dusky red, and sometimes of a livid and pale colour, with great inflammation and pain. In a few days breaks, and sloughs away.

EPIPHŌRA, (*Epiphora*, *α*, f. *ἐπιφορα*, from *ἐπιφέρω*, to carry forcibly). The watery eye. An involuntary flow of tears. A superabundant flowing of a serous or aqueous humour from the eyes. A genus of disease in the class *locales*, and order *apocenoscs*, of Cullen. The humour which flows very copiously from the eye in epiphora, appears to be furnished, not only by the lachrymal gland, but from the whole surface of the conjunctive membrane, Meibomius's glands, and the caruncula lachrymalis; which increased and morbid secretion may be induced from any stimulus seated between the globe of the eye and lids, as sand, acrid fumes, and the like; or it may arise from the stimulus of active inflammation; or from the acrimony of scrophula, measles, small-pox; or from general relaxation. The disease may also be brought on by causes obstructing the absorption of the tears.

EPIPHŶSIS, (*Epiphysis*, *is*, f. *ἐπιφυσις*, from *ἐπι*, upon, and *φύω*, to grow). Any portion of bone growing upon another, but separated from it by a cartilage.

EPIFLOCĒLE, (*Epiflocele*, *es*, f. *ἐπιφλοκλή*, from *ἐπιπλῶον*, the omentum, and *κλήλη*, a tumour). An omental hernia. A rupture produced by the protrusion of a portion of the omentum. See *Hernia*.

EPIFLOIC APPENDAGES. See *Appendicula epiploica*.

EPIFLOITIS, (*Epiploitis*, *idis*, f. *ἐπιπλοΐτις*, from *ἐπιπλῶον*, the omentum). An inflammation of the process of the peritoneum, that forms the epiploon or omentum. See *Peritonitis*.

EPIPLŌON, (*Epiploon*, *i*, n. *ἐπιπλόον*, from *ἐπιπλῶω*, to sail over, because it is mostly found floating, as it were, upon the intestines). See *Omentum*.

EPISCHĒSES, (*Epischesis*, *is*, f. *ἐπισχέσις*, from *ἐπισχέω*, to restrain). A suppression of excretions. It is an order in the class *locales* of Cullen's nosology.

EPISPASTICS, (*Epispastica*, *sc. medicamenta*, *ἐπισπαστικά*, from *ἐπισπᾶω*, to draw together). Those substances which increase the action of the vessels in those parts of the surface of the body to which they are applied, in such a manner as to produce an efflux of fluids there; as cantharides, squills, boiling water, &c. They are mostly employed, 1. To diminish violent pain. 2. To take off the effects of uncommon sensibility. 3. To remove torpor. 4. To diminish the impetus of the blood against any part morbidly affected. 5. To diminish the morbid increase of action in vessels in the neighbourhood of those to which they are applied. 6. To diminish the quantity of circulating fluids. 7. To evacuate morbid accumulations of serum.

EPISTAPHILĪNUS. See *Uvula*.

EPISTAXIS, (*Epistaxis*, *is*, f. *ἐπισταξις*, from *ἐπισταζω*, to distil from). Bleeding at the nose, with pain, or fulness of the head. A genus of disease arranged by Cullen in the class *pyrexia* and order *hemorrhagia*.

EPISTHOTŌNOS, (*Episthotonos*, *i*, m. *ἐπισθόνοσ*, from *ἐπισθῶ*, forwards, and *τείνω* to extend). A spasmodic affection of muscles drawing the body forwards. See *Tetanus*.

EPISTROPHEUS, (*Epistrophæus*, from *ἐπιστροφᾶω*, to turn round, because the head is turned upon it). *Epistrophæus*. The second cervical vertebra. See *Dentatus*.

EPITHELĪUM, (*Epithelium*, *i*, n.). The cuticle on the red part of the lips; the cuticle reflected upon the

internal parts, as the mouth, rectum, &c.

EPITHĒMA, (*Epithema*, *atis*, n. ἐπιθήμα, from ἐπι, upon, and τίθημι, to apply). A term sometimes applied to a lotion, fomentation, or some external application.

EPITHYMUM, (*Epithymum*, *i*, n. ἐπιθύμω, from ἐπι, upon, and θυμός, the herb time). *Cuscuta*. Dodder of thyme. A parasitical plant, possessing a strong disagreeable smell, and a pungent taste very durable in the mouth. Two kinds are recommended in melancholia, as cathartics, viz. *Cuscuta epithymum*; *foliis sessilibus, quinquifidis, bracteis obvallatis*, and *cuscuta europæa; floribus sessilibus* of Linnæus.

EPSOM SALT. See *Magnesia vitriolata*.

EPSOM WATER. *Aqua Epsomensis*. This water evaporated to dryness leaves a residuum, the quantity of which has been estimated from an ounce and a half in the gallon to five drachms and one scruple. Of the total residuum, by far the greater part, about four or five sixths, is sulphate of magnesia mixed with a very few muriats, such as that of lime, and probably magnesia, which render it very deliquescent, and increase the bitterness of taste, till purified by repeated chrySTALLIZATIONS. There is nothing sulphureous or metallic ever found in this spring. The diseases in which it is employed are similar to those of Sedlitz water. There are many other of the simple saline springs that might be enumerated, all of which agree with that of Epsom, in containing a notable proportion of some purgine salt. This, for the most part, is either Epsom or Glauber's salt, or often a mixture of both, such as Acton, Kilburne, Bagnigge Wells, Dog and Duck, St. George's Fields, &c.

EPŪLIS, (*Epulis*, *idis*, f. ἐπὺλις, from ἐπι and ἔλα, the gums). An excrescence growing from the gums.

EPULOTICS, (*Ebulotica*, *sc. medicamenta*, ἐπυλωτικά, from ἐπύλω, to cicatrize). A term given by surgeons to those applications which promote the formation of skin.

EQUISĒTUM, (*Equisetum*, *i*, n. from *equus*, a horse, and *feta*, a bristle, so named from its resemblance to a horse's tail). *Cauda equina*. Horsetail, mare's-tail. The plant directed for medicinal purposes under this name is the *Hilpuris vulgaris* of Linnæus. It possesses adstringent qualities, and is frequently used by the common people as tea in diarrhæas and hæmorrhages. The same virtues are also attributed to the *Equisetum arvense, fluviatile limosum*, and other species, which are directed indiscriminately by the term *Equisetum*.

EQUISĒTUM ARVENSE. See *Equisetum*.

EQUUS ASINUS. The systematic name of the animal called an ass; the female affords a light and nutritious milk.

ERECTOR CLITORĪDIS. First muscle of the clitoris of Douglas. A muscle of the clitoris that draws it downwards and backwards, and serves to make the body of the clitoris more tense, by squeezing the blood into it from its crus. It arises from the tuberosity of the ischium, and is inserted into the clitoris.

ERECTOR PENIS. A muscle of the penis that drives the urine or semen forwards, and, by grasping the bulb of the urethra, pushes the blood towards the corpus cavernosum and the glans, and thus distends them. It arises from the tuberosity of the ilium, and is inserted into the side of the cavernous substance of the penis.

ERETHISMUS, (*Erethismus*, *i*, n. ἐρεθισμός, from ἐρεθίζω, to excite or irritate). Increased sensibility and irritability. It is variously applied by modern writers.

ERIGERON ACRE. The systematic

tic name of the conyza. See *Conyza serulea*.

ERIGERUM, (*Erigerum*, *i*, *n*. *ερικεριν*, from *ηρ*, the spring, and *γεναι*, old, so called, because in the spring it has a white blossom like the hair of an old man). *Erigeron*. Groundsel. This very common plant, *Senecio vulgaris* of Linnæus, is frequently applied bruised to inflammations and ulcers, as a refrigerent and antiscorbutic.

ERRATIC, (*Erraticus*, from *erro*, to wander). Wandering. Irregular. A term occasionally applied to pains, or any disease which is not fixed, but moves from one part to another, as gout, rheumatism, &c.

ERRHINE, (*Errhina*. *sc. medica-menta*, *ερρινη*, from *ερ*, in, and *ρην*, the nose). By errhines are to be understood those medicines which, when topically applied to the internal membrane of the nose, excite sneezing, and increase the secretion, independent of any mechanical irritation. The articles belonging to this class may be referred to two orders: 1. *Sternutatory errhines*, as *nicotiana*, *helleborus*, *euphorbium*, which are selected for the torpid, the vigorous, but not plethoric; and those to whom any degree of evacuation would not be hurtful. 2. *Evacuating errhines*, as *asarum*, &c. which is calculated for the phlegmatic and infirm.

ERROR LOCI. Boerhaave is said to have introduced this term, from the opinion that the vessels were of different sizes, for the circulation of blood, lymph, and serum; and that when the larger sized globules were forced into the lesser vessels by an *error of place*, they were obstructed. But this opinion does not appear to be well grounded.

ERUCA, (*Eruca*, *e*, *f*. from *erugo*, to make smooth, so named from the smoothness of its leaves; or from *uro*, to burn, because of its biting quality). Garden rocket. Roman

rocket. Rocket gentle. The seeds of this plant, *Brassica eruca*; *foliis ly-artis, caule hirsuto siliquis glabris*, of Linnæus, and of the wild rocket, have an acrid taste, and are eaten by the Italians in their pickles, &c. They are said to be good aperients and antiscorbutics, but are esteemed by the above-mentioned people for their supposed aphrodisiac qualities.

ERUCA SYLVESTRIS. The wild rocket, *Brassica erucastrum* of Linnæus. See *Eruca*.

ERVUM, (*Ervum*, *i*, *n*. *quasi arvum*, a field, because it grows wild in the fields: or from *eruo*, to pluck out, because it is diligently plucked from corn). *Orobos*. The tare. The plant ordered in some pharmacopæias by this name is the *Ervum ervilia*; *germinibus undato-plicatis, foliis imparipinnatis*, of Linnæus. In times of scarcity the seeds have been made into bread, which is not the most salubrious. The meal was formerly amongst the resolvents.

ERVUM ERVILIA. The systematic name of the Orobos. See *Ervum*.

ERVUM LENS. The systematic name of the lentil. See *Lens*.

ERYNGIUM, (*Eryngium*, *i*, *n*. *ερυγγιον*, from *ερυγγα*, to eructate, because it causes eructation). Sea eryngo, or holly. *Eryngium maritimum*; *foliis radicalibus subrotundis plicatis spinosis, capitulis pedunculatis, paleis tricuspидatis*, of Linnæus. Class *Pentandria*. Order *Digynia*. The root of this plant is directed for medicinal use. It has no particular smell, but to the taste it manifests a grateful sweetness; and, on being chewed for some time, it discovers a light aromatic warmth or pungency. It was formerly celebrated for its supposed aphrodisiac powers, but it is now very rarely employed.

ERYNGO. See *Eryngium*.

ERYNGO, SEA. See *Eryngium*.

ERYNGO LEAVED LICHEN. See *Lichen islandicus*.

ERYNGIUM CAMPESTRE. The root of this plant, *Eryngium campestre*; *foliis radicalibus, amplexicaulibus, pinnato-lanceolatis*, of Linnæus is used in many places for that of the sea eryngo. See *Eryngium*.

ERYSIMUM, (*Erysimum*, *i*, *n*. *ερυσίμακον*, from *εργα*, to draw, so called from its power of drawing and producing blisters; others derive it *απο της σκελετης*, because the leaves are much cut; others from *εργισμα*, precious). Hedge mustard. This plant, *Erysimum officinale*; *siliquis spicæ adpressis, foliis runcinatis*, of Linnæus, was formerly much used for its expectorant and diuretic qualities, which are now forgotten. The seeds are warm and pungent, and very similar to those of mustard in their effects.

ERISIMUM ALLIARIA. The systematic name of jack in the hedge. See *Alliaria*.

ERISIMUM BARBARĒA. The systematic name of the barberea of the shops. See *Barbarea*.

ERYSIMUM OFFICINALE. The systematic name of the hedge mustard. See *Erysimum*.

ERYSIPĒLAS, (*Erysipelas*, *ātis*, *n*. *ερυσίπτελα*, from *εργα*, to draw, and *πτελα*, adjoining; named from the neighbouring parts being affected by the eruption). *Ignis sacer*. St. Anthony's fire. A genus of disease in the class *pyrexia* and order *exanthemata* of Cullen. It is known by synocha of two or three days continuance, with drowsiness, and sometimes with delirium; pulse commonly full and hard; then erythema of the face, with continuance of synocha, tending to either apoplexy or to abscess. There are two species of this disease, according to Cullen: 1. *Erysipelas vesiculosum*, with large blisters: 2. *Erysipelas phlyctenodes*, the shingles, or an erysipelas with phlyctenæ, or small blisters.

ERYTHĒMA, (*Erythema*, *ātis*, *n*. *ερυθμα*, from *ερυθρος*, red). A morbid

redness of the skin, as is observed upon the cheeks of hectic patients after eating, and the skin covering bubo, phlegmon, &c.

ERYTODANUM, (*Erythrodanum*, *i*, *n*, *ερυθροδανον*, from *ερυθρος*, red, so called from the colour of its juice). See *Rubia*.

ESCHAR, (*Eschara*, *a*, *f*. *εσχαρα*, from *εσχαρειν*, to scab over). The portion of flesh that is destroyed by the application of a caustic.

ESCHAROTICS, (*Escharotica*, *sc*. *medicamenta*, *εσχαρωτικά*, from *εσχαρειν*, to scab over). Caustics. Corrosives. A term given by surgeons to those substances which possess a power of destroying the texture of the various solid parts of the animal body to which they are directly applied. The articles of this class of substances may be arranged under two orders: 1. *Eroding escharotics*, as blue vitriol, alumen ustum, &c. 2. *Caustic escharotics*, as *lapis infernalis*, *argentum nitratum*, *oleum vitrioli*, *acidum nitrosum*, &c.

ESCULENT. An appellation given to such plants, or any part of them, that may be eaten for food.

ESOX LUCIUS. The systematic name of the fish of the class *pisces*, and order *abdominales*, from whose liver an oil spontaneously is separated which is termed in some pharmacopœias *oleum lucii piscis*. It is used in some countries by surgeons to destroy spots of the transparent cornea.

ESSENTIAL OIL. See *Oil*.

ESSĒRA, (*Effera*, *a*, *f*. Arab.). A species of cutaneous eruption, distinguished by broad, shining, smooth, red spots, mostly without fever, and differing from the nettle rash in not being elevated. It generally attacks the face and hands.

ESŪLA, (*Esula*, *a*, *f*. from *es*, eating, because it is eaten by some as a medicine). Spurge.

ESŪLA MAJOR. The officinal plant ordered by this name in some pharmacopœias is the *Euphorbia pa-*

lustris; umbella multifida, befida, involucrellis ovatis, foliis lanceolatis, ramis sterilibus, of Linnæus. The juice is exhibited in Russia as a common purge; and the plant is given in some places in the cure of intermittents.

ESÛLA MINOR. *Tithymalis cyparissius*. Cypress spurge. This, like most of the spurges, is very acrimonious, inflaming the eyes and œsophagus after touching them. It is now fallen into disuse, whatever were its virtues formerly, which, no doubt, amongst some others, was that of opening the bowels, for amongst rustics it was called poor-man's rhubarb.

ETHER. See *Æther*.

ETHER, ACETIC. Acetic naphtha. An ethereal fluid, drawn over from an equal admixture of alcohol and acetic acid, distilled with a gentle heat from a glass retort in a sand bath. It has a grateful smell, is extremely light, volatile, and inflammable.

ETHER, MURIATIC. Marine ether. Marine ether is obtained by mixing and distilling alcohol with extremely concentrated muriatic acid. It is stimulant, antiseptic, and diuretic.

ETHER, NITROUS. Nitric naphtha. This is only a stronger preparation than the spiritus ætheris nitrosi of the London Pharmacopeia; it is produced by the distillation of two parts of alcohol to one part and an half of fuming nitric acid.

ETHER, SULPHURIC. See *Æther vitriolicus*.

ETHER, VITRIOLIC. See *Æther vitriolicus*.

ETHERIAL OIL. Any highly rectified essential oil may be so termed.

ETHIOPS ANTIMONIAL. See *Sulphuretum hydrargyri sibiatum nigrum*.

ETHIOPS MINERAL. See *Hydrargyrus cum sulphure*.

ETHIOPS PER SE. See *Oxydum hydrargyri nigrum*.

ETHMOIDES, OS. See *Ethmoid bone*.

ETHMOID BONE, (*Os ethmoideum*, from *εθμος*, a sieve, and *εδος*, form; because it is perforated like a sieve).

Os ethmoides. Os æthmoides. Cribiform bone. A bone of the head. It is situated anteriorly in the basis of the cranium, at the upper part of the nose. The principal eminences and depressions of this bone are the crista galli, the perpendicular septum, the spongy laminæ, and the cribrose foramina.

EUDIOMETER. An instrument by which the quantity of oxygen and azot in atmospherical air can be ascertained. They are all founded upon the principle of decomposing common air by means of a body which has a greater affinity with the oxygen.

EUGENIA JAMBOS. The systematic name of the Malabar plum tree. See *Malabar plumb*.

EUPATORIUM, (*Eupatorium, i, n. ευπατοριον*, from *Eupator* its inventor). *Eupatorium Arabicum.* Hemp agrimony. This very bitter and strong-smelling plant, is the *Eupatorium cannabinum; foliis digitatis*, of Linnæus. Its juice proves violently emetic and purgative, if taken in sufficient quantity, and promotes the secretions generally. It is recommended in dropsies, jaundices, agues, &c. and is in common use in Holland, amongst the lower orders, as a purifier of the blood in old ulcers, scurvy, and anasarca.

EUPATORIUM ARABICUM. See *Eupatorium*.

EUPATORIUM CANNABINUM. The systematic name of the hemp agrimony. See *Eupatorium*.

EUPATORIUM MESUES. See *Ageratum*.

EUPEPTIC, (*Eupeptica, ευπεπτικά*, from *eu*, good, and *πεπτα*, to digest). Substances are so called that are easy to digest.

EUPHORBIA ANTIQUORUM. The Linnæan name of a plant supposed to produce the *Euphorbium*.

EUPHORBIA CANARIENSIS. In the Canary islands this species of spurge affords the gum euphorbium.

EUPHORBIA CYPARISSIAS. The systematic name of the cypress spurge. See *Efula minor*.

EUPHORBIA LATHYRIS. The systematic name of the plant which affords the lesser cataputia seeds. See *Cataputia minor*.

EUPHORBIA OFFICINARUM. The systematic name of the plant which affords the euphorbium in the greatest abundance. See *Euphorbium*.

EUPHORBIA PALUSTRIS. The systematic name of the greater spurge. See *Efula major*.

EUPHORBIA PARALIAS. See *Tithymalus paralios*.

EUPHORBUM, (*Euphorbium*, i, n. from *Euphorbus*, the physician of king Juba, in honour of whom it was named). An inodorous gum-resin in yellow tears, which have the appearance of being worm-eaten; said to be obtained from several species of euphorbiæ, but principally from the *Euphorbia officinarum*; *aculeata nuda multangularis*, *aculeis germinatis*, of Linnæus; it is imported from Ethiopia, Libya, and Mauritania. It contains an active resin, and is very seldom employed but as an errhine.

EUPHRASIA, (*Euphrasia*, a, f. corrupted from *Euphrosyne*, εὐφροσύνη, from εὐφρων, joyful, so called because it exhilarates the spirits). Eye-bright. This beautiful little plant, *Euphrasia officinalis*; *foliis ovatis, lineatis, argute dentatis*, of Linnæus, has been greatly esteemed by the common people as a remedy for all diseases of the eyes; yet notwithstanding this, and the encomiums of some medical writers, is now wholly fallen into disuse. It is an ingredient in the British herb tobacco.

EUPHRASIA OFFICINALIS. The systematic name of the eye-bright. See *Euphrasia*.

EUSTACHIAN TUBE. *Tuba Eustachiana.* The tube so called was dis-

covered by the great Eustachius. It begins, one in each ear, from the anterior extremity of the tympanum, and runs forwards and inwards in a bony canal, which terminates with the petrous portion of the temporal bone. It then goes on, partly cartilaginous and partly membranous, gradually becoming larger, and at length ends behind the soft palate. Through this tube the air passes to the tympanum.

EUSTACHIAN VALVE. See *Valvula Eustachii*.

EVAPORATION, (*Evaporatio, onis*, f.). The volatilization of a fluid by means of heat, with access of air, in order to diminish its fluidity, to obtain any fixed salts it may hold in solution, or to diminish the quantity of a residuum. In this manner sea water is evaporated, and the salt obtained, and decoctions made into extracts.

EXANTHEMA, (*Exanthema, atis*, n. ἐξάνθημα, from ἐξανθεω, to spring forth, to bud). An eruption of the skin. Cullen makes *exanthemata* an order in the class *pyrexia*. It includes contagious diseases, beginning with fever, and followed by an eruption on the skin.

EXCITABILITY. See *Excitement*.

EXCITEMENT. In all the states of life, says Dr. Brown, from whose work this article is selected, man and other animals differ from themselves in their dead state, or from any other inanimate matter, in this property alone; *they can be affected by external agents, as well as by certain functions peculiar to themselves in such a manner, that the phenomena peculiar to the living state can be produced.* This proposition extends to every thing that is vital in nature, and therefore applies to vegetables.

The external agents are reducible to heat, diet, and other substances taken into the stomach, blood, the fluids secreted from the body and air.

The functions of the system itself

producing the same effect, are muscular contraction, sense, or perception, and the energy of the brain in thinking, and in exciting passion and emotion. These affect the system in the same manner as the other agents; and they arise both from the other and from themselves.

If the property which distinguishes living from dead matter, or the operation of either of the two sets of powers be withdrawn, life ceases. Nothing else than the presence of these is necessary to life.

The property on which both sets of powers act may be named *Excitability*, and the powers themselves exciting powers. By the word body is meant, both the body simply so called, and also as endued with an intellectual part, a part appropriated to passion and emotion, or a soul: the usual appellation in medical writings is system.

The effects, common to all the exciting powers, are sense, motion, mental exertion, and passion. Now their effects being the same, it must be granted, that the operation of all the powers is the same.

The effects of the exciting powers acting upon the excitability may be denominated *excitement*.

EXCITING CAUSE. Occasional cause. Procatarctic cause. Remote cause. That which, when applied to the body under a state of predisposition, excites a disease. The exciting or remote causes of diseases are either external or internal.

EXCORIATION, (*Excoriatio, onis*, f. from *excorio*, to take off the skin). An abrasion of the skin.

EXCREMENT, (*Excrementum, i, n*. from *excerno*, to separate from). The alvine fæces.

EXCRESCENCE, (*Excrecentia, æ*, f. from *excreasco*, to grow from). Any preternatural formation of flesh, or any part of the body, as wens, warts, &c.

EXCRETION, (*Excretio, onis*, f. from *excerno*, to separate from). This term is applied to the separation or secretion of those fluids from the blood of an animal, that are supposed to be useless, as the urine, perspiration, and alvine fæx.

EXOMPHĀLUS, (*Exomphalus, i, m*. ἐξομφαλος, from ἐξ, out, and ομφαλος, the navel). *Exomphalos*. An umbilical hernia. See *Hernia*.

EXOPHTHALMĪA, (*Exophthalmia, æ, f*. ἐξοφθαλμία, from ἐξ, out, and οφθαλμος, the eye). A swelling or protrusion of the bulb of the eye, to such a degree, that the eyelids cannot cover it. It may be caused by inflammation, when it is termed *exophthalmia inflammatoria*; or from a collection of pus in the globe of the eye, when it is termed the *exophthalmia purulenta*; or from a congestion of blood within the globe of the eye, *exophthalmia sanguinea*.

EXOSTOSIS, (*Exostosis, is, f*. ἐξοστώσις, from ἐξ, and ὀστέον, a bone). *Hyperostis*. A morbid enlargement, or hard tumour of a bone. A genus of disease arranged by Cullen in the class *locales* and order *tumores*.

EXPECTORANTS, (*Expectorantia, sc. medicamenta*, from *expectoro*, to discharge from the breast). Under this title are to be considered those medicines which can, with safety, be employed to increase the discharge of mucus from the lungs. The different articles referred to this class may be divided into the following orders: 1. *Nauseating expectorants*, as squills, ammoniacum, and garlic, which are to be preferred for the aged and phlegmatic. 2. *Stimulating expectorants*, as marrubium, which is adapted to the young and irritable, and those easily affected by expectorants. 3. *Antispasmodic expectorants*, as vesicatories, pediluvium, and watery vapours; these are best calculated for the plethoric

and irritable, and those liable to spasmodic affections. 4. *Irritating expectorants*, as fumes of tobacco and acid vapours. The constitutions to which these are chiefly adapted, are those past the period of youth, and those in whom there are evident marks of torpor, either in the system generally, or in the lungs in particular.

EXPIRATION, (*Expiratio, onis*, f. from *expiro*, to breathe). That part of respiration in which the air is thrust out from the lungs. See *Respiration*.

EXPRESSED OILS. Such oils as are obtained by pressing the substance containing them, as olives, which give out olive oil, almonds, &c.

EXTENSOR, (*Extensor, oris*, m. from *extendo*, to stretch out). A term given to those muscles whose office it is to extend any part; the term is in opposition to flexor.

EXTENSOR BREVIS DIGITORUM PEDIS. *Extensor brevis* of Douglas. A muscle of the toes situated on the foot. It arises fleshy and tendinous from the fore and upper part of the os calcis, and soon forms a fleshy belly, divisible into four portions, which send off an equal number of tendons that pass over the upper part of the foot under the tendons of the extensor longus digitorum pedis, to be inserted into its tendinous expansion. Its office is to extend the toes.

EXTENSOR CARPI RADIALIS BREVIOR. *Radialis externus brevior* of Albinus. *Radialis secundus* of Winslow. An extensor muscle of the wrist, situated on the fore-arm. It arises tendinous from the external condyle of the humerus, and from the ligament that connects the radius to it, and runs along the outside of the radius. It is inserted by a long tendon into the upper and back part of the metacarpal bone of the middle finger. It assists in extending and bringing the hand backward.

EXTENSOR CARPI RADIALIS LONGIOR. *Radialis externus longior*

of Albinus. *Radialis externus primus* of Winslow. An extensor muscle of the carpus, situated on the fore arm, that acts in conjunction with the former. It arises thin, broad, and fleshy, from the lower part of the external ridge of the os humeri, above its external condyle, and is inserted by a round tendon into the posterior and upper part of the metacarpal bone that sustains the fore fingers.

EXTENSOR CARPI ULNARIS. *Ulnaris externus* of Albinus and Winslow. It arises from the outer condyle of the os humeri, and then receives an origin from the edge of the ulna: its tendon passes in a groove behind the styloid process of the ulna: to be inserted into the inside of the basis of the metacarpal bone of the little finger.

EXTENSOR DIGITORUM COMMUNIS. A muscle situated on the forearm, that extends all the joints of the fingers. It arises from the external protuberance of the humerus: and at the wrist it divides into three flat tendons, which pass under the annular ligament, to be inserted into all the bones of the fore, middle, and ring fingers.

EXTENSOR DIGITORUM LONGUS. See *Extensor longus digitorum pedis*.

EXTENSOR INDICIS. See *Indicator*.

EXTENSOR LONGUS DIGITORUM PEDIS. *Extensor longus* of Douglas. A muscle situated on the leg, that extends all the joints of the four small toes. It arises from the upper part of the tibia and fibula, and the interosseous ligament; its tendon passes under the annular ligament, and then divides into five, four of which are inserted into the second and third phalanges of the toes, and the fifth goes to the basis of the metatarsal bone. This last Winslow reckons a distinct muscle, and calls it *Peroneus brevis*.

EXTENSOR LONGUS POLLICIS

PEDIS. See *Extensor proprius pollicis pedis*.

EXTENSOR MAGNUS. See *Gastrocnemius internus*.

EXTENSOR MAJOR POLLICIS MANUS. See *Extensor secundi internodii*.

EXTENSOR MINOR POLLICIS MANUS. See *Extensor primi internodii*.

EXTENSOR OSSIS METACARPI POLLICIS MANUS. *Abductor longus pollicis manus* of Albinus. *Extensor primi internodii* of Douglas. It arises fleshy from the middle and posterior part of the ulna, from the posterior part of the middle of the radius, and from the interosseous ligament, and is inserted into the os trapezium, and upper part of the metacarpal bone of the thumb.

EXTENSOR POLLICIS PRIMUS. See *Extensor primi internodii*.

EXTENSOR POLLICIS SECUNDUS. See *Extensor secundi internodii*.

EXTENSOR PRIMI INTERNODII. *Extensor minor pollicis manus* of Albinus. This muscle, and the *Extensor ossis metacarpi pollicis manus*, are called *Extensor pollicis primus* by Winslow, and *Extensor secundi internodii* by Douglas. A muscle of the thumb, situated on the hand, that extends the first bone of the thumb obliquely outwards. It arises fleshy from the posterior part of the ulna, and from the interosseous ligament, and is inserted tendinous into the posterior part of the first bone of the thumb.

EXTENSOR PROPRIUS POLLICIS PEDIS. *Extensor longus pollicis pedis* of Douglas. An extensor muscle of the great toe, situated on the foot. It arises by an acute, tendinous, and fleshy beginning, some way below the head and anterior part of the fibula, along which it runs to near its lower extremity, connected to it by a number of fleshy fibres, which descend obliquely, and form a tendon which is inserted into the posterior part of the first and last joint of the great toe.

EXTENSOR SECUNDI INTERNODII. *Extensor major pollicis manus* of Albinus. *Extensor pollicis secundus* of Winslow. *Extensor tertii internodii* of Douglas. A muscle of the thumb, situated on the hand, that extends the last joint of the thumb obliquely backwards. It arises tendinous and fleshy from the middle part of the ulna, and the interosseous ligament; it then forms a tendon, which runs through a small groove at the inner, and back part of the radius to be inserted into the last bone of the thumb.

EXTENSOR SECUNDI INTERNODII INDICIS PROPRIUS. See *Indicator*.

EXTENSOR TARSII MINOR. See *Plantaris*.

EXTENSOR TARSII SURALIS. See *Gastrocnemius internus*.

EXTENSOR TERTII INTERNODII MINIMI DIGITI. See *Abductor minimi digiti manus*.

EXTENSOR TERTII INTERNODII INDICIS. See *Prior indicis*.

EXTERNUS MALLÆI. See *Laxator tympani*.

EXTRACTUM COLOCYNTHIDIS COMPOSITUM. A warm stimulating cathartic, calculated to remove costiveness in the old, phlegmatic, and torpid.

EXTRACTUM SATURNI. See *Aqua lithargyri acetata*.

EXTRAVASATION, (*Extravasatio, onis*, f. from *extra*, without, and *vas*, a vessel). See *Ecchymoma*.

EXULCERATION, (*Exulceratio, onis*, f. from *exulcero*, to cause ulcers). The same as ulcer, though occasionally applied to that species which is small and superficial.

EXUVIÆ, (*Exuvie, arum*, pl. f. from *exuo*, to strip off). The cuticle of the serpent, which is cast every spring.

EYE. *Oculus*. The eye, or organ of vision, is situated in a socket called the *orbit*, at the side of the root of the nose, which is composed of seven

E Y

Bones, viz. the frontal, superior maxillary, jugal, lachrymal, palatine, ethmoid, and sphenoid, which almost surround and defend it. Anatomists have divided the soft parts which form the eye into external and internal. The external parts are the *supercilia* or eyebrows, *palpebræ* or eyelids, *cilia* or eyelashes, lachrymal gland, lachrymal caruncle, nasal duct, muscles of the bulb of the eye, and the fat of the orbit. The internal parts are those which form the bulb, or eye, properly so called: they consist of eight membranes, viz. the sclerotic, transparent cornea, the choroid membrane, iris, uvea, retina, hyaloid, and capsule of the crystalline lens; two chambers, one anterior, the other posterior; and three humours, the aqueous, crystalline lens, and vitreous humour. The arteries of this viscus are the in-

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ternal orbital, the central, and the ciliary arteries. The veins empty themselves into the external jugulars. The nerves are the optic, and branches from the third, fourth, fifth, and sixth pair. The various parts are described under the different heads of *supercilia*, *cilia*, *sclerotic* membrane, *choroid*, &c. The use of the eye is to form the organ of vision.

EYE-BRIGHT. See *Euphrasia*.

EYE-BROW. *Supercilium*. A layer of short hair which lies thick upon the lower part of the frontal bone, on the superior prominent part of the orbit.

EYE-LID. *Palpebra*. The semilunar moveable production of the skin which covers the eye when shut. It is distinguished into upper and under eye-lid.

F.

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F. *f*, or *ft*. In a prescription these letters are abbreviations of *fat*, or *fiant*, let it, or them be made; thus *f. bolus*, let the substance or substances prescribed be made into a bolus.

FABA, (*Faba*, *a*, *f*.). See *Bean*.

FABA CRASSA. *Telephium*. *Fabaria crassula*. *Anacampteros*. The plant which bears these names in various pharmacopœias, is the orphine, *Sedum telephium*; *foliis planiusculis serratis, corymbo foliose, caule erecto*, of Linnæus. It was formerly ranked as an antiphlogistic, but now forgotten.

FABA FEBRIFUGA. See *Faba indica*.

FABA INDICA. *Faba sancti ignatii*. *Faba febrifuga*. The seeds of a gourd-like fruit, the produce of the *Ignatia amara* of Linnæus. They are of a

F A

roundish figure, very irregular and uneven, about the size of a middling nutmeg, semitransparent, and of a hard, horny texture. They have a very bitter taste, and no considerable smell. They are said to be used in the Philippine islands in all diseases, acting as a vomit and purgative. Infusions are given in the cure of intermittents, &c.

FABA PECHURIM. *Faba pichurim*. *Faba pechuris*. An oblong oval, brown, and ponderous seed, supposed to be the produce of a *Laurus*, brought from the Brazils. Their smell is like that of musk, between it and the scent of saffras. They are exhibited as carminatives in flatulent colics, diarrhœas, and dysenteries.

FABA PURGATRIX. See *Ricinus major*.

FABA SANCTI IGNATII. See *Faba indica*.

FABA SUILLA. See *Hyosciamus*.

FABARIA, (*Fabaria*, æ, f. from *faba*, a bean, which it resembles). Orphine. See *Faba crassa*.

FACE. The bones of the face are divided into those of the upper and under jaw. The upper jaw consists of thirteen bones, viz. two superior maxillary, two jugal, two nasal, two lachrymal, two inferior spongy, two palatine, and the vomer. The under jaw is formed of one bone, the inferior maxillary bone. The muscles of the face are those of the eyelids, eyeball, nose, mouth, and lips.

FACIAL NERVE. *Nervus facialis*. *Portio dura* of the auditory nerve. These nerves are two in number, and are properly the eighth pair: but are commonly called the seventh, being reckoned with the auditory, which is the *portio mollis* of the seventh pair. They arise from the fourth ventricle of the brain, pass through the petrous portion of the temporal bone to the face, where they form the *pes anserina*, which supplies the integuments of the face and forehead.

FACIES, (*Facies*, ei, f.). See *Face*.

FACTITIOUS. A term applied to any thing which is made by art, in opposition to that which is native, or found already made in nature.

FACIES HIPPOCRATICÆ. That particular disposition of the features which immediately precedes the stroke of death is so called, because it has been so admirably described by Hippocrates.

FACULTY, (*Facultas*, atis, f.). The power or ability by which any action is performed.

FÆCES. The plural of *fæx*. The alvine excretions.

FÆCULA, (*Facula*, æ, f. dim. of *fæx*). A substance obtained by bruising or grinding certain vegetables in water. It is that part which after a

little falls to the bottom. The *fæcula* of plants appears to be only a slight alteration of mucilage, for it differs from mucilage in no other respect than being insoluble in cold water, in which it falls with wonderful quickness. There are few plants which do not contain *fæcula*; but the seeds of gramineous and leguminous vegetables, as all tuberosé roots contain it most plentifully.

FÆX, (*Fæx*, *facis*, f. pl. *faces*). The alvine excretions.

FAGARA OCTANDRA. The systematic name of the plant which affords *tacamahaca*. See *Tacamahaca*.

FAGUS, (*Fagus*, i, φαγος, from φαγω, to eat; its nut being one of the first fruits used by man). The beech tree. The fruit and interior bark of this tree *Fagus sylvatica*; *foliis ovatis, obsolete serratis*, of Linnaeus, are occasionally used medicinally, the former in obstinate headaches, and the latter in the cure of hectic fever.

FAGUS CASTANÆA. The systematic name of the chestnut tree. See *Castanea*.

FAGUS SYLVATICÆ. The systematic name of the beech tree. See *Fagus*.

FAINTING. See *Syncope*.

FAIRBURN WATER. A sulphureous water in the county of Ross, in the north of England.

FALCIFORM PROCESS, (*Falciformis*, from *falx*, a scythe, and *forma*, resemblance). The *falx*. A process of the *dura mater*, that arises from the *grista galli*, separates the hemispheres of the brain, and terminates in the *tentorium*.

FALLING SICKNESS. See *Epilepsia*.

FALLOPIAN TUBE. See *Tuba Fallopiana*.

FALLOPIAN LIGAMENT. See *Poupart's ligament*.

FALX (*Falx*, cis, f.). The falciform process of the *dura mater*. See *Falciform process*.

FARFARA, (*Farfara*, from *far-farus*, the white poplar, so called because its leaves resemble those of the white poplar). See *Tussilago*.

FARĪNA, (*Farina*, *e*, from *far*, corn, of which it is made). Meal or flour. A term given to the pulverulent and glutinous part of wheat and other seeds, which is obtained by grinding and sifting. It is highly nutritious, and consists of gluten, starch, and mucilage. See *Wheat*.

FARINACEOUS. A term given to all articles of food which contain *farina*. See *Farina*.

FASCĪA, (*Fascia*, *e*, f. from *fascis*, a bundle; because by means of a band materials are collected into a bundle). A bandage, fillet, or roller: hence the aponeurotic expansions of muscles, which bind parts together, are termed *fascia*.

FASCĪA LATĀ. A thick and strong tendinous expansion sent off from the back, and from the tendons of the glutei and adjacent muscles, to surround the muscles of the thigh. It is the thickest on the outside of the thigh and leg, but towards the inside of both becomes gradually thinner. A little below the trochanter major, it is firmly fixed to the linea aspera; and, farther down, to that part of the head of the tibia that is next the fibula, where it sends off the tendinous expansion along the outside of the leg. It serves to strengthen the action of the muscles, by keeping them firm in their proper places when in action, particularly the tendons that pass over the joints where this membrane is thickest.

FASCĪALIS, (*Fascialis*, *sc. musculus*). See *Tensor vaginae femoris*.

FAT, (*Adeps*, *ipis*, m. & f.). A concrete oily matter contained in the cellular membrane of animals, of a white or yellowish colour, with little or no smell nor taste. It differs in all animals in solidity, colour, taste, &c. and likewise in the same animal at

different ages. In infancy it is white, insipid, and not very solid; in the adult it is firm and yellowish, and in animals of an advanced age its colour is deeper, its consistence various, and its taste in general stronger. Fat-meat is nourishing to those that have strong digestive powers. It is used externally as a softening remedy, and enters into the composition of ointments and plasters.

FATUITAS, (*Fatuitas*, *atis*, f. from *fatuus*, silly). Foolishness. A synonym of *Amentia*.

FAUCES, (*Faux*, *cis*, f. pl. *fauces*). A cavity behind the tongue, palatine arch, uvula, and tonsils: from which the pharynx and larynx proceed.

FEBRES. (*Febris*, *is*, f.). An order in the class *pyrexia* of Cullen, characterized by the presence of pyrexia, without primary or local affection.

FEBRICŪLA, (*Febricula*, *e*, f. dim. of *febris*, a fever). A term employed to express a slight degree of symptomatic fever.

FEBRIFUGE, (*Febrifuga*, from *febris*, a fever, and *fugo*, to drive away). A medicine that possesses the property of abating the violence of any fever.

FEBRIS CONTINUA. A continued fever. A genus of disease in the class *pyrexia* and order *phlegmasia* of Cullen. It has no intermission, but exacerbations come on twice in one day. The species of continued fever are: 1. *Synocha*, or inflammatory fever, known by increased heat; pulse frequent, strong, and hard; urine high-coloured; senses not much impaired. 2. *Typhus*, or putrid-tending fever, which is contagious, and is characterized by moderate heat; quick, weak, and small pulse; senses much impaired, and great prostration of strength. *Typhus* has four varieties, viz. 1. *Typhus petechialis*, typhus with petechiæ: 2. *Typhus mitior*, the nervous fever: 3. *Typhus gravior*, the putrid fever: 4. *Typhus icterodes*, the yellow fever.

FEBRIS ERYSIPELATŌSA. See *Erysipelas*.

FEBRIS HECTICA. A genus of disease in the class *pyrexia* and order *febres* of Cullen. It is known by exacerbations at noon, but chiefly in the evening, with slight remissions in the morning, after nocturnal sweats; the urine depositing a furfuraceo-lateritious sediment; appetite good; thirst moderate. Hectic fever is symptomatic of chlorosis, scrophula, phthisis, diseased viscera, &c.

FEBRIS INFLAMMATORIA. See *Febris continua*.

FEBRIS INTERMITTENS. An intermittent fever or ague. A genus of disease in the class *pyrexia* and order *febres*. It is known by cold, hot, and sweating stages in succession, attending each paroxysm, and followed by an intermission or remission. There are three species of this disease, viz. 1. *Intermittens quotidiana*. A quotidian ague. The paroxysms return in the morning at an interval of about twenty-four hours. 2. *Intermittens tertiana*. A tertian ague. The paroxysms commonly come on at mid-day, at an interval of about forty-eight hours. 3. *Intermittens quartana*. A quartan ague. The paroxysms come on in the afternoon, with an interval of about seventy-two hours.

FEBRIS NERVOSA. *Febris lenta nervosa*. The nervous fever. A variety of *typhus mitor* of Cullen, but by many considered as a distinct disease. It mostly begins with loss of appetite, increased heat and vertigo; to which succeed nausea, vomiting, great languor, and pain in the head, which is variously described, by some like cold water pouring over the top, by others a sense of weight. The pulse, before little increased, now becomes quick, feeble, and tremulous; the tongue is covered with a white crust, and there is great anxiety about the pæcordia. Towards the seventh

or eighth day, the vertigo is increased, and tinnitus aurium, cophosis, delirium, and a dry and tremulous tongue, take place. The disease mostly terminates about the fourteenth or twentieth day.

FEBRIS PUTRIDA. See *Febris continua*.

FEBRIS VESICULOSA. See *Erysipelas*.

FECULA. See *Facula*.

FEL, (Fel, fellis, n.). See *Bile*.

FEL-WORT. So called from its bitter taste like bile. See *Gentiana*.

FELON. See *Paronychia*.

FEMORIS OS. See *Femur*.

FEMUR, (Femur, ōris, n.). *Os femoris*. The thigh bone. A long cylindrical bone, situated between the pelvis and tibia. Its upper extremity affords three considerable processes; these are, the head, the trochanter major, and trochanter minor.—The head, which forms about two thirds of a sphere, is turned inwards, and is received into the acetabulum of the os innominatum, with which it is articulated by enarthrosis. It is covered by a cartilage, which is thick in its middle part, and thin at its edges, but which is wanting in its lower internal part, where a round spongy fossa is observable, to which the strong ligament, usually, though improperly, called the round one, is attached. This ligament is about an inch in length, flattish, and of a triangular shape, having its narrow extremity attached to the fossa just described, while its broader end is fixed obliquely to the rough surface near the inner and anterior edge of the acetabulum of the os innominatum, so that it appears shorter internally and anteriorly than it does externally and posteriorly.

The head of the os femoris is supported obliquely, with respect to the rest of the bone, by a smaller part, called the *cervex*, or *neck*, which, in the generality of subjects, is about an

inch in length. At its basis we observe two oblique ridges, which extend from the trochanter major to the trochanter minor. Of these ridges, the posterior one is the most prominent. Around this neck is attached the capsular ligament of the joint, which likewise adheres to the edge of the cotyloid cavity, and is strengthened anteriorly by many strong ligamentous fibres, which begin from the lower and anterior part of the ilium, and spreading broader as they descend, adhere to the capsular ligament, and are attached to the anterior oblique ridge at the bottom of the neck of the femur. Posteriorly and externally, from the basis of the neck of the bone, a large unequal protuberance stands out, which is the *trochanter major*. The upper edge of this process is sharp and pointed posteriorly, but is more obtuse anteriorly. A part of it is rough and unequal, for the insertion of the muscles; the rest is smooth, and covered with a thin cartilaginous crust, between which and the tendon of the glutæus maximus that slides over it, a large bursa mucofa is interposed. Anteriorly, at the root of this process, and immediately below the bottom of the neck, is a small process called *trochanter minor*. Its basis is nearly triangular, having its two upper angles turned towards the head of the femur and the great trochanter, while its lower angle is placed towards the body of the bone. Its summit is rough and rounded.—These two processes have gotten the name of *trochanters*, from the muscles that are inserted into them being the principal instruments of the rotatory motion of the thigh. Immediately below these two processes the body of the bone may be said to begin. It is smooth and convex before, but is made hollow behind by the action of the muscles. In the middle of this posterior concave surface is observed

a rough ridge, called *linea aspera*, which seems to originate from the trochanters, and extending downwards, divides at length into two branches, which terminate in the tuberosities near the condyles.—At the upper part of it, blood vessels pass to the internal substance of the bone, by a hole that runs obliquely upwards.

The lower extremity of the os femoris is larger than the upper one, and somewhat flattened, so as to form two surfaces, of which the anterior one is broad and convex, and the posterior one narrower and slightly concave.—This end of the bone terminates in two large protuberances, called *condyles*, which are united before so as to form a pulley, but are separated behind by a considerable cavity, in which the crural vessels and nerves are placed secure from the compression to which they would otherwise be exposed in the action of bending the leg. Of these two condyles, the external one is the largest; and when the bone is separated from the rest of the skeleton, and placed perpendicularly, the internal condyle projects less forwards, and descends nearly three tenths of an inch lower than the external one: but in its natural situation, the bone is placed obliquely, so that both condyles are then nearly on a level with each other. At the side of each condyle externally, there is a tuberosity, the situation of which is similar to that of the condyles of the os humeri. The two branches of the *linea aspera* terminate in these tuberosities, which are rough, and serve for the attachment of ligaments and muscles.

FENNEL. See *Feniculum*.

FENNEL-HOGS. See *Peucedanum*.

FENESTRA OVĀLIS. An oblong or elliptical foramen, between the cavity of the tympanum, and the vestibulum of the ear. It is shut by the stapes.

FENESTRA ROTUNDA. A round

foramen, leading from the tympanum to the cochlea of the ear. It is covered by a membrane in the fresh subject.

FENUGREEK. See *Fenugrecum*.

FERINE, (*Ferinus*, *sc. morbus*, *flagrante* or *brutal*). A term occasionally applied to any malignant or noxious disease.

FERMENTATION, (*Fermentatio*, *onis*, *f.*). A spontaneous commotion in a vegetable substance, by which its properties are totally changed. There are several circumstances required in order that fermentation may proceed: such are, 1. A certain degree of fluidity: thus, dry substances do not ferment at all. 2. A certain degree of heat. 3. The contact of air. Chemists, after Boerhaave, have distinguished three kinds of fermentation: the *spirituous*, which affords ardent spirit; the *acetous*, which affords vinegar, or acid; and the *putrid* fermentation, or putrefaction, which produces volatile alkali. The conditions necessary for spirituous fermentation are, 1. A saccharine mucilage. 2. A degree of fluidity slightly viscid. 3. A degree of heat between 55 and 65 of Fahrenheit. 4. A large mass, in which a rapid commotion may be excited. When these four conditions are united, the spirituous fermentation takes place, and is known by the following characteristic phenomena: 1. An intestine motion takes place. 2. The bulk of the mixture then becomes augmented. 3. The transparency of the fluid is diminished by opaque filaments. 4. Heat is generated. 5. The solid parts mixed with the liquor rise and float in consequence of the disengagement of elastic fluid. 6. A large quantity of cretaceous acid gaz is disengaged by bubbles. All these phenomena gradually cease in proportion as the liquor loses its sweet and mild taste, and becomes brisk, penetrating, and capable of producing intoxica-

tion. In this manner wine, beer, cider, &c. are made. All bodies which have undergone the spirituous fermentation are capable of passing on to the acid fermentation; but although it be probable that the acid fermentation never takes place before the body has gone through the spirituous fermentation, yet the duration of the first is frequently so short and imperceptible, that it cannot be ascertained. Besides the bodies which are proper for spirituous fermentation, this class includes all sorts of fecula boiled in water. The conditions required for the acid fermentation are, 1. A heat from 20 to 25 degrees of Fahrenheit. 2. A certain degree of liquidity. 3. The presence of atmospheric air. 4. A moderate quantity of fermentable matter. The phenomena which accompany this fermentation, are an intestine motion, and a considerable absorption of air. The transparent liquor becomes turbid, but regains its limpidity when fermentation is over. The fermented liquor now consists, in a great measure, of a peculiar acid, called the acetous acid, or vinegar. Not a vestige of spirit remains, it being entirely decomposed; but the greater the quantity of spirit in the liquor, previous to the fermentation, the greater will be the quantity of true vinegar obtained. See also *Putrefaction*.

FERN-MALE. See *Filix*.

FERN-FEMALE. See *Filix femina*.

FERRI LIMATŪRA PURIFICATA. Steel filings possess tonic, astringent, and deobstruent virtues, and are calculated to relieve chlorosis and other diseases in which steel is indicated, where crudity in the primæ viæ abounds.

FERRI RUBIGO. See *Rubigo ferri*.

FERRUM, (*Ferrum*, *i*, *n.*). Iron. See *Iron*.

FERRUM AMMONIACALE. *Flores martiales*. *Flores salis ammoniaci martiales*. *Ens martis*. *Ens veneris Boylei*.

Murias ammoniacæ ferratus. Sal martis muriaticum sublimatum. Sal ammoniacum martiale. This preparation is a true ammoniacal muriat of iron, and therefore termed *murias ferri ammoniacalis* in the new chemical nomenclature. It is exhibited in chlorosis, asthma, menorrhagia, intermittent fevers, and most cases of debility.

FERRUM TARTARISATUM. *Tartarus chalybeatus. Mars solubilis. Ferrum potabile.* This preparation of iron is called *Tartaris potassæ acidulus ferratus* in the new chemical nomenclature. Its virtues are adstringent and tonic, and it forms in solution an excellent tonic fomentation to contusions, lacerations, distortions, &c.

FERRUM VITRIOLATUM. *Vitriolum martis. Vitriolum ferri. Vitriolum viride. Sal martis.* Green vitriol. This is an excellent preparation of iron, and is exhibited in many diseases as a styptic, tonic, adstringent, and antihelmentic. In the new chemical nomenclature it is called *sulphas ferri*, it being a sulphate of iron.

FERŪLA ASSAFÆTIDA. The systematic name of the assafætida plant. See *Assafætida*.

FEVER. See *Febris*.

FEVERFEW. See *Matricaria*.

FIBER, (*Fiber, ri, m.* from *fiber*, extreme, because it resides in the extremities of lakes and rivers). The beaver. The female beaver. *Castor fiber* of Linnaeus, it has two excretory follicles near the anus filled with an unctuous substance called castor. See *Castoreum*.

FIBRE, (*Fibra, æ, f.*). A very simple filament, composed of earthy particles, connected together by an intermediate gluten. It is owing to the different arrangements of the fibres that the cellular structure, membranes, muscles, vessels, nerves, and, in short, every part of the body, except the fluids, are formed.

FIBRE MUSCULAR. See *Muscular fibre*.

FIBRINE. The coagulable lymph is so termed by the French.

FIBŪLA, (*Fibula, æ, f. quasi figula*, from *figo*, to fasten. So named because it joints together the tibia and the muscles). A long bone of the leg, situated on the outer side of the tibia, and which forms, at its lower end, the outer ankle. Its upper extremity is formed into an irregular head, on the inside of which is a slightly concave articulating surface, which, in the recent subject, is covered with cartilage, and receives the circular flat surface described under the edge of the external cavity of the tibia. This articulation is surrounded by a capsular ligament, which is farther strengthened by other strong ligamentous fibres, so as to allow only a small motion backwards and forwards.—Externally, the head of the fibula is rough and protuberant, serving for the attachment of ligaments, and for the insertion of the biceps cruris muscle.—Immediately below it, on its inner side, is a tubercle, from which a part of the gastrocnemius internus has its origin. Immediately below this head the body of the bone begins. It is of a triangular shape, and appears as if it were slightly twisted at each end in a different direction. It is likewise a little curved inwards and forwards. This curvature is in part owing to the action of muscles: and in part perhaps to the carelessness of nurses.—Of the three angles of the bone, that which is turned towards the tibia is the most prominent, and serves for the attachment of the interosseous ligament, which, in its structure and uses, resembles that of the fore-arm, and, like that, is a little interrupted above and below. The three surfaces of the bone are variously impressed by different muscles. About the middle of the posterior surface, is observed, a passage for the

medullary vessels, slanting downwards. The lower end of the fibula is formed into a spongy, oblong head, externally rough and convex, internally smooth, and covered with a thin cartilage, where it is received by the external triangular depression at the lower end of the tibia. This articulation, which resembles that of its upper extremity, is furnished with a capsular ligament, and farther strengthened by ligamentous fibres, which are stronger and more considerable than those we described above. They extend from the tibia to the fibula, in an oblique direction, and are more easily discernible before than behind. Below this the fibula is lengthened out, so as to form a considerable process, called *malleolus externus*, or the outer angle. It is smooth, and covered with cartilage on the inside, where it is contiguous to the astragalus, or first bone of the foot. At the lower and inner part of this process there is a spongy cavity, filled with fat; and a little beyond this, posteriorly, is a cartilaginous groove, for the tendons of the peroneus longus and peroneus brevis, which are here bound down by the ligamentous fibres that are extended over them.

The principal uses of this bone seem to be, to afford origin and insertion to muscles, and to contribute to the articulation of the leg with the foot.

FICARIA, (*Ficaria*, *a*, f. from *figus*, a fig, so called from its likeness). The herb figwort.

FICUS, (*Ficus*, *i*, f. or n.). A fleshy excrescence about the anus, in figure resembling a fig.

FICUS CARICA. The systematic name of the fig-tree. See *Carica*.

FIDICINÆLES, (*Fidicinalis*, *sc. musculus*). See *Lumbricalis*.

FIGS. See *Carica*.

FIG-WORT. See *Scrophularia*.

FILAMENT. A term applied in anatomy to a small thread-like portion adhering to any part, and frequently synonymous with fibre. See *Fibre*.

FILIPENDULA, (*Filipendula*, *a*, f. from *filum*, a thread, and *pendeo*, to hang, so named because the numerous bulbs of its root hang as it were by small threads). *Saxifraga rubra*. Drop-wort. The root of this plant, *Spiræa filipendula*; *foliis pennatis*, *foliolis uniformibus serratis*, *caule herbaceo*, *floribus corymbosis* of Linnæus, possesses adstringent, and it is said lithontriptic virtues. It is seldom used in the practice of the present day.

FILIX, (*Filix*, *icis*, f.). Male poly-pody, or fern. *Polypodium filix mas* of Linnæus. The root of this plant has lately been greatly celebrated for its effects upon the *tania osculis superficialibus*, or broad tape-worm. Madame Noufer acquired great celebrity by employing it as a specific. This secret was thought of such importance by some of the principal physicians at Paris, who were deputed to make a complete trial of its efficacy, that it was purchased by the French king, and afterwards published by his order. The method of cure is the following: After the patient has been prepared by an emolient glyster, and a supper of panada, with butter and salt, he is directed to take in the morning, while in bed, a dose of two or three drachms of the powdered root of the male fern. The powder must be washed down with a draught of water, and two hours after a strong cathartic, composed of calomel and scammony, is to be given, proportioned to the strength of the patient. If this does not operate in due time, it is to be followed by a dose of purging salts, and if the worm be not expelled in a few hours, this process is to be repeated at proper intervals. Of the success of this, or a similar mode of treatment, in cases of *tænia*, there can be no doubt, as many proofs of it in this country afford sufficient testimony; but whether the fern-root or the strong cathartic is the princi-

pal agent in the destruction of the worm, may admit of a question.

FILIX FÆMĪNA. The female fern. The plant which is thus called in the pharmacopœias, is not the *Polypodium filix fœmina*, but the *Pteris aquilina*; *frondibus supradecompositis, foliolis pinnatis pinnis lanceolatis, infimis pinnatifidis, superioribus minoribus* of Linnæus. The root is esteemed as an anthelmintic, and is supposed to be as efficacious in the destroying the tape-worm as the root of the male-fern.

FILIX MAS. See *Filix*.

FILTRATION. A method of rendering fluids clear, by passing them through a porous solid, as the filtering stone, compact close linen, woollen cloths, or porous paper, which is generally used for this purpose, as a lining to a funnel, or other such vessel. Filtration is also performed on a principle somewhat different, as by immersing one end of a porous substance, as a piece of list, scaine of cotton, or slip of thick paper, or other such substance, moistened in its whole length in the fluid, and allowing the other end of it to hang down over the outside of the vessel. The fluid in this depending part drains out by its own gravity, and is supplied by capillary attraction from the portion next within the vessel, which is supplied in the same manner from the surface of the fluid, till the whole passes over, unless too deep, the list, &c. appearing to act as syphons.

FIMBRIÆ, (*Fimbria*, *a*, *f. quasi finibria*, from *finis*, the extremity). The extremities of the Fallopian tubes.

FINCKLE. See *Feniculum*.

FINE LEAVED WATER HEMLOCK. See *Feniculum aquaticum*.

FINOCHIO. The Italian name of the sweet azorian fennel.

FIR-TREE. See *Abies*.

FIR, BALSAM OF GILEAD. See *Balsamea*.

FIR, CANADA. See *Balsamum Canadense*.

FIR, NORWAY SPUCE. See *Pinus abies*.

FIR, SCOTCH. See *Pinus silvestris*.

FIR, SILVER. See *Pinus picea*.

FIRE, (*Ignis*, *is*, *m.*). A very simple and active element, the principal agent in nature to balance the power and natural effect of attraction. The most usual acceptation of the word fire comprehends *heat* and *light*. There have been several theories proposed respecting fire, but no one as yet is generally received. It is therefore, at present, only known by its effects, namely, light, heat, rarefaction.

FISH-GLUE. See *Ishthyocola*.

FISSŪRA MAGNA SYLVII. The anterior and middle lobes of the cerebrum on each side are parted by a deep narrow sulcus, which ascends obliquely backwards from the temporal ala of the os sphenoides, to near the middle of the os parietale, and this sulcus is thus called.

FISSURE, (*Fissura*, *a*, *f.*). That species of fracture in which the bone is slit but not completely divided.

FISTICK-NUT. See *Pistachio nut*.

FISTŪLA. (*Fistula*, *a*, *f. quasi fistula*, from *fundo*, to pour out). A term in surgery, applied to a long and sinuous ulcer that has a narrow opening, and sometimes leads to a larger cavity.

FIVE-LEAVED GRASS. See *Pentaphyllum*.

FIXED AIR. See *Carbonic acid*.

FIXED BODIES. Chemists give this name to those substances which cannot be caused to pass by a strong rarefaction from the liquid state to that of an elastic fluid.

FLAG, SWEET. See *Calamus aromaticus*.

FLAG, YELLOW WATER. See *Iris palustris*.

FLAMMŪLA, (*Flammula*, *a*, *f. dim.*

of *flamma*, a fire, named from the burning pungency of its taste). Small water crow-foot, or spear-wort. The roots and leaves of this common plant, *Ranunculus flammula*; *foliis ovatis-lanceolatis, petiolatis, caule declinato* of Linnæus, taste very acrid and hot, and, when taken in a small quantity, produce vomiting, spasms of the stomach, and delirium. Applied externally, they vesicate the skin. The best antidote after clearing the stomach, is cold-water acidulated with lemon-juice, and then mucilaginous drinks.

FLAMMŪLA JOVIS, (*Flammula jovis*, so called from the burning pungency of its taste). Upright virgin's bower. *Clematis recta; foliis pinnatis, foliolis ovato lanceolatis integerrimis, caule erecto, floribus pentapetalis tetrapetalisque* of Linnæus. Class, *polyandria*. Order, *polygynia*. More praises have been bestowed upon the virtue which the leaves of this plant are said to possess, when exhibited internally as an antivenereal, by foreign physicians, than its trials in this country can justify. The powdered leaves are sometimes applied externally to ulcers as an escharotic.

FLATULENT. Windy.

FLAX-LEAVED DAPHNE. See *Thymelea*.

FLAX, PURGING. See *Linum Catharticum*.

FLAX, SPURGE. See *Thymelea*.

FLEA-WORT. See *Psyllium*.

FLEXOR, (*Flexor, oris, m.*). The name of several muscles whose office it is to bend parts into which they are inserted.

FLEXOR ACCESSORIUS DIGITORUM PEDIS. See *Flexor longus digitorum pedis*.

FLEXOR BRĒVIS DIGITORUM PEDIS, PERFORATUS, SUBLIMIS. *Perforatus seu sublimis* of Douglas. A flexor muscle of the toes, situated on the foot. It arises by a narrow tendinous and fleshy beginning from the inferior protuberance of the os

calcis. It likewise derives many of its fleshy fibres from the adjacent aponeurosis, and soon forms a thick belly, which divides into four portions. Each of these portions terminates in a flat tendon, the fibres of which decussate, to afford a passage to a tendon of the long flexor, and afterwards re-uniting, are inserted into the second phalanx of each of the four lesser toes. This muscle serves to bend the second joint of the toes.

FLEXOR BRĒVIS MINIMI DIGITI PEDIS. *Parathenar minor* of Winslow. This little muscle is situated along the inferior surface and outer edge of the metatarsal bone of the little toe. It arises tendinous from the basis of that bone, and from the ligaments that connect it to the os cuboides. It soon becomes fleshy, and adheres almost the whole length of the metatarsal bone, at the anterior extremity of which it forms a small tendon that is inserted into the root of the first joint of the little toe. Its use is to bend the little toe.

FLEXOR BRĒVIS POLLICIS MANUS. *Flexor secundi internodii* of Douglas. *Thenar* of Winslow. This muscle is divided into two portions by the tendon of the flexor longus pollicis. The outermost portion arises tendinous from the anterior part of the os trapezoides and internal annular ligament. The second or innermost and thickest portion, arises from the same bone, and likewise from the os magnum, and os cuneiforme. Both these portions are inserted tendinous into the sesamoid bones, and second bone of the thumb. The use of this muscle is to bend the second joint of the thumb.

FLEXOR BRĒVIS POLLICIS PEDIS. A muscle of the great toe, that bends the first joint of the great toe. It is situated upon the metatarsal bone of the great toe, arises tendinous from the under and anterior part of the os calcis, and from the under part of

the *os cuneiforme externum*. It soon becomes fleshy and divisible into two portions, which do not separate from each other till they have reached the anterior extremity of the metatarsal bone of the great toe, where they become tendinous, and then the innermost portion unites with the tendon of the abductor, and the outermost with that of the adductor pollicis. They adhere to the external *os sesamoideum*, and are finally inserted into the root of the first joint of the great toe. These two portions, by their separation form a groove, in which passes the tendon of the *flexor longus pollicis*.

FLEXOR CARPI RADIALIS. This, which is the *radialis internus* of Albinus and Winslow, is a long thin muscle, situated obliquely at the inner and anterior part of the fore-arm, between the *palmaris longus* and the *pronator teres*. It arises tendinous from the inner condyle of the *os humeri*, and, by many fleshy fibres, from the adjacent tendinous fascia. It descends along the inferior edge of the *pronator teres*, and terminates in a long, flat, and thin tendon, which afterwards becomes narrower and thicker, and after passing under the internal annular ligament, in a groove distinct from the other tendons of the wrist, it spreads wider again, and is inserted into the fore and upper part of the metacarpal bone that sustains the fore finger. It serves to bend the hand, and its oblique direction may likewise enable it to assist in its pronation.

FLEXOR CARPI ULNARIS. *Ulnaris internus* of Winslow and Albinus. A muscle, situated on the cubit or fore arm, that assists the former in bending the arm. It arises tendinous from the inner condyle of the *os humeri*, and, by a small fleshy origin, from the anterior edge of the olecranon. Between these two portions, we find the ulnar nerve passing to the

fore-arm. Some of its fibres arise likewise from the tendinous fascia that covers the muscles of the fore-arm. In its descent it soon becomes tendinous, but its fleshy fibres do not entirely disappear till it has reached the lower extremity of the ulna, where its tendon spreads a little, and, after sending off a few fibres to the external and internal and annular ligaments, is inserted into the *os pisiforme*.

FLEXOR LONGUS DIGITORUM PEDIS, PROFUNDUS, PERFORANS. A flexor muscle of the toes, situated along the posterior part and inner side of the leg. It arises fleshy from the back part of the tibia, and after running down to the internal ancle, its tendon passes under a kind of annular ligament, and then through a sinuosity at the inside of the *os calcis*. Soon after this it receives a small tendon from the *flexor longus pollicis pedis*, and about the middle of the foot it divides into four tendons, which pass through the slits of the *flexor brevis digitorum pedis*, and are inserted into the upper part of the last bone of all the lesser toes. About the middle of the foot this muscle unites with a fleshy portion, which, from the name of its first describer, has been usually called *massa carnea Jacobi Sylvi*: it is also termed *Flexor accessorius digitorum pedis*. This appendage arises by a thin fleshy origin, from most part of the sinuosity of the *os calcis*, and likewise by a thin tendinous beginning from the anterior part of the external tubercle of that bone; it soon becomes all fleshy, and unites to the long flexor just before it divides into its four tendons. The use of this muscle is to bind the last joint of the toes.

FLEXOR LONGUS POLLICIS MANUS. This muscle, which is so named by Winslow and Albinus, is the *flexor tertii internodii* of Douglas. It is placed at the side of the last described muscle, and is covered by the

extensores carpi radiales. It arises fleshy from the anterior surface of the radius immediately below the insertion of the biceps, and is continued down along the oblique ridge, which serves for the insertion of the supinator brevis, as far as the pronator quadratus. Some of its fibres spring likewise from the neighbouring edge of the interosseous ligament. Its tendon passes under the internal annular ligament of the wrist, and after running along the inner surface of the first bone of the thumb, between the two portions of the flexor brevis pollicis, goes to be inserted into the last joint of the thumb, being bound down in its way by the ligamentous expansion that is spread over the second bone. In some subjects we find a tendinous portion arising from the inner condyle of the os humeri, and forming a fleshy slip that commonly terminates near the upper part of the origin of this muscle from the radius. The use of this muscle is to bend the last joint of the thumb.

FLEXOR LONGUS POLLICIS PEDIS. This muscle is situated along the posterior part of the leg. It arises tendinous and fleshy a little below the head of the fibula, and its fibres continue to adhere to that bone almost to its extremity. A little above the heel it terminates in a round tendon, which after passing in a groove formed at the posterior edge of the astragalus, and internal and lateral part of the os calcis, in which it is secured by an annular ligament, goes to be inserted into the last bone of the great toe, which it serves to bend.

FLEXOR OSSIS METACARPI POLLICIS. *Opponens pollicis. Flexor primi internodii* of Douglas. This muscle is situated under the abductor brevis pollicis, which it resembles in its shape. It arises tendinous and fleshy from the os scaphoides, and from the anterior and inner part of the internal annular ligament. It is inserted ten-

dinous and fleshy into the under and anterior part of the first bone of the thumb. It serves to turn the first bone of the thumb upon its axis, and at the same time to bring it inwards opposite to the other fingers.

FLEXOR PARVUS MINIMI DIGITI MANUS. *Abductor minimi digiti, Hypothenar Riolani* of Douglas. The situation of this muscle is along the inner surface of the metacarpal bone of the little finger. It arises tendinous and fleshy from the hook-like process of the unciform bone, and likewise from the anterior surface of the adjacent part of the annular ligament. It terminates in a flat tendon, which is connected with that of the abductor minimi digiti, and inserted into the inner and anterior part of the upper end of the first bone of the little finger. It serves to bend the little finger, and likewise to assist the abductor.

FLEXOR PROFUNDUS PERFORANS. *Profundus* of Albinus. *Perforans* of Douglas. It is a muscle situated on the fore-arm, immediately under the perforatus, which it greatly resembles in its shape. It arises fleshy from the external side, and upper part of the ulna for some way downwards, and from a large portion of the interosseous ligament. It splits into four tendons a little before it passes under the annular ligament of the wrist, and these pass through the slits in the tendons of the flexor sublimis, to be inserted into the fore and upper part of the third or last bone of all the four fingers, which joint they bend.

FLEXOR SUBLIMIS PERFORATUS. This muscle, which is the *perforatus* of Cowper, Douglas, and Winslow, is by Albinus and others named *sublimis*. It has gotten the name of *perforatus* from its tendons being perforated by those of another flexor muscle of the finger, called the *perforans*. They who give it the appellation of

sublimis, consider its situation with respect to the latter, and which, instead of *perforans*, the name *profundus*. It is a long muscle, situated most commonly at the anterior and inner part of the fore-arm, between the palmaris longus and the flexor carpi ulnaris; but, in some subjects, we find it placed under the former of these muscles, between the flexor carpi ulnaris and the flexor carpi radialis. It arises, tendinous and fleshy, from the inner condyle of the os humeri, from the inner edge of the coronoid process of the ulna, and from the upper and fore part of the radius, down to near the insertion of the pronator teres. A little below the middle of the fore-arm its fleshy belly divides into four portions, which degenerate into as many round tendons, that pass all together under the internal annular ligament of the wrist, after which they separate from each other, become thinner and flatter, and running along the palm of the hand, under the aponeurosis palmaris, are inserted into the upper part of the second bone of each finger. Previous to this insertion, however, the fibres of each tendon decussate near the extremity of the first bone, so as to afford a passage to a tendon of the perforans. Of these four tendons, that of the middle-finger is the largest, that of the fore-finger the next in size, and that of the little-finger the smallest. The use of this muscle is to bend the second joint of the fingers.

FLEXOR TERTII INTERNODII. See *Flexor longus pollicis manus*.

FLORES BENZŒS. See *Benzoic acid*.

FLORES SULPHŪRIS. See *Sulphur*.

FLORESSULPHŪRIS LOTI. When sublimed sulphur is boiled and washed in water, it forms the *flores sulphuris loti* of the pharmacopœias. Analogous to this preparation is the *sulphur præcipitatum*; they possess eccoprotic,

diaphoretic, and antipforical virtues, and are administered in obstipation where there are piles, colica pictonum, worm cases, to diminish salivations, &c.

FLOWERS. A term formerly employed by chemists to the fine parts which are sublimated from certain bodies, as the flowers of benzamin, sulphur, zinc, &c.

FLOWER-DE-LUCE. See *Iris nostras*.

FLOWERS OF BENJAMIN. See *Benzoic acid*.

FLUATS, (*Fluas, tis, m.*). Salts formed by the fluoric acid, combined with different basis: thus, *fluat of alumin, fluat of ammoniac, &c.*

FLUCTUATION. A term often used by surgeons to express the undulation of a fluid; thus when pus is formed in an abscess, or when water accumulates in the abdomen, if the abscess or abdomen be lightly pressed with the fingers, the motion of fluctuation may be distinctly felt.

FLUELLIN. See *Elatine*.

FLUID. A fluid is that substance, the constituent principles of which so little attract each other, that, when poured out, it drops *guttatim*, and adapts itself, in every respect, to the form of the vessel containing it.

FLUIDS OF THE BODY. The drying of any part of the human body demonstrates, that by far the greater part consists of fluid. The quantity of fluid in a man of one hundred and sixty pounds weight is estimated at one hundred and thirty-five pounds. The fluids of the human body are divided into, 1. *Crude*, or those which have not yet entirely put on the animal nature, as the chyme and chyle; 2. *Sanguineous*, to this is referred the blood, or the cruor of the blood; 3. *Lymphatic*, which are those of the lymphatic vessels, and the nutritious jelly; 4. *Secreted*, to this head are referred all those separated from the blood, which are very numerous;

Excrementitious, which are eliminated from the body, as the alvine fæces, urine, cutaneous, and pulmonary perspirable matter.

The secreted humours are divided into, 1. *Lacteal*, which are white, as the milk, juice of the prostate and thymus glands; 2. *Aqueous*, as the aqueous humour of the eye; 3. *Mucous*, as the mucous of the nostrils and primæ viæ; 4. *Albuminous*, as the serum of the blood; 5. *Oleous*, as the oil of the adipose membrane: 6. *Bilious*, as the bile and wax of the ears.

The fluids of the human body are also divided from their motion into, 1. *Circulating*, which continually circulate in the vessels; 2. *Commorant*, which circulate with a slow motion, as the oil of the adipose membrane and male semen; 3. *Stagnant*, which remain for a certain time in any receptacle, as cystic bile, urine, and the alvine fæces.

FLUOR ALBUS. See *Leucorrhœa*.

FLUOR SPAR. Vitreous spar. Sparry fluor. Derbyshire spar. A species of salt which abounds in nature, formed by the combination of the sparry acid with lime. It is called spar, because it has the sparry form and fracture; fluor, because it melts very readily; and vitreous, because it has the appearance of glass, and may be fused into glass of no contemptible appearance.

FLUX. This word is mostly employed for *dysenteria sanguinea*.

FLUXION. A term mostly applied by chemists to signify the change of metals or other bodies from the solid into the fluid state by the application of heat. See *Fusion*.

FLY, SPANISH. See *Cantharides*.

FENICÛLUM, (*Feniculum*, *i*, *n*. *quasi fanum oculorum*, the hay or herb good for the sight; so called because it is thought good for the eyes). Fennel.

FENICÛLUM AQUATICUM. Water fennel. Fine-leaved water hem-

lock. The plant which bears this name in the pharmacopœias is the *Phellandrium aquaticum*; *foliorum ramificationibus divaricatis*, of Linnæus. It possesses vertiginous and poisonous qualities, which are best counteracted by acids, after clearing the primæ viæ. The seeds are recommended by some, in conjunction with peruvian bark, in the cure of pulmonary phthisis.

FENICÛLUM DULCE. Common fennel. *Anethum feniculum fructibus ovatis* of Linnæus. Class *Pentandria*. Order *Digynia*. The seeds and roots of this indigenous plant are directed by the colleges of London and Edinburgh. The seeds have an aromatic smell, and a warm sweetish taste, and contain a large proportion of essential oil. They are stomachic and carminative. The root has a sweet taste, but very little aromatic warmth, and is said to be pectoral and diuretic.

FENICÛLUM PORCINUM. See *Peucedanum*.

FENICÛLUM VULGARE. Common fennel or fenckle. A variety of the *Anethum feniculum*. See *Feniculum dulce*.

FENUM GRÆCUM, (*Fenum*, *i*, hay, and *græcus*, belonging to Greece, because in Greece it grew in the meadows like hay). Fenugreek. *Trigonella fenum græcum leguminibus sessilibus strictis erectiusculis subfalcatis acuminatis, caule erecto*, of Linnæus. Class *Dicladophia*. Order *Decandria*. A native of Montpellier. The seeds are brought to us from the southern parts of France and Germany; they have a strong disagreeable smell, and an unctuous farinaceous taste, accompanied with a slight bitterness. They are esteemed as assisting the formation of pus in inflammatory tumours; and the meal, with that intention, is made into a poultice with milk.

FENUM CAMELORUM. See *Juncus odoratus*.

FÆTUS, (*Fatus*, *us*, *m*.). The child enclosed in the uterus of its mo-

ther is called a *fœtus* from the fifth month after pregnancy until the time of its birth. The internal parts peculiar to the *fœtus* are the thymus gland, *canalis venosus*, *canalis arteriosus*, *foramen ovale*, and the *membrana pupillaris*. Besides these peculiarities, there are other circumstances in which the *fœtus* differs from the adult. The lungs are black and collapsed, and sink in water; the liver is very large; all the glands, especially the thymus and suprarenal, and the vermiform process of the *cæcum*, are also considerably larger in proportion. The teeth of the *fœtus* are hid within their sockets; the great intestines contain a substance called *meconium*; the *membrana tympani* is covered with a kind of mucous membrane, and the bones in many places are cartilaginous.

FOLIUM ORIENTALE. See *Senna*.

FOLLICLE, (*Folliculus*, *i*, *m.* dim. of *follis*, a bag). The hollowed species of gland which consists of simply a hollow vascular membrane and an excretory duct.

FOLLICULOSE GLAND. One of the most simple species of gland, consisting merely of a hollow vascular membrane or follicle and an excretory duct; such are the muciparous glands, the sebaceous, &c.

FOMENTATION, (*Fomentatio*, *ōnis*, *f.*). A sort of partial bathing, by applying hot flannels to any part dipped in medicated decoctions, whereby steams are communicated to the diseased parts, their vessels are relaxed, and their morbid action sometimes removed.

FOMITES. A term mostly applied as synonymous with contagion.

FONS PULSATILIS. See *Fontanella*.

FONTANELLA, (*Fontanella*, *a*, dim. of *fons*, a fountain). *Fons pulsabilis*. The parietal bones and the frontal bones do not coalesce until the third

year, so that before this period there is an obvious interstice, commonly called *mould*, and scientifically the *fontanel*, or *fons pulsabilis*. There is also a lesser space, occasionally, between the occipital and parietal bones, termed the *posterior fontanel*. These spaces between the bones are filled up by the *dura mater* and the external integuments, so that, during birth, the size of the head may be lessened; for at that time the bones of the head, upon the superior part, are not only pressed nearer to each other, but they frequently lap over one another, in order to diminish the size during the passage of the head through the pelvis.

FONTANELLA ANTERIOR. See *Fontanella*.

FONTANELLA POSTERIOR. See *Fontanella*.

FONTICULUS, (*Fonticulus*, *i*, *m.* dim. of *fons*, an issue). An artificial ulcer formed in any part, and kept discharging by introducing daily a pea, covered with any digestive ointment.

FORAMEN, (*Foramen*, *inis*, *n.* from *foro*, to pierce). A little opening.

FORAMEN CÆCUM. A single opening in the basis of the cranium between the ethmoid and the frontal bone, that gives exit to a small vein.

FORAMEN OVALE. The opening between the two auricles of the heart of the *fœtus*. See also *Innominatum os*.

FORAMINA LACĒRA IN BASI CRANII. A pair of foramina in the basis of the cranium, through which the internal jugular veins and the eighth pair of accessory nerves pass.

FORCEPS. (*Forceps*, *ipis*, *f.* *raro*, *si unquam*, *m.* *quasi ferriceps*, as being the iron with which we seize any thing hot, from *ferrum*, iron, and *capio*, to take). A surgical instrument with which extraneous bodies or other substances are extracted. Also an instru-

ment occasionally by men-midwives to bring the head of the fœtus through the pelvis.

FORESKIN. See *Præpuce*.

FORMIATS, (*Formias, tis, m.*). Salts produced by the union of the formic acid with different bases: thus, *formiat of alumin, formiat of ammoniac, &c.*

FORMICA, (*Formica, æ. f. quod ferat micas*, because of his diligence in collecting small particles of provision together). The ant or pismire. This industrious little insect, *Formica rufa* of Linnæus, contains an acid juice and a gross oil, which were supposed to possess aphrodisiac virtues. The crysalides of this animal are said to be diuretic and carminative, and by some recommended in the cure of dropsy. See *Formic acid*.

FORMIC ACID. *Acidum formicum*. The acid of ants was known to Tragus, Bauhin, Fisher, Etmuller, Hoffman, and many others. It is obtained chiefly from the red ant, *Formica rufa* of Linnæus, by distilling them in a retort, and by washing them in boiling water.* When rectified, and rather concentrated, it has a penetrating smell, and is corrosive; and its taste is so agreeable when greatly diluted with water, that it has been proposed to be used instead of vinegar.

FORMŪLA, (*Formula, æ. f. dim. of forma, a form*). A little form of prescription, such as physicians direct in extemporaneous practice, in distinction from the greater forms in pharmacopœias, &c.

FORNIX, (*Fornix, icis, f. an arch or vault*). A part of the corpus callosum in the brain is so called, because, if viewed in a particular direction, it has some resemblance to the arch of an ancient vault). The medullary body, composed of two anterior and two posterior crura, situated at the bottom and inside of the lateral ven-

tricle, over the third ventricle, and below the septum lucidum.

FOSSA, (*Fossa, æ, f. from fodio, to dig*). *Fovea*. A little depression or sinus.

FOSSA OVĀLIS. The depression in the right auricle of the human heart, which in the fœtus opened into the other auricle, forming the foramen ovale.

FOSSIL, (*Fossilis, from fodio, to dig*). Any thing dug out of the earth.

FOVĒA, (*Fovea, æ, f. from fodio, to dig*). A little depression.

FOX-GLOVE. See *Digitalis*.

FOX-GLOVE EASTERN. The seeds of this plant, *Sesamum orientale* of Linnæus, are in much esteem in South Carolina, where they are called *oily grain*, they are made into soups and puddings after the manner of rice. Toasted over the fire, they are mixed with other ingredients, and stewed into a delicious food. The fresh seed affords a considerable quantity of a warm pungent oil, otherwise not unpalatable. In a year or two the pungency leaves it, when the oil is used for salad, &c. The seed of the *Sesamum indicum* are used in the same manner.

FRACTURE, (*Fractura, æ, f. from frango, to break*). A fracture is a solution of a bone into two or more fragments. A *simple* fracture is when the bone only is divided. A *compound* fracture is a division of the bone, with a laceration of the integuments, the bone mostly protruding. A fracture is also termed transverse, oblique, &c. according to its direction.

FRĒNŪLUM, (*Frænulum, i, n. dim. of frænum, a bridle*). The cutaneous fold, under the apex of the tongue, that connects the tongue to the infralingual cavity. It is sometimes, in infancy, so short as to prevent the child from sucking, when it is necessary to cut it, in order to give

more room for the motion of the tongue.

FRÆNUM, (*Frænum*, i, n.). The membranous fold which connects the præpuce to the inferior part of the glans penis.

FRAGA, (*Fraga*, æ, f. from *fragro*, to smell sweet). The strawberry. See *Fragaria*.

FRAGARIA, (*Fragaria*, æ, f. from *fragno*, to smell sweet). *Fraga*. The strawberry. The mature fruit of the *Fragaria vesca*, *fragellis reptantibus* of Linnæus, was formerly recommended in gouty and calculous affections, in consequence, it would appear, of its efficacy in removing tartar from the teeth, which it does very effectually. See *Fruetus horæi*.

FRAGARIA VESCA. The systematic name of the strawberry. See *Fragaria*.

FRAMBŒSIA, (*Frambæsia*, æ, f. from *framboise*, French for a raspberry). The yaws. A genus of disease arranged by Cullen in the class *cachexia*, and order *impetigines*. It is somewhat similar in its nature to the lues venerea, and is endemial to the Antilla islands. It appears with excrescences, like mulberries, growing out of the skin in various parts of the body, which discharge an ichorous fluid.

FRANKINCENSE. See *Thus*.

FRANGŪLA, (*Frangula*, æ, f. from *frango*, to break, so called because of the brittleness of its branches). Black alder. This officinal tree is the *Rhamnus frangula*; *inermis floribus monogynis hermaphroditis, foliis integerrimis* of Linnæus. The berries and bark are used medicinally as strong purgatives. The former are often substituted for those of the buckthorn; the latter, which is the internal bark, and of a yellow colour, is mostly employed by the common people in dropical and other disorders.

FRAXINELLA, (*Fraxinella*, æ, f.

from *fraximis*, the ash, so called because its leaves resemble those of the ash). See *Dictamnus albus*.

FRAXINELLA, WHITE. *Dictamnus albus*.

FRAXĪNUS, (*Fraxinus*, i, f. a *fragore*, from the noise its seeds make when shaken by the wind; or from *φραξίς*, a hedge, because of its use in forming hedges). The ash. The bark of this tree, *Fraxinus excelsior*; *foliis serratis floribus apetalis* of Linnæus, when fresh has a moderately strong bitterish taste. It possesses resolvent and diuretic qualities, and has been successfully exhibited in the cure of intermittents. The seeds are occasionally exhibited medicinally as diuretics. In warm climates, a species of manna exudes from this species of *fraxinus*.

FRAXĪNUS EXCELSIOR. The systematic name of the ash tree. See *Fraxinus*.

FRAXĪNUS ORNUS. The systematic name of the tree from which manna flows. See *Manna*.

FRAXĪNUS ROTUNDĪFOLIĀ. The systematic name of a tree which affords manna. See *Manna*.

FRONS, (*Frons*, tis, f. & m.). The forehead. The part between the eyebrows and the hairy scalp.

FRONTAL BONE. *Os frontis*. The cockleshell-like bone which forms the forehead, and contains the two anterior lobes of the brain. Its principal processes are the two superciliary arches, and two external and internal orbital apophyses. Its cavities are two orbital cavities, a notch for the trochlea of the superior oblique muscle, two large pituitary sinusses, one on each side above the root of the nose, called the frontal sinusses; the ethmoid notch, and superciliary foramen. In the fœtus it is composed of two bones. The union of the frontal bone with the parietal bones forms the coronal suture.

FRONTALIS. See *Occipito-frontalis*.

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FRONTAL SINUS. See *Frontal bone*.

FRONTALIS VERUS. See *Corrugator supercilii*.

FRUCTUS HORÆI. See *Fruits, summer*.

FRUITS, SUMMER. *Fructus horæi*. Under this term physicians comprehend strawberries, cherries, currants, mulberries, raspberries, and the like. They possess a sweet sub-acid taste, and are exhibited as dietetic auxiliaries, as refrigerants, antiseptics, attenuants, and aperients. Formerly they were exhibited medicinally in the cure of putrid affections, and to promote the alvine and urinary excretions. Considering them as an article of diet, they afford little nourishment, and are liable to produce flatulencies. To persons of a bilious constitution and rigid fibres, and where the habit is disposed naturally, or from extrinsic causes, to an inflammatory or putrescent state, their moderate, and even plentiful use, is salubrious; by those of a cold inactive disposition, where the vessels are lax, the circulation languid, and the digestion weak, they should be used very sparingly. The juices extracted from these fruits by expression, contain their active qualities freed from their grosser indigestible matter. On standing, the juice ferments and changes to a vinous or acetous state. By the proper addition of sugar, and by boiling, their fermentive power is suppressed, and their medicinal qualities preserved. The juices of these fruits, when purified from their feculencies by settling and straining, may be made into syrups, with a due proportion of sugar in the usual way.

FRUMENTACEOUS. A term applied to all such plants as have a conformity with wheat, either with respect to their fruit, leaves, or ears.

FUCUS HELMINTOCHORTON. See *Corrallina corsicana*.

FUCUS VESICULOSUS. The sys-

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tematic name of the sea oak. See *Quercus marina*.

FULIGO, (*Fuligo, ginis, f. quasi fumiligo*, from *fumus*, smoke). Soot. Wood foot, *fuligo ligni*, or the condensed smoke from burning wood, has a pungent, bitter, and nauseous taste, and is resolved by chemical analysis into a volatile alkaline salt, an empyreumatic oil, a fixed alkali, and an insipid earth. The tincture prepared from this substance, *tinctura fuliginis*, is recommended as a powerful antispasmodic in hysterical affections.

FULMINATION. A quick and lively explosion of bodies, such as takes place on fulminating gold, fulminating powder, and in the combustion of inflammable gas and vital air.

FUMARIA, (*Fumaria, æ, f.* from *fumus*, smoke, from its juice when dropped into the eye, producing the same sensations as smoke). Common fumitory. The leaves of this indigineous plant, *Fumaria officinalis pericarpis monospermis racemosis, caule diffusis* of Linnæus, Class, *Diadelphia*, Order *Decandria*, are directed for medicinal use by the Edinburgh college; they are extremely succulent, and have no remarkable smell, but a bitter, somewhat saline taste. The infusion of the dried leaves, or the expressed juice of the fresh plant, is esteemed for its property of clearing the skin of many disorders of the leprous kind.

FUMARIA BULBOSA. See *Aristolochia fabacea*.

FUMARIA OFFICINĀLIS. The systematic name of the fumitory. See *Fumaria*.

FUMIGATION. The application of fumes, either of metallic or other preparations to particular parts of the body, as those of the mercurial kind to venereal sores, &c.

FUMITORY. See *Fumaria*.

FUNCTION, (*Functio, onis, f.*). Action. The power or faculty by

which any action of an animated body is performed. The functions of our body are divided into *vital*, by which life is immediately supported, as the action of the heart and arteries, respiration and animal heat; *animal*, which are effected through the operation of the mind, as the external and internal senses, the voluntary action of the muscles, voice, watching, and sleep; *natural*, by which the body is preserved, as hunger, thirst, mastication, deglutition, digestion, chylickation, sanguification, nutrition of the body, and the various secretions and excretions; and, lastly, into *sexual functions*, such as menstruation, conception, formation of the fœtus, and parturition.

FUNGUS, (*Fungus*, *i*, *m.*). Proud flesh. A term in surgery to express any luxuriant formation of flesh.

FUNGUS IGNIARIUS. See *Agaricus*.

FUNGUS LARICIS. See *Agaricus albus*.

FUNGUS MELITENSIS. This is improperly called a fungus, it being the *Cinomorium coccineum* of Linnæus. A drachm of the powder is given for a dose in dysenteries and hæmorrhagies, and with remarkable success.

FUNGUS ROSACEUS. See *Bedaguar*.

FUNGUS SALICIS. The willow fungus. The species of fungus ordered in some pharmacopœias by this name is the *Boletus suavolens*; *acaulis superne, lavis, salicibus*, of Linnæus, and the *Boletus albus* of Hudson. When fresh, it has a suburinous smell, and at first an acid taste, followed by a bitter. It is seldom used at present, but was formerly given in phthical complaints.

FUNGUS SAMBUCINUS. See *Auricula Jude*.

FUNGUS VINOSUS. The dark cobweb-like fungus, which vegetates in dry cellars, where wine, ale, and the like, are kept.

FUNICULUS UMBILICALIS, (*Funiculus*, *i*, *m.* dim. of *funis*, a cord). See *Umbilical cord*.

FURFUR, (*Furfur*, *aris*, *m.*). Bran. A disease of the skin, in which the cuticle keeps falling off in small scales like bran.

FURFURACEOUS, (*Furfuraceus*, from *furfur*, bran). A term applied to the sediment deposited in the urine of persons afflicted with fever, of a reddish or whitish matter, which generally appears within an hour or two after the urine is passed, and only falls in part to the bottom, the urine remaining turbid.

FURNACES, (*Furnus*, *i*, *m.*). The furnaces employed in chemical operations are of three kinds: 1. *The evaporatory furnace*, which has received its name from its use; it is employed to reduce substances into vapour by means of heat, in order to separate the more fixed principles from those which are more ponderous, and were mixed, suspended, compounded, or dissolved in the fluid. 2. *The reverberatory furnace*, which name it has received from its construction, being appropriated to distillation. 3. *The forge furnace*, in which the current of air is determined by bellows.

FUROR UTERINUS, (*Furor*, *oris*, *m.*). See *Nymphomania*.

FURUNCLE, (*Furuncul*, *i*, *m.* from *furo*, to rage; so named from its heat and inflammation before it suppurates). A boil. An inflammation of a subcutaneous gland, known by an inflammatory tumour that does not exceed the size of a pigeon's egg.

FUSION. A chemical process, by which bodies are made to pass from the solid to the fluid state, in consequence of the application of heat. The chief objects susceptible of this operation are salts, sulphur, and metals. Salts are liable to two kinds of fusion: the one, which is peculiar to saline matters, is owing to water, and is called *aqueous fusion*; the other, which arises from the application of fire, is known by the name of *igneous fusion*.

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GABIANUM OLĒUM. See *Petro-leum rubrum*.

GALACTOPHOROUS DUCTS, (*Ductus galactophorus*, from γαλα, milk, and φερω, to carry, because they bring the milk to the nipple). The excretory ducts of the glands of the breasts of women, which terminate in the papilla or nipple.

GALANGA, (*Galanga*, α, f. perhaps its Indian name). Galangal. The roots of this plant are used medicinally; two kinds are mentioned in the pharmacopœias, which differ only in size, both being the produce of one plant, the *Marcuta galanga*; *caulino simplici foliis lanceolatis subsessilibus*, of Linnæus. The dried root is brought from China, in pieces from an inch to two in length, scarce half so thick, branched, full of knots and joints, with several circular rings, of a reddish brown colour on the outside, and brownish within. It has an aromatic smell, not very grateful, and an unpleasant, bitterish, hot, biting taste. It was formerly much used as a warm stomachic bitter, and generally ordered in bitter infusions. It is now, however, seldom employed.

GALANGA MAJOR. See *Galanga*.

GALANGA MINOR. See *Galanga*.

GALANGAL. See *Galanga*.

GALANGAL, ENGLISH. See *Cyperus*.

GALBANUM, (*Galbanum*, i, n. Heb.). A gummi-resinous juice, obtained partly by its spontaneous exudation from the joints of the stem of the *Bubon galbanum*; *foliis rhombeis dentatis striatis glabris, umbellis paucis*, of Linnæus. Class *Pentandria*. Order *Digynia*; but more generally, and in greater abundance, by making an

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incision in the stalk, a few inches above the root, from which it immediately issues, and soon becomes sufficiently concrete to be gathered. It is imported into England from Turkey and the East Indies, in large, softish, ductile, pale-coloured masses, which, by age, acquire a brownish yellow appearance: these are intermixed with distinct whitish tears, that are the most pure part of the mass. Galbanum holds a middle rank between assafoetida and ammoniacum, but its foetidness is very inconsiderable, especially when compared with the former; it is therefore accounted less antispasmodic, nor are its expectorant qualities equal to those of the latter; it, however, is esteemed more efficacious than either in hysterical disorders. Externally it is often applied by surgeons to expedite the suppuration of inflammatory and indolent tumours, and by physicians as a warm stimulating plaster. It is an ingredient in the *pilule à gummi*, the *emplastrum lithargyri cum gummi* of the London Pharmacopœia, and in the *emplastrum ad clavos pedum* of the Edinburgh.

GALDA GUMMI. This is a gum-resin mentioned by old writers, but totally forgot in the present day. Externally, it is of a brown colour, but white within, of a hard lamellated structure, and smells and tastes somewhat like elemi. When burnt, it gives out an agreeable odour. It was formerly used as a warm, stimulating medicine, and applied in plasters as a strengthener.

GALEGA, (*Galega*, α, f. γαλεγα, from γαλα, so named because it increases the milk of animals who eat

it, particularly of goats). Goats rue. From the little smell and taste of this plant, *Galega officinalis leguminibus stricis, erectis; foliis lanceolatis, striatis, nudis*, of Linnæus, it may be supposed to possess little virtues. In Italy the leaves are eaten amongst salads.

GALĒGA OFFICINĀLIS. The systematic name of the goats rue. See *Galega*.

GALĒNA, (*Galena*, *a*, f. from γαλεν, to shine). The name of an ore formed by the combination of lead with sulphur.

GALEOPSIS, (*Galeopsis*, *is*, f. καλοψις, from καλος, good, and ψις, vision, so called, because it was thought good for the sight; or from γαληνα, a cat, and ψις, aspect; the flowers gaping like the open mouth of an animal). See *Lamium album*.

GALERICŪLUM APONEUROTICUM. The tendinous expansion which lies over the pericranium.

GALĪUM, (*Galium*, *i*, n. γαλιον, from γαλα, milk, some species having the property of coagulating milk). The herb cheese rennet.

GALĪUM ALBUM. The greater ladies bedstraw. This herb *Galium mollugo; foliis octonis, ovato-linearibus, subserratis, patentissimis, mucronatis; caule flaccido, ramis patentibus*, of Linnæus, with its flowers, are used medicinally. Five ounces, or more, of the expressed juice, taken every evening upon an empty stomach, is said to cure epilepsy.

GALĪUM APERĪNE. The systematic name of the goose grafs. See *Aperine*.

GALĪUM LUTĒUM. The tops of this species, *Galium verum; foliis octonis, linearibus, sulcatis; ramis floriferis, brevibus*, of Linnæus, were long used as an efficacious medicine in the cure of epilepsy, but, in the practice of the present day they are abandoned. Indeed from the sensible qualities of the plant little can be expected.

GALĪUM MULLŪCO. The systematic name of the greater ladies bedstraw. See *Galium album*.

GALĪUM VERUM. The systematic name of the true ladies bedstraw. See *Galeum luteum*.

GALL. The bitter fluid secreted by the liver. See *Bile*.

GALLA, (*Galla*, *a*, f. from Gallus, the river in Bithynia, from whose banks they were brought). The gall. See *Quercus*.

GALLÆ TURCICÆ. See *Quercus*.

GALL-BLADDER. *Vesicula felle.* An oblong membranous receptacle, situated under the liver, to which it is attached in the right hypochondrium. It is composed of three membranes: a common, fibrous, and vilous. Its use is to retain the gall, which regurgitates from the hepatic duct, there to become thicker, more acrid, and bitter, and to send it through the cystic duct, which proceeds from its neck into the common ductus communis choledochus, to be sent on to the duodenum.

GALL-STONES. Biliary concretions. Hard concrete bodies, in which there are great varieties, formed in the gall-bladder of animal bodies.

GAMANDRA. See *Gambogia*.

GAMBIENSE GUMMI. See *Kino*.

GAMBOGE. See *Gambogia*.

GAMBOGĪA, (*Gambogia*, *a*, f. from Cambogia, where it is procured). *Gambogium. Gummi gutta. Gamandra. Gamboge.* The tree from which this gummi-resinous juice is obtained constitutes, according to Kœnig, a physician who resided many years at Tranquebar, a new genus, which is called *Stalagmitis*. Gamboge is brought from the East Indies, and is generally employed as a drastic purgative medicine in constipation of the bowels, hydropical affections, and against the tænia or tape-worm.

GAMBOGĪUM. See *Gambogia*.

GANGLĪON, (*Ganglion*, *i*, n. γαγγλιον, a knot). In anatomy it is ap-

plied to a knot in the course of a nerve. In surgery it is an encysted tumour, formed in the sheath of a tendon, and containing a fluid like the white of an egg. It most frequently occurs on the back of the hand or foot.

GANGRENE, (*Gangræna*, *æ*, *f.* γαγγραινα, from γαίω, to feed upon). A mortification of any part of the body, before endowed with vitality. It is known by the insensibility, coldness, lividness, and flaccidity of the part, and by the fœtor it exhales.

GARCINIA MANGOSTANA. The systematic name of the mangosteen tree. See *Mangosteen*.

GARGLE, (*Gargarismum*, *i*, *n.* *vel* *gargarisma*, *atis*, *n.*). A fluid medicine to wash the throat.

GARLIC. See *Allium*.

GAROU BARK. See *Thymalea*.

GAS. See *Gaz*.

GASTRIC ARTERY. *Arteria gastrica*. The right, or greater gastric artery, is a branch of the hepatic; the left, or lesser, a branch of the splenic.

GASTRIC JUICE. *Succus gastricus*. A fluid separated by the capillary exhaling arteries of the stomach, which open upon its internal tunic. The œsophagus also affords a small quantity, especially in the inferior part. Modern philosophers have paid great attention to this fluid, and from their several experiments it is known to possess the following properties. It is the principal agent of digestion, and changes the aliments into a kind of uniform soft paste: it acts on the stomach after the death of the animal. Its effects show that it is a solvent, but of that peculiar nature that it dissolves animal and vegetable substances uniformly, and without exhibiting a stronger affinity for the one than for the other. It is far from being of the nature of a ferment, as many suppose, for it is one of the most powerful antiseptics with which we are ac-

quainted; and, from the experiments of *Spallanzani*, *Scopoli*, *Carminati*, and others, its nature appears to be essentially different in the several classes of animals, as they have proved by analysis. The gastric juice of the human subject, when healthy, is inodorous, of a saltish taste, and limpid, like water, unless it be a little tinged with the yellow colour of some bile, that has regurgitated into the stomach. In quantity it is very considerable, as must be evident from the extent of the surface of the stomach, and its continual secretion; but it is the most copious when solicited by the stimulus of food. Besides the properties of this fluid before mentioned, it has others which have induced physicians and surgeons to exhibit it medicinally. It cures dyspepsia and intermittent fever. Applied externally, in form of fomentation or poultice, it cures putrid and scrofulous ulcers in a wonderful manner; and it is to be regretted that its utility is not more generally known.

GASTRITIS, (*Gastritis*, *idis*, *f.* γαστρίτις, from γαστήρ, the stomach). Inflammation of the stomach. A genus of disease in the class *pyrexia*, and order *phlegmasia* of Cullen. It is known by pyrexia, anxiety, heat, and pain in the epigastrium, increased when any thing is taken into the stomach, vomiting, hiccup, pulse small and hard, and prostration of strength. There are two species: 1. *Gastritis phlegmonoidea*, with an inflammatory tumour. 2. *Gastritis erysipelatoïsa*, when the inflammation is of a creeping or erysipelatoïsa nature.

GASTROCELE, (*Gastrocele*, *es*, *f.* γαστροκήλη, from γαστήρ, the stomach, and κήλη, a tumour). A hernia of the stomach, occasioned by a protrusion of that viscus through the abdominal parietes.

GASTROCNEMIUS, (*Gastrocnemius*, *i*, *m.* γαστροκνημιος, from γαστήρ, the stomach, and κνήμη, the leg). The

mufcles of the foot which form the calf or belly of the leg.

GASTROCNEMIUS EXTERNUS. *Gemellus*. This mufcle, which is fituated immediately under the integuments at the back part of the leg, is fometimes called *gemellus*: this latter name is adopted by Albinus. Winflow describes it as two mufcles, which he calls *gastrocnemii*; and Douglas confiders this and the following as a *quadriceps*, or mufcle with four heads, to which he gives the name of *extensor tarfi furalis*. The *gastrocnemius externus* arifes by two diftinct heads. The firft, which is the thickeft and longeft of the two, fprings by a ftrong thick tendon from the upper and back part of the inner condyle of the os femoris, adhering ftrongly to the capsular ligament of the joint, between which and the tendon is a confiderable *bursa mucofa*. The fecond head arifes by a thinner and fhorter tendon from the back part of the outer condyle of the os femoris. A little below the joint their flefhy bellies unite in a middle tendon, and below the middle of the tibia they ceafe to be flefhy, and terminate in a broad tendon, which, a little above the lower extremity of the tibia, unites with that of the *gastrocnemius internus*, to form one great round tendon, fometimes called *chorda magna*, but more commonly *tendo Achillis*.

GASTROCNEMIUS INTERNUS. This, which is fituated immediately under the laft described mufcle, is fometimes named *soleus*, on account of its fhape, which refembles that of the fole fifh. It arifes by two heads. The firft fprings by tendinous and flefhy fibres from the posterior part of the head of the fibula, and for fome way below it. The fecond arifes from an oblique ridge at the upper and posterior part of the tibia, which affords origin to the inferior edge of the popliteus, continuing to receive flefhy fibres from the inner

edge of the tibia for fome way down. This mufcle, which is narrow at its origin, fpreads wider as it defcends, as far as its middle; after which it becomes narrower again, and begins to grow tendinous, but its flefhy fibres do not entirely difappear till it has almoft reached the extremity of the tibia, a little above which it unites with the laft described mufcle, to form the *tendo Achillis*. This thick round chord is inserted into the lower and posterior part of the os calcis, after fiding over a cartilaginous furface on that bone, to which it is connected by a tendinous fheath that is furnifhed with a large *bursa mucofa*.

Both the *gastrocnemii* have the fame ufe, viz. that of extending the foot, by drawing it backwards and downwards.

GASTRODYNIA, (*Gastrodynia*, *a*, f. *γαστροδυνία*, from *γαστήρ*, the ftomach, and *ὄδυνη*, pain). Pain in the ftomach.

GASTRO-EPIPLOIC ARTERY. *Arteria gastrico-epiploica*. The branch of the greater gastric artery that runs to the epiploon.

GASTRORAPHY, (*Gastroraphia*, *a*, f. *γαστροραφία*, from *γαστήρ*, the ftomach, and *ραφή*, a future). The fewing of wounds of the abdomen.

GAULE. See *Myrtus Brabantica*.

GAZ, (*Gaz*, *axis*, n. from *gasczt*, German, an eruption of wind). Gas. Elastic fluid. Aeriform fluid. Elastic vapour. Modern chemifts have given this name to bodies which have the appearance of air, though they do not poffefs all its properties. A gaz is a compound body, formed by the union of a bafis, more or lefs folid with caloric; thus, when the matter of heat enters into combination with certain bodies, it volatilizes them, and reduces them to the ftate of gaz. It appears that all bodies do not require indifcriminately the fame quantity of caloric to affume the gaseous ftate, and to reduce any fubftance to the

state of gaz, the application of caloric may be made in various ways. The more simple method consists in placing the body in contact with another body, which is heated. In this situation, the heat, on one hand, diminishes the affinity of aggregation, by separating the constituent principles to a greater distance from each other; on the other hand, the heat unites to the principles with which it has the strongest affinity, and volatilizes them. Another method is, when one body is caused to act upon another, to produce a combination, in which a disengagement of some gaseous principles takes place: for example, the sulphuric acid is poured upon the oxide of manganese; the acid combines with the metal, while its caloric seizes the oxygen and rises with it. This principle takes place, not only in this instance, but on all occasions wherein, an operation being performed without the application of heat, there is a production of vapour or gaz.

GAZ, CARBONIC ACID. This may be obtained by pouring any acid upon calcareous earth, which thereby becomes decomposed; the effused acid combines with the lime and forms a new neutral salt, and the carbonic acid is disengaged and escapes in the form of a colourless gaz, viz. carbonic acid gaz. See *Carbonic acid*.

GAZ-HEPATIC. See *Sulphurated hydrogen gaz*.

GAZ-HYDROGEN. Inflammable air. See *Hydrogen*.

GEMELLUS, (*Gamellus*, i. m. from *geminus*, double, having a fellow). See *Gastrocnemius* and *Gemini*.

GEMINI. *Gemelli* of Winslow. This muscle has been a subject of dispute among anatomists since the days of Vesalius. Some describe it as two distinct muscles, and hence the name it has gotten of *gemi-ni*. Others contend that it ought to be considered as a single muscle. The truth is, that it consists of two

portions, which are united together by a tendinous and fleshy membrane, and afford a passage between them to the tendon of the obturator internus, which they inclose as it were in a purse. These two portions are placed under the glutæus maximus, between the ischium and the great trochanter.

The superior portion, which is the shortest and thickest of the two, arises fleshy from the external surface of the spine of the ischium; and the inferior, from the tuberosity of that bone, and likewise from the posterior sacro-ischiatic ligament. They are inserted, tendinous and fleshy, into the cavity at the root of the great trochanter. Between the two portions of this muscle, and the termination of the obturator internus, there is a small *bursa mucosa*, connected to both, and to that part of the capsula of the joint which lies under the gemini.

This muscle assists in rolling the os femoris outwards, and prevents the tendon of the obturator internus from slipping out of its place while that muscle is in action.

GENERATION. Many ingenious hypotheses have been instituted by physiologists to explain the mystery of generation, but the whole of our knowledge concerning it appears to be built upon the phenomena it affords; as may be seen in the works of *Haller*, *Buffon*, *Cruikshanks*, and *Haighton*. It is a sexual action, performed in different ways in most animals; many of them have different sexes, and require conjunction: such are the human species, quadrupeds, and others. The females of quadrupeds have a matrix, separated into two cavities, *uterus bicornis*, and a considerable number of teats; they have no menstrual flux; most of them bear several young at a time, and the period of their gestation is generally short. The generation of birds is very different. The males have a strong genital organ, which is often double. The

vulva in females is placed behind the anus; the ovaries have no matrices, and there is a duct for the purpose of conveying the egg from the ovary into the intestines: this passage is called the oviduct. The eggs of pullets have exhibited unexpected facts to physiologists, who examined the phenomena of incubation. The most important discoveries are those of the immortal HALLEK, who found the chicken, perfectly formed, in eggs which were not fecundated. There is no determinate conjunction between fishes; the female deposits her eggs on the sand, over which the male passes, and emits its seminal fluid, doubtless for the purpose of fecundating them; these eggs are hatched after a certain time. The males of several oviparous quadrupeds have a double or forked organ. Insects exhibit all the varieties which are observed in other animals: there are some, indeed the greater number, which have the sexes in two separate individuals; among others, the reproduction is made either with or without conjunction, as in the vine-fretter; one of these insects, confined alone beneath a glass, produces a great number of others. The organ of the male, in insects, is usually armed with two hooks, to seize the female: the place of these organs is greatly varied; with some it is at the upper part of the belly, near the chest, as in the female dragon fly; in others, it is at the extremity of the *antenna*, as in the male spider. Most worms are hermaphrodite; each individual has both sexes. Polypi, with respect to generation, are singular animals: they are reproduced by buds or offsets: a bud is separated from each vigorous polypus, which is fixed to some neighbouring body, and grows: polypi are likewise found on their surface, in the same manner as branches issue from plants. These are the principal modes of generation in animals. In

the human species, which engages our attention more particularly, the phenomena are as follow: the mode of congress of the man with the woman requires no description; but generation does not consist in that alone; there are certain states or conditions requisite for conception to take place. The ovum must have arrived at a state of maturity. There must be such a determination of blood to the uterus, that, together with the venereal stimulus, shall induce an action in the Fallopian tubes, by which the fimbriæ grasp the ovum that is to be impregnated. During this state of the parts the semen virile must be propelled into the uterus, in order that its subtle and vivifying portion shall pass along the tube to the ovum. Fecundation having thus taken place, a motion is induced in the vivified ovum, which ruptures the tender vesicle that contains it; the fimbriæ of the Fallopian tube then grasp and convey it into the tube, which, by its peristaltic motion, conducts it into the cavity of the uterus, there to be evolved and brought to maturity, and, at the expiration of nine months, to be sent into the world.

GENERATION, FEMALE ORGANS OF. The parts subservient to generation in a woman are divided into external and internal. The external parts are the mons veneris, the labia, the perinæum, the clitoris, and the nymphæ. To these may be added the meatus urinarius, or orifice of the urethra. The hymen may be esteemed the barrier between the external and internal parts. That soft fatty prominence which is situated upon the ossa pubis, extending towards the groins and abdomen, is called the mons veneris; its use seems to be chiefly that of preventing inconvenience or injury in the act of coition. If a line be drawn across the anterior angle of the pudendum, all that part

above it which is covered with hair may be called mons veneris, below it the labia commence, which being of a similar, though looser texture, appear like a continuance of the mons veneris, passing on each side of the pudendum, which they chiefly compose. Proceeding downwards and backwards the labia again unite, and the perinæum is formed. All that space between the posterior angle of the pudendum and the anus is called the perinæum; the external covering of which is the skin, as the vagina is the internal; including between them cellular and adipose membrane, and the lower part of the sphincter ani. The extent of the perinæum is generally about an inch and a half, though in some subjects it is not more than one, and in others is equal to three inches. The thin anterior edge is called the frænum labiorum. Below the anterior angle of the pudendum the clitoris is placed, which arises by two crura or branches, from the upper part of the rami of the ischia. The external part or extremity of the clitoris is called the glands, which has a prepuce or thin covering to which the nymphæ are joined. The clitoris, is supposed to be the principal seat of pleasure, and to be capable of some degree of erection in the act of coition. The nymphæ are two small spongy bodies, or doublings of the skin, rising from the extremities of the prepuce of the clitoris, less in size, but resembling in their form the labia. They pass on each side of the pudendum, within the labia, to half its length, when they are gradually diminished till they disappear. Immediately below the inferior edge of the symphysis of the ossa pubis, between the nymphæ, is the meatus urinarius, or termination of the urethra, which is about one inch and a half in length, and runs to the bladder in a straight direction, along the internal surface of symphysis, to

which, and to the vagina, it is connected by cellular membrane. On each side of the meatus are small orifices, which discharge a mucus for the purpose of preserving the external part from any injury, to which they might be liable from the acrimony of the urine. There is a very great difference in the appearance of all these parts in different women, especially in those who have had many children, and at various periods of life. In young women they are firm and vegete, but in the old, these, together with the internal, become flaccid and withered. The labia and nymphæ are liable to elongation, to excrescences, and to the production of schirrhous tumours, which, in some instances, have grown to an enormous size, especially in hot climates. It is not unusual for one of the labia or of the nymphæ to be larger or more pendulous than the other: but the enlargement or elongation are not regarded as diseases, till some inconvenience is produced by them.—The internal parts of generation are the vagina and uterus and its appendages. See *Vagina, Uterus, &c.*

GENERATION, MALE ORGANS OF. The parts which constitute the organs of generation in men are the *penis, testicles, and vesicula seminales.* See *Penis, &c.*

GENIO, (from *γενειον*, the chin). Names compounded of this word belong to muscles which are attached to the chin.

GENIO-HYO-GLOSSUS; (*Musculus genio-hyo-glossus*, *γενειογλωσσος* from *γενειον*, the chin, and *γλωσσα*, the tongue, so called from its origin in the chin, and insertion in the tongue). This muscle forms the fourth layer between the lower jaw and os hyoides. It arises from a rough protuberance in the inside of the middle of the lower jaw; its fibres run like a fan, forwards, upwards, and backwards, and are inserted into the top, middle, and root of

the tongue, and base of the os hyoides, near its cornu. Its use is to draw the tip of the tongue backwards into the mouth, the middle downwards, and to render its back concave. It also draws its root and the os hyoides forwards, and thrusts the tongue out of the mouth.

GENIO-HYOIDEUS, (*Musculus genio-hyoideus*, γενιοϋοειδής, from γενιον, the chin, and οειδής, the os hyoides, so called from its origin in the chin, and its insertion in the os hyoides). This muscle constitutes the third layer between the lower jaw and os hyoides. It is a long, thin, and fleshy muscle, arising tendinous from a rough protuberance at the inside of the chin, and growing somewhat broader and thicker as it descends backward to be inserted by very short tendinous fibres into both the edges of the base of the os hyoides. It draws the os hyoides forwards to the chin.

GENIPI ALBUM. The plant which bears this name in the pharmacopœias is the *Artemisia rupestris*; *foliis pinnatis, caulibus adscendentibus; floribus globosis, cernuis; receptaculo papposo*, of Linnæus. It has a grateful smell, and is used in some countries in the cure of intermittents and obstructed catamenia.

GENIPI VERUM. The plant directed for medicinal purposes under this title is the *Achillea*; *foliis pinnatis, pinnis simplicibus, glabris, punctatis*, of Haller. It has a very grateful smell, and a very bitter taste, and is exhibited in Switzerland in epilepsy, diarrhœa, and debility of the stomach.

GENISTA, (*Genista*, *g*, f. from *genu*, a knee; so called from the inflection and angularity of its twigs). The common broom. The tops and leaves of this indigenous plant, *Spartium scoparium*; *foliis ternatis solitariisque, ramis inermibus angulatis*, of Linnæus. Class *Diadelphia*. Order *Decandria*, are the parts that are employed medicinally; they have a bit-

ter taste, and are recommended for their purgative and diuretic qualities, in hydropic cases.

GENISTA CANARIENSIS. The systematic name of the tree whose wood is called rhodium. See *Rhodium lignum*.

GENTIANA, (*Gentiana*, *g*, f. from *Gentius*, king of Illyria, who first used it). *Gentiana rubra*. Gentian. Felwort. The gentian that is met with in the shops is the root of the *Gentiana lutea*; *corollis subquinquefidis rotatis verticillatis, calicibus spathaceis*, of Linnæus. Class *Petandria*. Order *Digynia*; and is imported from Switzerland and Germany. It is the only medicinal part of the plant, has little or no smell, but to the taste manifests great bitterness, on which account it is in general use as a tonic, stomachic, anthelmintic, antiseptic, emmenagogue, and febrifuge. The officinal preparations of this root are the *infusum gentianæ compositum*, and *tinctura gentiana composita*, Lond. Pharm. and the *infusum amarum, vinum amarum, tinctura amara*, Edinb. Pharm.; and the *extractum gentianæ* is ordered by both.

GENTIANA ALBA. The root of this plant, *Lasertium latifolium*; *foliis cordatis, inciso-ferratis*, of Linnæus, possesses stomachic, corroborant, and deobstruent virtues. It is seldom used.

GENTIANA CENTAURIUM. The systematic name of the lesser centaury. See *Centaureum*.

GENTIANA LUTEA. The systematic name of the officinal gentian. See *Gentiana*.

GENTIANA RUBRA. See *Gentiana*.

GENU, (*Genu*, *ind. in sing. n.* γονυ, *κατα το εἰς γυνυ νεβη*, because by it the body is bent towards the earth). The knee.

GEOFFRÆA, (*Geoffraa*, *g*, f. named in honour of Dr. Geoffrey). The bark so called is the produce of the

Geoffroya inermis, of Swatz. *Geoffroya inermis*, *foliis lanceolatis*. Class *Diadelphia*. Order *Decandria*. A native of Jamaica, where it is distinguished by the name of cabbage-bark tree, or worm-bark tree. It has a mucilaginous and sweetish taste, and a disagreeable smell. According to Dr. Wright of Jamaica, it is powerfully medicinal as an anthelmintic.

GEOFFROYA JAMAICENSIS. The systematic name of the bastard cabbage tree. See *Cortex Geoffroya Jamaicensis*.

GEOFFROYA SURINAMENSIS. The systematic name of the tree whose bark is esteemed as an anthelmintic. See *Cortex Geoffroya surinamensis*.

GERANIUM, (*Geranium*, *i*, n. *γέρανιον*, from *γέρανος*, a crane, so called because its pistil is long like the bill of a crane). The herb cranesbill.

GERANIUM BATRACHIODES. Crowfoot cranesbill. This is the *Geranium pratense* of Linnæus; it also possesses adstringent virtues, but in a slight degree.

GERANIUM COLUMBINUM. Dovesfoot. *Geranium rotundifolium* of Linnæus. This plant possesses slightly adstringent virtues.

GERANIUM MOSCHATUM. The adstringent property of this plant has induced practitioners to exhibit it in cases of debility and profluviæ.

GERANIUM PRATENSE. The systematic name of the crowfoot cranesbill. See *Geranium batrachioides*.

GERANIUM ROBERTIANUM. Stinking cranesbill. Herb robert. This common plant has been much esteemed as an external application in erysipelatous inflammations, cancer, mastodynia, and old ulcers, but is now deservedly fallen into disuse.

GERANIUM ROTUNDIFOLIUM. The systematic name of the dovesfoot. See *Geranium columbinum*.

GERANIUM SANGUINARIUM. Bloody cranesbill. *Geranium sanguine-*

um of Linnæus. The adstringent virtues ascribed to this plant do not appear to be considerable.

GERANIUM SANGUINEUM. The systematic name of the *Geranium sanguinarium*.

GERMANDER. See *Chamædris*.

GERMANDER WATER. See *Scordium*.

GEUM RIVALE. The *radix gei rivalis*, is the part directed for medicinal uses. It is inodorous, and imparts an austere taste. In America it is in high estimation in the cure of intermittents, and is said to be more efficacious than the peruvian bark. Diarrhæas and hæmorrhages are also stopped by its exhibition.

GEUM URBANUM. See *Caryophyllata*.

GILEAD, BALSAM. See *Balsamum Gileadense*.

GILL-GO-BY-GROUND. See *Hederacea*.

GILLIFLOWER. See *Caryophyllus ruber*.

GINGER. See *Zinziber*.

GINGIDĪUM. See *Chærefolium*.

GINGIVÆ, (*Gingivæ*, *arum*, *f*. from *gigno*, to beget, because the teeth are, as it were, born in them). The gums. See *Gums*.

GINGLYMUS, (*Ginglymus*, *i*, *m*. from *γινγλυμο*, a hinge). The hinge-like joint. A species of diarthrosis or moveable connexion of bones, which admits of flexion and extension, as the knee-joint, &c.

GINSENG, (*Ginseng*, Indian). The plant from which this root is obtained is the *Panax quinquefolium*; *foliis ternis quinatis*, of Linnæus. Class *Polygamia*. Order *Dioecia*. It is imported into this country scarcely the thickness of the little finger, about three or four inches long, frequently forked, transversely wrinkled, of a horny texture, and both internally and externally of a yellowish white colour. To the taste it discovers a mucilaginous sweetness, approaching

to that of liquorice, accompanied with some degree of bitterness, and a slight aromatic warmth. The Chinese ascribe extraordinary virtues to the root of ginseng, and have no confidence in any medicine unless in combination with it. In Europe, however, it is very seldom employed.

GINSENG ROOT. See *Ginseng*.

GLADIOLUS, (*Gladiolus*, *i*, dim. of *gladius*, a sword, so named from the sword-like shape of its leaf). The herb-corn-flag.

GLADIOLUS LUTEUS. See *Iris palustris*.

GLAND, (*Glandula*, *a*, f. dim. of *glans*, a gland). A gland is an organic part of the body, composed of blood-vessels, nerves, and absorbents, and destined for the secretion or alteration of some peculiar fluid. The glands of the human body are divided by anatomists into different classes, either according to their structure, or the fluid they contain. According to their fabric they are distinguished into four classes. 1. Simple glands. 2. Compounds of simple glands. 3. Conglobate glands. 4. Conglomerate glands. According to their fluid contents they are more properly divided into, 1. Mucous glands. 2. Sebaceous glands. 3. Lymphatic glands. 4. Salival glands. 5. Lachrymal glands. Simple glands are small hollow follicles, covered with a peculiar membrane, and having a proper excretory duct, through which they evacuate the liquor contained in their cavity. Such are the mucous glands of the nose, tongue, fauces, trachea, stomach, intestines, and urinary bladder, the sebaceous glands about the anus, and those of the ear. These simple glands are either dispersed here and there, or are contiguous to one another, forming a heap in such a manner that they are not covered by a common membrane, but each hath its own excretory duct, which is never joined to the excretory duct of

another gland. The former are termed solitary simple glands, the latter adgregate or congregate simple glands. The compound glands consist of many simple glands, the excretory ducts of which are joined in one common excretory duct; as the sebaceous glands of the face, lips, palate, and various parts of the skin, especially about the pubes. Conglobate, or, as they are also called, lymphatic glands, are those into which lymphatic vessels enter, and from which they go out again: as the mesenteric, lumbar, &c. They are composed of a texture of lymphatic vessels, connected together by cellular membrane—have no excretory duct—they are largest in the fœtus. Conglomerate glands are composed of a congeries of many simple glands, whose excretory ducts open into one common trunk; as the parotid gland, thyroid gland, pancreas, and all the salival glands. Conglomerate glands differ but little from the compound glands, yet they are composed of more simple glands than the compound. The excretory duct of a gland is the duct through which the fluid of the gland is excreted. The vessels and nerves of glands always come from the neighbouring parts, and the arteries appear to possess a higher degree of irritability. The use of the glands is to separate a peculiar liquor, or to change it. The use of the conglobate glands is unknown.

GLANDŪLA LACHRYMALIS. See *Lachrymal gland*.

GLANDŪLÆ MYRTIFORMES. *Caruncula myrtiformes*. The small glandiform bodies at the entrance of the vagina of women. They are the remains of the hymen, which is cleft in several parts during the first coition.

GLANDŪLÆ PACCHIONIÆ, (*Pacchioni*, the name of the discoverer). A number of small, oval, fatty substances, not yet ascertained to be

glandular, situated under the dura mater, about the sides of the longitudinal sinus. Their use is not known.

GLANS PENIS, (*Glans, dis. f.*). The very vascular body that forms the apex of the penis. The posterior circle is termed the *corona glandis*. See *Corpus spongiosum urethrae*.

GLANS UNGUENTARIA. See *Ben-nux*.

GLASS. This substance is sometimes employed by Surgeons when roughly powdered, as an escharotic to opacities of the cornea.

GLASS OF ANTIMONY. See *Oxidum stibii vitreum*.

GLASS-WORT, SNAIL-SEEDED. See *Kali*.

GLAUBERS SALT. See *Natron vitriolatum*.

GLAUCOMA, (*Glaucoma, atis. n.* γλαυκωμα, γλαυκο-, blue, because of the eye becoming of a blue or sea-green colour.) An opacity of the vitreous humour. It is difficult to ascertain, and is only to be known by a very attentive examination of the eye.

GLECOMA, (*Glecoma, γλεγμα*; from γλεγμα, the name of a plant in Dioscorides.) Ground Ivy.

GLECOMA HEDERACEA. The systematic name of the Ground ivy. See *Hedera terrestris*.

GLEET. See *Blennorrhagia*.

GLENOID CAVITY. (*Cavitas Glenoides*; γλενοειδης, from γλυν, a cavity, and ειδος, resemblance). The articular cavity of the scapula.

GLOBATE GLAND. A lymphatic gland. See *Gland*.

GLOBULARIA ALYPHUM. The leaves of this plant are used in some parts of Spain in the cure of the venereal disease. It is said to act also as a powerful but safe cathartic.

GLOBULES OF THE BLOOD. *Red Globules*. The very small globules that are seen through the microscope swimming in the serum of the blood,

and which give the red colour to the blood.

GLOBUS HYSTERICUS. The air rising in the œsophagus, and prevented by spasm from reaching the mouth, is so called by authors, because it mostly attends hysteria, and gives the sensation of a ball ascending in the throat.

GLOMER, (*Glomer, eris, m.* a clue of thread). Mostly applied to glands.

GLOMERATE GLAND. A gland formed of a glomer of sanguineous vessels, having no cavity, but furnished with an excretory duct; as the lachrymal and mammary glands.

GLOSSO, (from γλωσσα, the tongue). Names compounded with this word belong to muscles, nerves, or vessels, from their being attached, or going to the tongue.

GLOSSO-PHARYNGEAL NERVES. The ninth pair of nerves. They arise from the processes of the cerebellum, which run to the medulla spinalis, and terminate by numerous branches in the muscles of the tongue and pharynx.

GLOSSO-PHARYNGEUS. (*Musculus glossopharyngeus, γλωσσοφαρυγγαιος* from γλωσσα the tongue, and φαρυγξ the pharynx: so named from its origin in the tongue, and its insertion in the pharynx). See *Constrictor pharyngis superior*.

GLOSSO-STAPHYLINUS. (*Musculus glossostaphylinus, γλωσσοσταφυλινος* from γλωσσα the tongue, and σταφυλινος the staphylinus; so named because it is fixed in the tongue, and terminates in the staphylinus). See *Constrictor isthmi faucium*.

GLOTTIS. (*Glottis, idis. f.* γλωττις from γλωττα, the tongue). The superior opening of the larynx at the bottom of the tongue.

GLUTEAL ARTERY. A branch of the internal iliac artery.

GLUTEN, ANIMAL. This substance constitutes the basis of the fibres of all the solid parts. It resem-

bles in its properties the gluten of vegetables.

GLUTEN, VEGETABLE. A glutinous substance obtained from several vegetables in great abundance, which when dried becomes a horny mass. It is insoluble both in water and spirit of wine, and if boiled with the former it coagulates like the white of an egg. It burns like horn, and affords the same products by distillation in the dry way. It readily putrefies when kept in a cold and moist place.

GLUTĒUS MAXĪMUS. (*Gluteus*, i. m. from γλατος, the buttocks). *Gluteus magnus* of Albinus. *Gluteus major* of Cowper. This broad radiated muscle, which is divided into a number of strong fasciculi, is covered by a pretty thick aponeurosis derived from the *fascia lata*, and is situated immediately under the integuments. It arises fleshy from the outer lip of somewhat more than the posterior half of the spine of the ilium, from the ligaments that cover the two posterior spinous processes; from the posterior sacro-ischiatic ligament; and from the outer sides of the os sacrum and os coccygis. From these origins the fibres of the muscle run towards the great trochanter of the os femoris, where they form a broad and thick tendon, between which and the trochanter there is a considerable *bursa mucosa*. This tendon is inserted into the upper part of the *linea aspera*, for the space of two or three inches downwards; and sends off fibres to the *fascia lata*, and to the upper extremity of the vastus externus. This muscle serves to extend the thigh, by pulling it directly backwards; at the same time it draws it a little outwards, and thus assists in its rotatory motion. Its origin from the coccyx seems to prevent that bone from being forced too far backwards.

GLUTĒUS MEDIUS. The posterior half of this muscle is covered by

the *gluteus maximus*, which it greatly resembles in shape; but the anterior and upper part of it is covered only by the integuments, and by a tendinous membrane which belongs to the *fascia lata*. It arises fleshy from the outer lip of the anterior part of the spine of the ilium, from part of the posterior surface of that bone, and likewise from the *fascia* that covers it. From these origins its fibres run towards the great trochanter, into the outer and posterior part of which it is inserted by a broad tendon. Between this tendon and the trochanter there is a small thin *bursa mucosa*. The uses of this muscle are nearly the same as those of the *gluteus maximus*; but it is not confined like that muscle, to rolling the os femoris outwards, its anterior portion being capable of turning that bone a little inwards. As it has no origin from the coccyx, it can have no effect on that bone.

GLUTEUS MINĪMUS. *Gluteus minor* of Albinus. This, which is likewise a radiated muscle, is situated under the *gluteus medius*. In adults, and especially in old subjects, its outer surface is usually tendinous. It arises fleshy between the two semicircular ridges we observe on the outer surface of the ilium, and likewise from the edge of its great niche. Its fibres run in different directions towards a thick flat tendon, which adheres to the capsular ligament of the joint, and is inserted into the fore and upper part of the great trochanter. A small *bursa mucosa* may be observed between the tendon of this muscle and the trochanter. This muscle assists the two former in drawing the thigh backwards and outwards, and in rolling it. It may likewise serve to prevent the capsular ligament from being pinched in the motions of the joint.

GLYCYPICROS. (γλυκυπικρος from γλυκυς, sweet, and πικρος, bitter, so

called from its bitterish sweet taste.) The woody nightshade. See *Dulcamara*.

GLYCYRRIZA. (*Glycyrrhiza*, *α. f.* γλυκύριζα; from γλυκύ, sweet, and ρίζα, a root). Liquorice. The sweet root of the *Glycyrrhiza glabra leguminibus glabris, stipulis nullis, foliolo impari petiolato* of Linnæus. Class *Diadelphia*. Order *Decandria*; a native of the south of Europe, but cultivated in Britain. The root contains a great quantity of saccharine matter, joined with some proportion of mucilage, and hence it has a viscid sweet taste. It is in common use as a pectoral or emollient, in catarrhal defluxions on the breast, coughs, hoarsenesses, &c. Infusions, or the extract made from it, which is called *Spanish liquorice*, afford likewise very commodious vehicles for the exhibition of other medicines; the liquorice taste concealing that of unpalatable drugs more effectually than syrups or any of the sweets of the saccharine kind.

GLYCYRRHIZA ECHINATA. This species of liquorice is substituted in some places for the root of the *glabra*.

GLYCYRRIZA GLABRA. The systematic name of the officinal liquorice. See *Glycyrrhiza*.

GLYSSONS CAPSULE. See *Capsule of Glysson*.

GNAPHALIUM. (*Gnaphalium*, *i. n.* γναφαλίον from γναφάλον cotton, so named from its soft downy surface). The herb cotton weed. The flores gnaphalii of the pharmacopæias, called also *flores hyssopule*; seu *pedes cati* are the produce of the *Gnaphalium dioicum* of Linnæus. They are now quite obsolete, but were formerly used as adstringents, and recommended in the cure of whooping cough, phthisis pulmonalis, and hæmoptysis.

GNAPHALIUM ARENARIUM. The flowers of this plant are, as well as

those of the *gnaphalium stæchas*, called in the pharmacopæias *flores elichrysi*. See *Elichrysum*.

GNAPHALIUM DIOICUM. The systematic name of the *pes cati*. See *Gnaphalium*.

GNAPHALIUM STÆCHAS. The systematic name of Goldilocks. See *Elichrysum*.

GOAT'S RUE. See *Galiga*.

GOLD. *Aurum*. A noble metal, too precious for medicinal purposes.

GOLD-CUP. A vulgar name for many species of *Ranunculi*.

GOLDEN-ROD. See *Virga aurea*.

GOLDILOCKS. See *Elichrysum*.

GOMPHOSIS, (*Gomphosis*, *is, f.* γομφωσις; from γομφω, to drive in a nail). A species of synarthrosis, or immoveable connexion of bones, in which one bone is fixed in another, like a nail in a board, as the teeth in the alveoli of the jaws.

GONORRHOEA, (*Gonorrhœa*, *α. f.* γονορροία; from γονι, semen, and ρεω, to flow; from an erroneous supposition of the ancients that it was a feminal flux). A preternatural flux from the urethra or vagina. It arises from the action of the venereal virus on those parts, producing first an itching, afterwards a discharge like pus, attended with heat on making water; and in men occasionally with *phymosis*, and sometimes *paraphymosis*.

GOOSE-FOOT STINKING. See *Atriplex fetida*.

GOOSEGRASS. See *Aperine*.

GOSYPPIUM, (*Gossypium*, *i. n.* γοσσιπίον; from gotne, whence *gottipium*, Egypt). Cotton. *Bombax*. The seeds of this herb, *Gossypium herbaceum; foliis quenquelobis subtus eglandulosis, caule herbaceo* of Linnæus, afford a small quantity of oil by pressure. They are used by the Egyptians in cough and fevers, in the form of mucilage. The utility of cotton for economical purposes is well known.

GOSSYPĪUM HERBACEUM. The systematic name of the cotton plant. See *Gossypium*.

GOURD. See *Cucurbita*.

GOURD BITTER. See *Colocynthis*.

GOUT. See *Arthritis*.

GRACILIS, (*Gracilis*, from its smallness.) *Rectus internus femoris* of Winslow. This long, straight, and slender muscle, is situated immediately under the integuments at the inner part of the thigh. It arises by a broad and thin tendon, from the anterior part of the ischium and pubis, and soon becoming fleshy, descends nearly in a straight direction along the inside of the thigh. A little above the knee it terminates in a slender and roundish tendon, which afterwards becomes flatter, and is inserted into the middle of the tibia behind and under the sartorius. Under the tendons of this and the rectus there is a considerable *bursa mucosa*, which on one side adheres to them and to the tendon of the semi-tendinosus, and on the other to the capsular ligament of the knee. This muscle assists in bending the thigh and leg inwards.

GRAMEN CANINUM, (*Gramen*, *inis*, n.). Dog's Grass. Couch Grass. *Triticum repens* of Linnæus. The roots are agreeably sweet, and possess aperient properties. The expressed juice is recommended to be given largely.

GRANA CNIDŪ. See *Coccognidia*.

GRANA PARADĪSI. *Cardamomum majus*, *Meleguetta maniguetta*, *Cardamomum piperatum*. The grains of paradise are the seeds of the *Amomum grana paradisi* of Linnæus. They are angular reddish brown seeds, smaller than pepper, and resembling very much the seeds of the cardamom minus. They are extremely hot, and similar in virtue to pepper. See *Piper nigrum*.

GRANA TINCTORIA. See *Kermes*.

GRANA TIGLIA. See *Tiglia Grana*.

GRANĀTUM, (*Granatum*, i. n. from *granum*, a grain, because it is full of seed). The pomegranate. The fruit of the *Punica granatum* of Linnæus. *Punica foliis lanceolatis, caule arboreo*. Class *Icosandria*. Order *Monogynia*. The rind of the fruit, and the flowers called *Balaustine flowers*), are the parts directed for medicinal use. In their smell there is nothing remarkable, but to the taste they are very astringent, and have successfully been employed as such in diseases both internal and external.

GRANUM MOSCHI. See *Abelmoschus*.

GRATIOLA, (*Gratiola*, *e*, f. dim. of *gratia*; so named from its supposed admirable qualities). Hedge-hyssop. This exotic plant, the *Gratiola officinalis, foliis lanceolatis serratis, floribus pedunculatis* of Linnæus, Class *Diandria*. Order *Monogynia*, is a powerful and active cathartic, and operates with such violence upon the stomach as generally to induce vomiting. It has been commonly employed as a cathartic and diuretic in hydropical diseases, and instances of its good effects in ascites and anasarca are recorded by many respectable practitioners. German physicians also relate its efficacy in maniacal and venereal cases.

GRATIOLA OFFICINĀLIS. The systematic name of the hedge hyssop. See *Gratiola*.

GROMWELL COMMON. See *Lithospermum*.

GROUND AVERWORT. See *Lichen cinereus terrestris*.

GROUND PINE. See *Chamaepitys*.

GROUND-NUT. See *Pignut*.

GROUNDSEL. See *Erigerum*.

GRUTUM, (*Grutum*, i. n.). *Milium*. A hard white tubercle of the skin, resembling in size and appearance a millet-seed.

GRYPHOSIS, (*Gryphosis*, is. f. *γρυψις*; from *γρυπτος*, to incurvate). A disease of the nails, which turn inwards, and irritate the soft parts below.

GUAIACUM, (*Guaiacum*, i. n. from the Spanish *Guayacon*, which is formed from the Indian *Hoaxacan*). Official guaiacum. This tree, *Guaiacum officinale foliis bijugis obtusis* of Linnæus, Class *Decandria*. Order *Monogynia*, is a native of the West India Islands. The wood, gum, bark, fruit, and even the flowers, have been found to possess medicinal qualities. The wood is brought principally from Jamaica, in large pieces of four or five hundred weight each, and from its hardness and beauty is used for various articles of turnery ware. It scarcely discovers any smell, unless heated, or while rasping, in which circumstances it yields a light aromatic one: chewed, it impresses a slight acrimony, biting the palate and fauces. The gum, or rather resin, is obtained by wounding the bark in different parts of the body of the tree, or by what has been called jagging. It exudes copiously from the wounds, though gradually; and when a quantity is found accumulated upon the several wounded trees, hardened by exposure to the sun, it is gathered and packed up in small kegs for exportation: it is of a friable texture, of a deep greenish colour, and sometimes of a reddish hue; it has a pungent acrid taste, but little or no smell, unless heated. The bark contains less resinous matter than the wood, and is consequently a less powerful medicine, though in a recent state it is strongly cathartic. The flowers, or blossoms, are laxative, and in Jamaica, are commonly given to children in the form of syrup. It is only the wood and resin of guaiacum which are now in general medicinal use in Europe; and as the efficacy of the former is supposed to be

derived merely from the quantity of resinous matter which it contains, they may be considered indiscriminately as the same medicine. Guaiacum was first introduced into the materia medica soon after the discovery of America; and previous to the use of mercury in the lues venerea, it was the principal remedy employed in the cure of that disease; its great success brought it into such repute, that it is said to have been sold for seven gold crowns a pound: yet, notwithstanding this, its failure was such as let it be quite superseded by mercury; and though it be still occasionally employed in syphilis, yet it is rather with a view to correct other diseases in the habit, than for its effects as an antivenereal. It is now more generally employed for its virtues in curing gouty and rheumatic pains, and some cutaneous diseases.

GUILANDINA MORINGA. This tree affords the *lignum nephriticum*, and the ben nut. See *Lignum nephriticum* and *Ben nut*.

GUINEA PEPPER. See *Piper indicum*.

GUM, (*Gummi*, n. ind.) Mucilage. This substance is very abundant in the vegetable kingdom; it is found in a great number of roots; and the shoots of plants and new leaves contain it in great abundance. It may be known by its viscous and adhesive quality when pressed between the fingers. At the time of the year when the juices of plants are the most abundant, it naturally exudes through the barks of trees, and thickens on the surface into gum. The characters of gum are, 1. Solubility in water, to which it gives a thick and viscous consistence. This solution, known by the name of mucilage, becomes dry, transparent, and brittle, by evaporation. 2. Insolubility in alcohol. 3. Coagulation by the action of weak acids. There are only two gums in use in medicine,

viz. gummi Arabicum, and tragacantha. Mucilages, of the same nature as gums, are obtained also from many plants, as mallows, quince-seeds, linseed, &c.

GUM BOIL. See *Parulis*.

GUMMI ACANTHIUM. An obsolete name of the gum arabic.

GUMMI ADSTRINGENS. See *Kino*.

GUMMI AMMONIACUM. See *Ammoniacum*.

GUMMI ANIME. See *Anime*.

GUMMI ARABICUM. See *Arabicum gummi*.

GUMMI BDELLIUM. See *Bdellium*.

GUMMI CARANNÆ. See *Caranna*.

GUMMI CERASORUM. The juice which exudes from cherry trees. It is very similar to gum arabic, for which it may be substituted.

GUMMI CHIBOU. A spurious kind of gum elemi.

GUMMI COURBARIL. An epithet sometimes applied to the juice of the *Hymenæa courbaril*. See *Anime*.

GUMMI EUPHORBII. See *Euphorbium*.

GUMMI GALDA. See *Galda*.

GUMMI GAMBIENSE. See *Kino*.

GUMMI GUTTÆ. See *Gambogia*.

GUMMI HEDERÆ. Ivy gum. The resinous juice of the *Hedera helix* of Linnæus, or Ivy. It is imported from the East Indies, though it may be collected from trees in this country. It is brought over in hard compact masses, externally of a reddish brown colour, internally of a bright brownish yellow, with reddish specks or veins. It has a strong, resinous, agreeable smell, and an adstringent taste. Though never used in the practice of the present day, it possesses corroborant, adstringent and antispasmodic virtues.

GUMMI JUNIPERINUM. See *Sandarack*.

GUMMI KIKEKUNEMALO. See *Kikekunemalo*.

GUMMI KINO. See *Kino*.

GUMMI LACCÆ. See *Lacca*.

GUMMI MYRRHÆ. See *Myrrha*.

GUMMI SAGAPENUM. See *Sagapenum*.

GUMMI SENEGALENSE. This is a true gum, brought from the island of Senegal on the coast of Africa, where it exudes in large pieces from the *Mimosa senegal* of Linnæus. It is similar in virtue and quality to the gum arabic, and the gum which exudes in this climate from the cherry trees.

GUMMI TRAGACANTHÆ. See *Tragacantha*.

GUM-RESIN. (*Gum-resina*, α, f.). Gum-resins are the juices of plants that are mixed with resin, and an extractive matter, which has been taken for a gummy substance. They seldom flow naturally from plants, but are mostly extracted by incision, in the form of white, yellow, or red fluids, which dry more or less quickly. Water, spirit of wine, wine or vinegar, dissolve them only in part, according to the proportion they contain of resin or extract. Gum-resins may also be formed by art, by digesting the parts of vegetables containing the gum-resin in diluted alcohol, and then evaporating it. For this reason most tinctures contain gum-resin. The principal gum-resins employed medicinally are aloes, ammoniacum, asafœtida, galbanum, gambogia, guaiacum, myrrha, olibanum, opoponax, sagapenum, sarcocolla, scammonium, and styrax.

GUMS. *Gingiva*. The very vascular and elastic substance that covers the alveolar arches of the upper and under jaws, and embraces the necks of the teeth.

GUTTA GAMBA. See *Gambogia*.

GUTTA SERENA. See *Amaurosis*.

GUTTÆ ROSACÆÆ. Red spots upon the face and nose.

GUTTURAL ARTERY. The superior thyroideal artery. The first branch of the external carotid.

H.

H Æ

HÆMATĒMĒSIS, (*Hæmatemesis*, is. f. from *αἷμα*, blood, and *εἰμαῖν*, to vomit). *Vomitus cruentus*. A vomiting of blood. This disease is mostly symptomatic of some other, and generally arises from plethora, obstructed catamenia, or scurvy.

HÆMATITES, (*Hæmatites*, is. f. *αἱμαλίτης*; from *αἷμα*, blood, so named from its property of stopping blood, or from its colour). *Lapis hæmatites*. Bloodstone. An elegant iron ore called bloodstone. Finely levigated, and freed from the grosser parts by frequent washings with water, it has been long recommended in hæmorrhages, fluxes, uterine obstructions, &c. in doses of from one scruple to three or four.

HÆMATOCĒLE, (*Hæmatocèle*, es. f. from *αἷμα*, blood, and *κῆλη*, a tumour). A collection of blood in the tunica vaginalis testis, or in the cellular membrane of the scrotum. It generally takes place from puncturing a blood-vessel in the operation for removing the water of hydrocele. If the quantity be great, and the efflux be not stopped by cold applications, the bleeding vessel should be secured.

HÆMATŌDES, (*Hæmatodes*, is. f. *αἱματώδης*; from *αἷμα*, blood; so called from the red colour of its flowers). An old name for the bloody cranebill. See *Geranium sanguineum*.

HÆMATOLOGY, (*Hæmatologia*, æ. f. *αἱματολογία*; from *αἷμα*, blood, and *λογος*, a discourse). The doctrine of the blood.

HÆMATOMPHALOCĒLE, (*Hæmatomphalocèle*, es. f. *αἱματομφολοκῆλη*; from *αἷμα* blood, *ομφαλός*, the navel, and *κῆλη*, a tumour). A species of ecchymosis. A tumor about the navel from an extravasation of blood. It is mostly absorbed, but, if too considerable, a puncture may be made to evacuate the blood, as in ecchymosis. See *Ecchymosis*.

H Æ

HÆMATOXŸLUM, (*Hæmatoxylum*, i, n. *αἱματόξυλον*; from *αἷμα*, blood, or *αἱμαλικός*, bloody, and *ξύλον*, wood). Logwood; so called from its red colour. See *Lignum campechense*.

HÆMATOXŸLUM CAMPECHĪANUM. The systematic name of the logwood-tree. See *Lignum campechianum*.

HÆMATŪRĪA, (*Hæmaturia*, æ. f. *αἱματουρία*; from *αἷμα*, blood, and *ουρα*, urine). Bloody urine; mostly symptomatic of some other disease.

HÆMOPTYSIS, (*Hæmoptysis*, is. f. *αἱμοπτύσις*; from *αἷμα*, blood, and *πτύω*, to spit). *Hæmoptoe*. A spitting of blood. A genus of disease arranged by Cullen in the class *pyrexia*, and order *hæmorrhagia*. It is characterized by coughing up florid or frothy blood, heat or pain in the chest, irritation in the larynx, and a saltish taste in the mouth. There are five species of this disease: 1. *Hæmoptysis plethorica*, from fullness of the vessels. 2. *Hæmoptysis violenta*, from some external violence. 3. *Hæmoptysis phthisica*, from ulcers corroding the small vessels. 4. *Hæmoptysis calculosa*, from calculous matter in the lungs. 5. *Hæmoptysis vicaria*, from the suppression of some customary evacuation.

HÆMORRHAGĪA, (*Hæmorrhagia*, arum, f. *αἱμορραγία*; from *αἷμα*, blood, and *ῥήγνυμι*, to break out). *Hæmorrhages*, or affluxes of blood. An order in the class *pyrexia* of Cullen's nosology is so called. It is characterized by pyrexia with a discharge of blood, without any external injury; the blood on venæsection exhibiting the buffy coat. The order *hæmorrhagia* contains the following genera of diseases, viz. epistaxis, hæmoptysis, phthisis, hæmorrhoids, and menorrhagia.

HÆMORRHOIDAL ARTERIES. *Arterie hæmorrhoidales*. The arteries of the rectum are so called: they are

sometimes two, and at other times three in number. 1. The upper hæmorrhoidal artery, which is the great branch of the lower mesenteric continued into the pelvis. 2. The middle hæmorrhoidal, which sometimes comes off from the hypogastric artery, and very often from the pudical artery. It is sometimes wanting. 3. The lower or external hæmorrhoidal is almost always a branch of the pudical artery, or that artery which goes to the penis.

HÆMORRHOIDAL VEINS. *Venæ Hæmorrhoidales.* These are two. 1. The external, which evacuates itself into the vena iliaca interna. 2. The internal, which conveys its blood into the vena portæ.

HÆMORRHOIS, (*Hæmorrhoids*, ἡλδς, f. αἱμορροΐς; from αἷμα, blood, and ῥεῖν to flow). *Almorrhois.* The Piles. A genus of disease in the class *pyrexia* and order *hæmorrhagia* of Cullen. They are certain excrescences arising about the verge of the anus, or the inferior part of the intestinum rectum. The rectum, as well as the colon, is composed of several muscular membranes, connected to each other by an intervening cellular substance; and as the muscular fibres of this intestine always tend by their contraction, to lessen its cavity, the internal membrane, which is very lax, forms itself into several rugæ or folds. In this construction nature respects the use of the part, which occasionally gives passage to, or allows the retention of the excrements, the hardness and bulk of which might produce considerable lacerations, if this intestine was not capable of dilatation. The arteries and veins subservient to this part are called hæmorrhoidal, and the blood that returns from hence is carried to the meseraic veins. The intestinum rectum is particularly subject to the hæmorrhoids, from its situation, structure, and use; for whilst the course of the blood is assisted in almost all the other veins of

the body, by the distention of the adjacent muscles, and the pressure of the neighbouring parts, the blood in the hæmorrhoidal veins which is to ascend against the natural tendency of its own weight, is not only destitute of these assistances, but is impeded in its passage: for, first, the large excrements which lodge in this intestine dilate its sides, and the different resistances which they form there are so many impediments obstructing the return of the blood; not in the large veins, for they are placed along the external surface of the intestine, but in all the capillaries which enter into its composition. Secondly, as often as these large excrements, protruded by others, approach near the anus, their successive pressure upon the internal coats of the intestine, which they dilate, drives back the blood into the veins, and for so long suspends its course; the necessary consequence of which is, a distention of the veins in proportion to the quantity of blood that fills them. Thirdly, in every effort we make, either in going to stool, or upon any other occasion, the contraction of the abdominal muscles, and the diaphragm pressing the contents of the abdomen downwards, and these pressing upon the parts contained in the pelvis, another obstruction is thereby opposed to the return of the blood, not only in the large veins, but also in the capillaries, which being of too weak a texture to resist the impulse of the blood, that always tends to dilate them, may thereby become varicose.

The dilatation of all these vessels is the *primary cause* of the hæmorrhoids; for the internal coat of the intestine, and the cellular membrane which connects that to the muscular coat, are enlarged in proportion to the distention of the vessels of which they are composed. This distention not being equal in every part, produces separate tumours in the gut, or at the verge of the anus, which in

creases according as the venal blood is obstructed in them, or circulates there more slowly.

Whatever, then, is capable of retarding the course of the blood in the hæmorrhoidal veins, may occasion this disease. Thus, persons that are generally costive, who are accustomed to sit long at stool, and strain hard; pregnant women, or such as have had difficult labours; and likewise persons who have an obstruction in their liver, are for the most part afflicted with the piles; yet every one has not the hæmorrhoids, the different causes which are mentioned above being not common to all, or at least not having in all the same effects. When the hæmorrhoids are once formed, they seldom disappear entirely, and we may judge of those within the rectum by those which, being at the verge of the anus, are plainly to be seen. A small pile, that has been painful for some days, may cease to be so, and dry up; but the skin does not afterwards retain its former firmness, being more lax and wrinkled, like the empty skin of a grape. If this external pile swells and sinks again several times, we may perceive, after each return, the remains of each pile, though shrivelled and decayed, yet still left larger than before. The case is the same with those that are situated within the rectum; they may happen indeed never to return again, if the cause that produced them is removed; but it is probable that the excrements in passing out occasion a return of the swelling, to which the external ones are less liable: for the internal piles make a sort of knots or tumours in the intestine, which straightening the passage, the excrements in passing out occasion irritations there that are more or less painful in proportion to the efforts which the person makes in going to stool; and it is thus these tumours become gradually larger. The hæmorrhoids are subject to many va-

riations; they may become inflamed from the above irritations to which they are exposed, and this inflammation cannot always be removed by art. In some, the inflammation terminates in an abscess, which arises in the middle of the tumour, and degenerates into a fistula. These piles are very painful till the abscess is formed. In others, the inflammation terminates by induration of the hæmorrhoid, which remains in a manner schirrous. These never lessen, but must necessarily grow larger. This schirrous sometimes ulcerates, and continually discharges a sanies, which the patient perceives by stains on his shirt, and by its occasioning a very troublesome itching about the verge of the anus. These kinds of hæmorrhoids sometimes turn cancerous. There are some hæmorrhoids, and those of different sizes, which are covered with so fine a skin as frequently to admit blood to pass through. This fine skin is only the internal coat of the rectum, greatly attenuated by the varicose distention of its vessels. The hæmorrhage may proceed from two causes, namely, either from an excoriation produced by the hardness of the excrements, or from the rupture of the tumefied vessels, which break by their too great distention. In some of these, the patient voids blood almost every time he goes to stool; in others not so constantly. We sometimes meet with men who have a periodical bleeding by the piles, not unlike the menues in women; and as this evacuation, if moderate, does not weaken the constitution, we may infer that it supplies some other evacuation which nature either ceases to carry on, or does not furnish in due quantity; and hence also we may explain why the suppression of this discharge, to which nature had been accustomed, is frequently attended with dangerous diseases. The hæmorrhoids are sometimes distended to that degree as to

fill the rectum, so that if the excrements are at all hard they cannot pass. In this case the excrements force the hæmorrhoids out of the anus to procure a free passage, consequently the internal coat of the rectum, to which they are connected, yields to extension, and upon examining these patients immediately after having been at stool, a part of the internal coat of that gut is perceived forming a sort of ligature or stricture round the hæmorrhoids. A difficulty will occur in the return of these, in proportion to their size, and as the verge of the anus is more or less contracted. If the bleeding piles come out in the same manner upon going to stool, it is then they void most blood, because the verge of the anus forms a kind of ligature above them.

HAIR. *Pili. Capilli.* The hairs of the human body are thin, elastic, dry filaments, arising from the skin. They consist of the *bulb*, situated under the skin, which is a vascular and nervous vesicle; and a *trunk*, which perforates the skin and cuticle, and is covered with a peculiar vagina. The colour of hair varies; its seat, however, is in the medullary juice. The hair, according to its situation, is differently named; thus, on the head it is called *capilli*; over the eyes, *super-cilia*; *cilia*, on the margin of the eyelids; *vibrissæ*, in the foramina of the nostrils; *pili auriculares*, in the external auditory passage; *mystax*, on the upper lip; and *barba*, on the lower jaw.

HALÏTUS, (*Halitus, ūs, m.*). A vapour, or gaz. See *Gaz*.

HALICABACUM, (*Halicabacum, i, n.* αλικαβάκος, from αλ, the sea, and καβάκος, night-shade; so called because it grows upon the banks of the sea). See *Alkekengi*.

HALO, (*Halo, ōnis, m.* αλω, from αλω, an area or circle). The red circle surrounding the nipple, which becomes somewhat brown in old people, and is beset with many sebaceous glands.

HALLŪCINATIO, (*Hallucinatio, onis, f.* from *hallucinor*, to err). A depraved or erroneous imagination.

HAMŪLUS, (*Hamulus, i, m.* dim. of *hamus*, a hook). A term in anatomy, applied to any hooklike process, as the hamulus of the pterygoid process of the sphænoid bone.

HAND, (*Manus, us, f.*). The hand is composed of the carpus or wrist, metacarpus, and fingers. The arteries of the hand are the *palmary arch* and the *digital arteries*. The veins are the *digital*, the *cephalic of the thumb*, and the *salvatella*. The nerves are the *cutaneus externus* and *internus*.

HARDESIA. See *Lapis Hibernicus*.

HARE LIP, (αγοχειλος, *Lagocheilus* seu *labia leporina*). A natural defect in some part of the upper or under lip, so named from some fancied resemblance in the diseased lip to that of an hare. In some the division is large, and a great part of the lip appears to be defective. The fissure is single, double, or complicated; the single has an angular point somewhat like the Roman letter Λ reversed, except that the sides and points are not regular; the double is more inclined to the form of the letter M; the complicated, is when either of the former is attended with a division of the palate on each side, in part, or extending to the back nostrils and uvula, in which case the latter often proves defective.

HARMŌNĪA, (*Harmonia, æ, f.* αρμονία, from αρω, to fit together). Harmony. A species of synarthrosis, or immoveable connexion of bones, in which bones are connected together by means of rough margins, not dentiform: in this manner most of the bones of the face are connected together.

HARROGATE WATER. A cold sulphureous water, considerable compound in its constitution, containing about a twelfth of its bulk of hepatic gaz, and a number of purgative salts.

which in most persons produces a very sensible determination to the bowels. It is used in obstinate costive habits that accompany hypochondriasis, in scrophula, and particularly in cutaneous diseases, elephantiasis, lepra, and also in hæmorrhoids, and in the cure of intestinal worms, when taken in such a dose as to prove a brisk purgative.

HARTFELL WATER. A chalybeate water. It has been found particularly serviceable in disorders of the stomach and bowels, bloody flux, bloody urine, immoderate flow of the menses, or their suppression, fluor albus, gleet, &c. It has also been applied externally to old and languid ulcers.

HARTSHORN. See *Cornu cervi*.

HARTSHORN SHAVINGS. *Rasura cornu cervi.* See *Cornu cervi*.

HARTS TONGUE. See *Scolopendrium*.

HART-WORT. See *Seseli*.

HART-WORT OF MARSEILLES. See *Seseli Marsiliense*.

HAY-CAMELS. See *Juncus odoratus*.

HEAD, (Caput, itis, n.). The superior part of the body placed upon the neck, containing the cerebrum, cerebellum, and medulla oblongata. It is divided into the *face* and *hairy* part. On the latter is observed the *vertex*, or crown of the head; the *frons*, or forehead; the *occiput*, or hinder part. For the former, see *Face*. For the bones and muscles of the head, see *Cranium*. The common integuments of the head are called the scalp.

HEARING, (Auditus, us, m.). This sense is placed by physiologists among the animal actions. It is a sensation by which we hear the sound of sonorous bodies. The organ of hearing is the soft portion of the auditory nerve which is distributed on the vestibule, semicircular canals, and cochlea.

HEART, (Cor, dis, n.). A hol-

low muscular viscus, situated in the cavity of the pericardium for the circulation of the blood. It is divided externally into a *base*, or its broad part; a *superior*, and an *inferior surface*, and an *anterior* and *posterior* margin. Internally it is divided into a *right* and *left ventricle*. The situation of the heart is oblique, not transverse; its base being placed on the right of the bodies of the vertebræ, and its apex obliquely to the sixth rib on the left side; so that the left ventricle is almost posterior, and the right anterior. Its inferior surface lies upon the diaphragm. There are two cavities adhering to the base of the heart, from their resemblance called *auricles*. The right auricle is a muscular sac, in which are four *apertures*, two of the *venæ cavæ*, an opening into the right ventricle, and the opening of the coronary vein. The left is a similar sac, in which there are five *apertures*, viz. those of the four pulmonary veins, and an opening into the left ventricle. The cavities in the base of the heart are called *ventricles*: these are divided by a fleshy septum, called *septum cordis*, into a right and left. Each ventricle has two *orifices*; the one auricular, through which the blood enters, the other arterious, through which the blood passes out. These four orifices are supplied with *valves*, which are named from their resemblance; those at the arterious orifices are called the *semilunar*; those at the orifice of the right auricle, *mitral*; and those at the orifice of the left auricle, *tricuspid*. The *valve of Eustachius* is situated at the termination of the vena cava inferior, just within the auricle. The substance of the heart is muscular, its exterior fibres are longitudinal, its middle transverse, and its interior oblique. The internal superficies of the ventricles and auricles of the heart is invested with a strong and smooth membrane, which

is extremely irritable. The vessels of the heart are divided into *common* and *proper*. The *common* are, 1. The *aorta*, which arises from the left ventricle. 2. The *pulmonary artery*, which originates from the right ventricle. 3. The four pulmonary veins, which terminate in the left auricle. 4. The *vena cava*, which evacuate themselves into the right auricle. The *proper vessels* are, 1. The *coronary arteries*, which arise from the aorta, and are distributed on the heart. 2. The *coronary veins*, which return the blood into the right auricle. The *nerves* of the heart are branches of the eighth and great intercostal pairs. The heart of the fœtus differs from that of the adult in having a *foramen ovale*, through which the blood passes from the right auricle to the left.

HEARTS EASE. See *Viola tricolor*.

HEAT. See *Caloric*, *Animal heat*, and *Fire*.

HEAT, ABSOLUTE. This term is applied to the whole quantity of caloric existing in a body in chemical union.

HEAT, ANIMAL. See *Animal heat*.

HEAT, FREE. If the heat which exists in any substance be from any cause forced in some degree to quit that substance, and to combine with those that surround it, then such heat is said to be free or sensible, until the equilibrium is restored.

HEAT, LATENT. When any body is in equilibrium with the bodies which surround it with respect to its heat, that quantity which it contains is not perceptible by any external sign or organ of sense, and is termed combined caloric, or latent heat.

HEAT, SENSIBLE. See *Heat*, *free*.

HEAT, SPECIFIC. The property of bodies to acquire different quantities of caloric, to indicate the same temperature to the thermometer, was termed by Dr. Black the capacity of

a body for heat, and the quantity of caloric itself he called specific heat.

HECTIC, (from *ἥκτος*, habit). See *Febris hœtica*.

HEDĒRA, (*hedera*, æ, f. from *hæreo*, to stick, because it attaches itself to trees and old walls). The ivy.

HEDĒRA ARBORĒA. The ivy. The leaves of this tree, *Hedera helix* of Linnæus, have little or no smell, but a very nauseous taste. Haller informs us, that they are recommended in Germany against the atrophy of children. By the common people in this country they are sometimes applied to running sores, and to keep issues open. The berries were supposed by the ancients to have a purgative and emetic quality; and an extract was made from them by water, called by Quercetanius *extractum purgans*. Later writers have recommended them in small doses as alexepharmic and sudorific: it is said, that in the plague at London, the powder of them was given in vinegar or white wine with good success. It is from the stalk of this tree that a resinous juice exudes very plentifully in warm climates. See *Gummi hederae*.

HEDĒRA HELIX. The systematic name of the ivy tree. See *Hedera arborea*.

HEDĒRA TERRESTRIS. Ground-ivy, or gill. *Glechoma hederacea*; *foliis reniformibus crenatis*, of Linnæus. Class *Didynamia*. Order *Gymnospermia*. This indigenous plant has a peculiar strong smell, and a bitterish somewhat aromatic taste. It is one of those plants which was formerly much esteemed for possessing virtues that, in the present age, cannot be detected. In obstinate coughs it is a favourite remedy with the poor.

HEDGE HYSSOP. See *Gratiola*.

HEDGE MUSTARD. See *Erysimum*.

HEDGE MUSTARD, STINKING. See *Alliaria*.

HELCONIA, (*Helconia*, *a*, f. from *ελκος*, an ulcer). An ulcer in the external or internal superficies of the cornea, known by an excavation and oozing of purulent matter from the cornea.

HELENIUM, (*Helenium*, *i*, n. *ελεινιον*, from *Helene*, the island where they grew). See *Enula campana*.

HELICIS MAJOR, (*Helix*, *icis*, m.). A proper muscle of the ear, which depresses the part of the cartilage of the ear into which it is inserted; it lies upon the upper or sharp point of the helix or outward ring, arising from the upper and acute part of the helix anteriorly, and passing to be inserted into its cartilage a little above the tragus.

HELICIS MINOR. A proper muscle of the ear, which contracts the fissure of the ear: it is situated below the helix major, upon part of the helix. It arises from the inferior and anterior part of the helix, and is inserted into the crus of the helix, near the fissure in the cartilage opposite to the concha.

HELIOTROPÏI SUCCUS. See *Bezetta cerulea*.

HELIX, (*Helix*, *icis*, m. *ελιξ*, from *ελαι*, to turn about). The external circle or border of the outer ear, that curls inwards.

HELLËBÖRÄSTER, (*Helleborastrum*, *i*, n. from *ελλεβορος*, hellebore). Fetid hellebore, or bear's foot. *Helleborus fetidus*, of Linnæus. *Helleborus caule multifloro folioso; foliis pedatis*. Class *Polyandria*. Order *Polygynia*. The leaves of this indigenous plant are recommended by many as possessing extraordinary anthelmintic powers. The smell of the recent plant is extremely fetid, and the taste is bitter and remarkably acrid, inasmuch that, when chewed, it excoriates the mouth and fauces. It commonly operates as a cathartic, sometimes as an emetic, and in large doses proves highly deleterious.

HELLEBORE, BLACK. See *Helleborus niger*.

HELLEBORE, WHITE. See *Helleborus albus*.

HELLËBÖRUS ALBUS, (*Helleborus*, *i*, m. from *ελλεβορος*; *παρα το τη βορα ελειν*, because it destroys if eaten). *Veratrum album*. *Elleborum album*. White hellebore or veratrum. *Veratrum album racemo supradecomposito, corollis erectis*, of Linnæus. Class *Polygamia*. Order *Monoecia*. This plant is a native of Italy, Switzerland, Austria, and Russia. Every part of the plant is extremely acrid and poisonous. The dried root has no particular smell, but a durable, nauseous, and bitter taste, burning the mouth and fauces: when powdered and applied to issues or ulcers, it produces griping and purging; if snuffed up the nose, it proves a violent sternutatory. Gesner made an infusion of half an ounce of this root with two ounces of water; of this he took two drachms, which produced great heat about the scapulæ and in the face and head, as well as the tongue and throat, followed by singultus, which continued till vomiting was excited. Bergius also experienced very distressing symptoms upon tasting this infusion. The root, taken in large doses, discovers such acrimony, and operates by the stomach and rectum with such violence, that blood is usually discharged: it likewise acts very powerfully upon the nervous system, producing great anxiety, tremors, vertigo, syncope, aphonia, interrupted respiration, sinking of the pulse, convulsions, spasms, and death. Upon opening those who have died of the effects of this poison, the stomach discovered marks of inflammation, with corrosions of its internal coat. The ancients exhibited this active medicine in maniacal cases, and it is said with success. The experience of Greding is somewhat similar:

out of twenty-eight cases in which he exhibited the bark of the root collected in the spring, five were cured. In almost every case that he relates, the medicine acted more or less upon all the excretions; vomiting and purging were very generally produced, and the matter thrown off the stomach was constantly mixed with bile; a florid redness frequently appeared on the face, and various cutaneous efflorescences upon the body; and, in some, pleuritic symptoms, with fever, supervened, so as to require bleeding; nor were the more alarming affections of spasms and convulsions unfrequent. Critical evacuations were also very evident; many sweated profusely, in some the urine was considerably increased, in others the saliva and mucous discharges: and uterine obstructions, of long duration, were often removed by its use. *Veratrum* has likewise been found useful in epilepsy and other convulsive complaints: but the diseases in which its efficacy seems least equivocal are those of the skin, as itch, and different prurient eruptions, herpes, morbus pediculofus, lepra, scrofula, &c. and in many of these it has been successfully employed both internally and externally. As a powerful stimulant and irritating medicine, its use has been resorted to in desperate cases only, and even then it ought first to be exhibited in very small doses, as a grain, and in a diluted state, and to be gradually increased, according to the effects, which are generally of an alarming nature.

HELLĒBÖRUS FŒTĪDUS. The systematic name of the foetid hellebore. See *Helleboraster*.

HELLĒBÖRUS NIGER. *Melampodium*. Black hellebore, or Christmas rose. *Helleborus niger* of Linnæus. *Helleborus foapo subbiflore subnudo; foliis pedatis*. Class *Polyandria*. Order *Potygynia*. The root of this exotic plant is the part employed medicin-

ally: its taste, when fresh, is bitterish and somewhat acrid: it also emits a nauseous acrid smell, but being long kept, both its sensible qualities and medicinal activity suffer very considerable diminution. The ancients esteemed it as a powerful remedy in maniacal cases. At present it is exhibited principally as an alterative, or, when given in a large dose, as a purgative. It often proves a very powerful emmenagogue in plethoric habits, where steel is ineffectual or improper. It is also recommended in dropsies, and some cutaneous diseases.

HELMET-FLOWER, YELLOW. See *Anthora*.

HELMINTHAGOGUES, (*Helminthogoga*, ελμινθαγωγος, from ελμινς, a worm, and αγω, to drive out). Medicines which destroy and expel worms. See *Anthelmintics*.

HELMINTHĪASIS, (*Helminthiasis*, is, f. ελμινθιασις, from ελμινθις, which signifies any species of worm). A disease in which worms, or the larvæ of worms, are bred under the skin, or some external part of the body. It is endemial to Martinique, Westphalia, Transylvania, and some other places.

HELMINTHOCHORTON, (*Helminthochorton*, i). See *Carolina corficana*.

HEMĒRALŌPIA, (*Hemeralopia*, ε, f. ημεραλωπια, from ημερα, a day, and οπιω, to see). Crepuscular blindness. A defect of vision, in which the patient sees perfectly well all day, but in the crepuscular light, as in the evening, perceives little or nothing. It is often endemic to China, Barbadoes, the Brazils, and Poland.

HEMERALOPS, (*Hemeralops opis*, f. ημεραλωψ, from ημερα, the day, and ωψ, an eye). One who can see but in the day time.

HEMICRANIA, (*Hemicrania*, ε, f. ημικρανια, from ημισ, half, and κρανιον, the head). A pain that affects only one side of the head.

HEMIOPSĪA, (*Hemiopsia*, *æ*, f. *ημι-οψια*, from *ημισους*, half, and *ωψ*, an eye). A defect of vision, in which the person sees the half, but not the whole of an object.

HEMIPLĒGĪA, (*Hemiplegia*, *æ*, f. *ημιπληγια*, from *ημισους*, half, and *πλεσσω*, to strike). A paralytic affection of one side of the body. See *Paralysis*.

HEMLOCK. See *Cicuta*.

HEMLOCK, DROPWORT. See *Oenanthe*.

HEMLOCK, WATER. See *Cicuta aquatica*.

HEMP. See *Cannabis*.

HEMP-AGRIMONY. See *Eupatorium*.

HEMP, WATER. See *Eupatorium*.

HENBANE. See *Hyosciamus*.

HEPAR, (*Hepar*, *ātis*, n. *ηπαρ*, the liver). See *Liver*.

HEPAR ANTIMONII. See *Oxydum sibi sulphuratum*.

HEPAR SULPHŪRIS. Liver of sulphur. This is a *sulphuret* made either with potash or soda. It has a disagreeable foetid smell, but is in high esteem as a medicine to decompose corrosive sublimate when taken into the stomach.

HEPATALGĪA, (*Hepatalgia*, *æ*, f. *ηπαταλγια*, from *ηπαρ*, the liver, and *αλγος*, pain). Pain in the liver.

HEPATIC. Any thing belonging to the liver.

HEPATIC AIR. Hepatic airs consist of inflammable air combined with sulphur, which exists in very different proportions. Where each ingredient is combined merely to saturation, it is called simply *sulphurated hydrogen*, but where the sulphur is in excess, it is termed *super-sulphurated hydrogen*. Sulphurated hydrogen, combined with any base, forms a *hydro-sulphuret*, and may be also called an *hepatule*, to distinguish it from an *hepar*, which is the union of sulphur singly with a basis.

HEPATIC ARTERY. *Arteria he-*

patica. The artery which nourishes the substance of the liver. It arises from the *cœliac*, where it almost touches the point of the *lobulus Spigelii*. Its root is covered by the pancreas; it then turns a little forwards, and passes under the pylorus to the porta of the liver, and runs betwixt the biliary ducts and the *vena portæ*, where it divides into two large branches, one of which enters the right, and the other the left lobe of the liver. In this place it is enclosed along with all the other vessels in the capsule of Glisson.

HEPATIC DUCT. *Ductus hepaticus*. The trunk of the biliary pores. It runs from the sinus of the liver towards the duodenum, and is joined by the cystic duct, to form the *ductus communis choledochus*. See *Biliary Ducts*.

HEPATIC VEINS. See *Cava hepatica*, and *Vena portæ*.

HEPATĪCA, (*Hepatica*, *æ*, f. from *ηπαρ*, the liver, so called because it was thought to be useful in diseases of the liver). The herb liver-wort.

HEPATĪCA NOBĪLIS. *Herba trinitatis*. Hepatica or herb trinity. This plant, *Aucmone hepatica* of Linnaeus, possesses mildly adstringent and corroborant virtues, with which intentions infusions of it have been drank as tea, or the powder of the dry leaves given, to the quantity of half a spoonful at a time.

HEPATĪCA TERRESTRIS. *Fecoraria*. Liver-wort. This is a species of *Marchantia*, the *polymaphia*, which is very common in this country. It has a penetrating though mild pungency, and bitter taste, sinking, as it were, into the tongue. It is recommended as an aperient, resolvent, and antiscorbutic, and, though seldom used in this country, appears to be a plant of no inconsiderable virtue.

HEPATĪTIS, (*Hepatitis*, *idis*, f. *ηπαλλις*, from *ηπαρ*, the liver). Inflammation of the liver. A genus of

disease in the class *pyrexia*, and order *phlegmasia*, of Cullen. It is characterized by pyrexia, tension, and more or less of acute pain in the right hypochondrium, which is frequently referred to the top of the right shoulder, which is increased by lying on the left side, the urine is high-coloured.

HEPATIRRHŒA, (*Hepatirrhœa*, *æ*, f. *ηπαλρροια*, from *ηπαρ*, the liver, and *ρρρ*, to flow). A species of diarrhœa. See *Diarrhœa*.

HEPATOCELE, (*Hepatocele*, *es*, f. *ηπατοκηλη*, from *ηπαρ*, the liver, and *κηλη*, a tumour). An hernia, in which a portion of the liver protrudes through the abdominal parietes.

HEPATORIUM. The same as *Eupatorium*.

HEPATULE. See *Hepatic air*.

HEPTAPHYLLUM, (*Heptaphyllum*, *i*, n. from *επρρ*, seven, and *φυλλοι*, a leaf). See *Tormentilla*.

HERACELUM SPHONDYLÏUM. The systematic name of the Spondylium of the shops. See *Spondylium*.

HERBA BRITANNICA. See *Hydrolapathum*.

HERBA SACRA. See *Verbena*.

HERB-BENITET. See *Caryophyllata*.

HERB-MASTICH. See *Marum vulgare*.

HERB-OF-GRACE. See *Gratiola*.

HERB-TRINITY. See *Hepatica nobilis*.

HERCULES'S ALLHEAL. See *Panax*.

HEREDITARY DISEASE, (from *heres*, an heir). A disease which is continued from parents to their children.

HERMAPHRODITE, (*Hermaphroditus*, *i*, m. *ερμαφροδρρ*, from *ερρρ*, Mercury, and *αφροδρρ*, Venus, *i. e.* partaking of both sexes). The true hermaphrodite of the ancients was, the man with male organs of generation, and the female stature of body,

that is, narrow chest and large pelvis; or the woman with female organs of generation, and the male stature of body, that is, broad chest and narrow pelvis. The term is now, however, used to express any *lusus nature* wherein the parts of generation appear to be a mixture of both sexes.

HERMODACTYL. See *Hermodactylus*.

HERMODACTÏLUS, (*Hermodactylus*, *i*, *ερμοδακρυλος*. Etymologists have always derived this word from *ερρρ*, Mercury, and *δακρυλος*, a finger. It is probably named from *Hermus*, a river in Asia, upon whose banks it grows, and *δακρυλος*, a date, which it is like). The root of a species of colchicum, not yet ascertained, but supposed to be the *Colchicum illyricum* of Linnæus, of the shape of a heart, flattened on one side, with a furrow on the other, of a white colour, compact and solid, yet easy to cut or powder. This root, which has a viscous, sweetish, farinaceous taste, and no remarkable smell, is imported from Turkey. Their use is totally laid aside in the practice of the present day. Formerly they were esteemed as cathartics, which power is wanting in those that reach this country.

HERNIARIA, (*Herniaria*, *æ*, f. from *hernia*, a rupture, so called from its supposed efficacy in curing ruptures). Rupture-wort. This plant, though formerly esteemed as efficacious in the cure of hernias, appears to be destitute not only of such virtues but of any other. It is the *Herniaria glabra* of Linnæus; has no smell nor taste.

HERNIARIA GLABRA. The systematic name of the rupture-wort. See *Herniaria*.

HERNIA, (*Hernia*, *æ*, f. from *ερρρ*, a branch, because it protrudes forwards). Hernia is a swelling produced by the falling down, or protru-

sion of some part or parts which ought naturally to be contained within the cavity of the belly.

The places in which these swellings make their appearance, in order to form what is called hernia, are the groin, the navel, the labia pudendi, the upper and fore part of the thigh, and every point of the anterior part of the abdomen.

The parts which, by being thrust forth from the cavity in which they ought naturally to remain, and which form these tumours, are, a portion of the omentum, a part of the intestinal canal, and sometimes, though very rarely, the stomach and liver.

From these two circumstances, of situation and contents, are derived all the different appellations by which hernias are distinguished; for example, they are called inguinal, scrotal, femoral, umbilical, and ventral, as they happen to make their appearance in the groin, scrotum, thigh, navel, or belly. If a portion of intestine only forms it, it is called *enterocele*, hernia intestinalis, or gut rupture: if a piece of omentum only, *epiplocele*, hernia omentalis, or caul rupture; and if both intestine and omentum contribute mutually to the formation of the tumour, it is called *Entero-epiplocele*, or compound rupture.

If the piece of gut or caul descends no lower than the groin, it is said to be incomplete, and is called *bubonocoele*; if the scrotum be occupied by either of them, the rupture is said to be complete, and bears the name of *oscheocoele*; the latter used by our forefathers to be attributed to laceration of the peritoneum, the former to its dilatation merely.

The opinion that the scrotal hernia is occasioned by a forcible division or breach made in the peritoneum, has always been, and still is, with the unknowing, a very prevailing one, though without any foundation in truth; both the scrotal and femoral

pass out from the abdomen by openings which are natural to every human body, as well those who have not ruptures, as those who have. The former, that is the scrotal, descend by means of an aperture in the tendon of the external oblique muscle, near the groin, designed for the passage of the spermatic vessels in men, and the round ligaments of women; and the latter, under the hollow made by Poupart's or Fallopius's ligaments, at the upper part of the thigh, along with the great crural vein and artery.

HERNIA CONGENITA, (so called because it is, as it were, born with the person). This species of hernia consists in the adhesion of a protruded portion of intestine or omentum to the testicle, after its descent into the scrotum. This adhesion takes place while the testicle is yet in the abdomen. Upon its leaving the abdomen, it draws the adhering intestine or omentum along with it into the scrotum, where it forms the hernia congenita.

HERNIA CRURALIS. Femoral hernia. There is no difference between an inguinal and crural hernia, but what arises from the places where they are formed. Men are most subject to inguinal, and women to crural hernia, proceeding from the figure of the pelvis, which is largest in women, while the uterus and the bladder concur by their bulk to force the intestines on each side the *ossa ilia*, being more spread in them than in men, afford larger spaces for the parts to be received on the sides, and to recede from the groin. In the crural hernia, the parts generally pass out of the abdomen under Poupart's ligament, in the space formed by the attachments of this ligament to the *os pubis*. It is owing to the fat which envelopes the crural vessels, that the viscera more easily slip down under this ligament; and those vessels are always found behind the hernia. The parts

extend themselves afterwards more or less under the aponeurosis, which proceeds from the ligament, and covers the muscles that form the fore part of the thigh. The peritoneum, in its natural state, obstructs their passage here, as it does at the ring, but it likewise gives way, as in the inguinal hernia, to the pressure of the viscera, and, being distended, forms a hernial bag, of a greater or less size, according to the bulk of the prolapsed parts. In the inguinal hernia, the colon is sometimes found, and the cæcum very seldom; but in the crural hernia, the bag of the cæcum is frequently seen, with the beginning of the colon.

HERNIA HUMORĀLIS. Inflammation of the testicle. See *Orchitis*.

HERNIA INCARCERĀTA. A rupture is said to be incarcerated or strangulated, when on a sudden the protruding viscus cannot be reduced into its proper cavity, and bad symptoms arise, as vomiting, colic, and obstipation, fever and tumour of the part: which alarming symptoms arise, either from obstruction of the intestines, or from suspended circulation of the blood. The danger in this state depends on the narrowness of the strangulating opening, and the extent of the parts which have fallen down.

HERNIA INGUINĀLIS. *The hernia inguinalis* is so called because it appears in both sexes at the groin. It is one of the divisions of hernia, and includes all those herniæ in which the parts displaced pass out of the abdomen through the ring, that is, the arch formed by the aponeurosis of the musculus obliquus externus in the groin, for the passage of the spermatic vessels in men, and the round ligament in women. The parts displaced that form the hernia, the part into which they fall, the manner of the hernia being produced, and the time it has continued, occasion great

differences in this disorder. There are three different parts that may produce a hernia in the groin, viz. one or more of the intestines, the epiploon, and the bladder. That which is formed by one or more of the intestines, was called by the ancients *enterocele*. The intestine which most frequently produces the hernia is the *ilium*: because, being placed in the iliac region, it is nearer the groin than the rest; but notwithstanding the situation of the other intestines, which seems not to allow of their coming near the groin, we often find the jejunum, and frequently also a portion of the colon and cæcum, included in the hernia. It must be remembered, that the mesentery and mesocolon are membranous substances capable of extension, which, by little and little, are sometimes so far stretched by the weight of the intestines, as to escape with the *ilium*, in this species of hernia. The hernia made by the epiploon is called *epiplocele*; as that caused by the epiploon and one of the intestines together is called *entero-epiplocele*. The hernia of the bladder is called *cystocele*. Hernia of the bladder is uncommon, and has seldom been known to happen but in conjunction with some of the viscera. When the parts, having passed through the abdominal rings, descend no lower than the groin, it is called an incomplete hernia; when they fall into the scrotum in men, or into the *labia pudendi* in women, it is then termed complete.

HERNIOTOMY, (*Herniatio*, *a*, f. from *hernia*, and *τεμνω*, to cut). The operation to remove the strangulated part in cases of incarcerated herniæ.

HERPES, (*Herpes*, *ētis*, m. *επηρες*, from *επτω*, to creep, because it creeps and spreads about the skin). *Serpigo*. Tetters. A genus of disease in the class *locales* and order *dialysis* of Cullen, distinguished by an assemblage

of little creeping ulcers, itching very much, and not inclined to heal, but terminating in furfuraceous scales. There are two species of this disease:

1. *Herpes simplex*, which corresponds with the above description. 2. *Herpes exedens*, called also *ferus* and *esthiomenos*, which deeply corrodes the skin, and continues spreading sometimes over the abdomen or face, or where it is situated, and sometimes becomes cancerous. Herpes has been thought by many to be produced by a bilious acrimony irritating the subcutaneous glands. The remote causes are the abuse of spices, suppressed evacuations, cachexiæ, contagion. Herpes is sometimes critical, arising after jaundice, fever, &c. and should not therefore be checked. The *herpes exedens* sometimes becomes cancerous.

HIBERNICUS LAPIS. See *Lapis Hibernicus*.

HIBISCUS, (*ἱεῖκος*, from *ἱεῖς*, the stork, who is said to chew it and inject it as a clyster). The Marsh Malow.

HIBISCUS ABELMOSCHUS. The systematic name of the plant whose seeds are called mulk-seeds. See *Abelmoschus*.

HIERACIUM PILOCELLA. The systematic name of the auricula muris. See *Pilocella*.

HIEROBOTANE. See *Verbena*.

HIGHMORE'S ANTRUM. See *Antrum of Highmore*.

HIPPOCĀSTĀNUM, (*Hippocastanum*, *i*, n. *ἵππου καστανόν*, from *ἵππος*, a horse, and *καστανόν*, a chestnut, so called from its size). Common horse-chestnut. *Æsculus hippocastanum*; *foliolis, septenis* of Linnæus. Class *Hep-tandria*. Order *Monogynia*. The fruit, when dried and powdered, is recommended as an errhine. The bark is highly esteemed on the continent as a febrifuge, and is by some considered as being superior in quality to the Peruvian bark. The bark

intended for medical use is to be taken from those branches which are neither very young nor very old.

HIPPOLAPĀTHUM, (*Hippolapathum*, *i*, n. *ἐπὶ παλοπαθόν*, from *ἵππος*, a horse, and *λαπαθόν*, the lapathum, a species of lapathum, so named from its size). See *Rhabarbarum monachorum*.

HIPPOMARATHRUM. See *Saxifraga vulgaris*.

HIPPOSELINUM, (*Hipposelinum*, *i*, n. *ἵππου σελίνον*, from *ἵππος*, a horse, and *σελίνον*, purslane, so named because it resembles a large kind of purslane). Common Alexanders. This plant, *Smyrniolum olusatrum* of Linnæus, was formerly cherished in our gardens, for culinary use, but is now superceded by celery. The seeds are bitter and aromatic, and the roots are more powerfully bitter. They stand recommended as resolvents, diuretics, and emmanagogues, though seldom used.

HIPPS. The ripe fruit of the dog rose. See *Cynosbatus*.

HIPPŪRIS VULGĀRIS, (*Hippuris*, *ἵππουρις*, from *ἵππος*, a horse, and *ἄρα*, a tail, so named from its resemblance to a horse's tail). See *Equisetum*.

HIPPUS, (*Hippus*, *i*, from *ἵππος*, a horse, because those who labour under this affection are continually twinkling and trembling, as is usual with those who ride on horseback). A repeated dilatation and alternate constriction of the pupil, arising from spasm or convulsion of the iris.

HISPIDŪLA, (*Hispidula*, *a*, f. from *hispidus*, rough, so named from the rough woolly surface of its stalks). Cudweed. See *Gnaphalium*.

HIRUNDINARIA, (*Hirundinaria*, *a*, f. from *hirundo*, the swallow, so named from the resemblance of its pods to a swallow). Swallow-wort. See *Nummularia* and *Vincetoxicum*.

HOGS-FENNEL. See *Peucedanum*.

HOLLY, KNEE. See *Ruscus*.

HOLLY, SEA. See *Eryngium*.

HOLOSTEUS, (*Holosteus*,). See *Osteocolla*.

HOLY THISTLE. See *Cardius Benedictus*.

HOLYWELL WATER. A mineral water, arranged under the class of simple cold waters. It possesses similar virtues to that of Malvern. See *Malvern water*.

HOMBERGS SEDATIVE SALT. See *Boracic acid*.

HOMOGENEOUS, (*Homogeneous*, from *ομος*, like, and *γενος*, a kind). Uniform, of a like kind or species.

HOMOPLATÆ OS, (*Omplatæ*, *æ*, *f*. *ομοπλατα*, from *ωμος*, the shoulder, and *πλατα*, the blade). See *Scapula*.

HONEY, (*Mel*, *lis*, *n*.). A substance collected by bees from the nectary of flowers, perfectly resembling saccharine juices. It has a white or yellowish colour, a soft and grained consistence, and a saccharine and aromatic smell. Honey is an excellent food, and a softening and slightly aperient remedy: mixed with vinegar, it forms *oxymel*, and is exhibited in various forms in medicine and pharmacy.

HONEY SUCKLE. See *Lonicera periclymenum*.

HOPS. See *Lupulus*.

HOP-TOPS. The young sprouts of the hop plant are so called; plucked when only a foot above the ground, and boiled, they are eaten with butter as a delicacy, and are very wholesome.

HORDEOLUM, (*Hordeolum*, *i*, *n*. a dim. of *hordeum*). An inflammatory tubercle, similar to a small boil, in the margin of the eyelids, somewhat resembling a barleycorn.

HORDĒUM, (*Hordeum*, *i*, *n*. *ab horrore ariste*, from the unpleasantness of its beard to the touch). Barley. This seed is obtained from several species of *hordeum*, but principally from the *vulgare* and *distichon* of Linnæus. It is extremely nutritious, and mucilaginous, and in com-

mon use as a drink when boiled in water, in all inflammatory diseases and affections of the chest, especially when there is cough or irritation about the fauces. Amongst the ancients, decoctions of barley, *Κριθη*, was the principal medicine, as well as aliment, in acute diseases. Barley is freed from its shells in mills, and in this state called Scotch and French barley. In Holland they make barley into small round grains, somewhat like pearls, which is therefore called pearl barley.

HORDĒUM CAUSTICUM. See *Cevadilla*.

HORDĒUM DISTICHON. This plant affords the barley in common use. See *Hordeum*.

HORDĒUM PERLĀTUM. See *Hordeum*.

HORDĒUM VULGĀRE. The systematic name of one of the plants which afford the barley. See *Hordeum*.

HOREHOUND. See *Marrubium*.

HORESTRONG. See *Peucedanum*.

HORMĪNUM, (*Horminum*, *i*, *n*. *ορμινον*, from *ορμαινω*, to incite, named from its supposed qualities of provoking to venery). Garden clary. *Salvia sclara* of Linnæus.

HORNS, HARTS. See *Cornu cervi*.

HORRIPILATIO, (*Horripilatio*, *ōnis*, *f*.) A sense of creeping in different parts of the body. A symptom of the approach of fever.

HORSECHESNUT. See *Hippocastanum*.

HORSERADISH. See *Raphanus ruscicamus*.

HORSETAIL. See *Equisetum*.

HOUNDSTONGUE. See *Cynoglossum*.

HOUSELEEK. See *Sedum magus*.

HUMAN BODY. See *Man*.

HUMERAL ARTERY. *Arteria humeralis*. Brachial artery. The axillary artery having passed the tendon of the great pectoral muscle, changes its name to the brachial or humeral artery, which name it retains in its course down the arm to the bend,

where it divides into the radial and ulnar artery. In this course it gives off several muscular branches, three of which only deserve attention: 1. *The arteria profunda superior*, which goes round the back of the arm to the exterior muscles, and is often named the upper muscular artery. 2. Another, like it, called *arteria profunda inferior*, or the lower muscular artery. 3. *Ramus anastomoticus major*, which anastomoses round the elbow with the branches of the ulnar artery.

HUMÉRUS, (*Humerus*, *i*, m. from *ὑμῶς*, the shoulder). *Os humeri*. *Os brachii*. A long cylindrical bone, situated between the scapula and forearm. Its upper extremity is formed somewhat laterally and internally, into a large, round, and smooth head, which is admitted into the glenoid cavity of the scapula. Around the basis of this head is observed a circular fossa, deepest anteriorly and externally, which forms what is called the neck of the bone, and from the edge of which arises the capsular ligament, which is farther strengthened by a strong membranous expansion, extending to the upper edge of the glenoid cavity, and to the coracoid process of the scapula; and likewise by the tendinous expansions of the muscles, inserted into the head of the humerus.—This capsular ligament is sometimes torn in luxation, and becomes an obstacle to the easy reduction of the bone. The articulating surface of the head is covered by a cartilage, which is thick in its middle part, and thin towards its edges, by which means it is more convex in the recent subject than in the skeleton. This upper extremity, besides the round smooth head, affords two other smaller protuberances. One of these, which is the largest of the two, is of an irregular oblong shape, and is placed at the back of the head of the

bone, from which it is separated by a kind of groove that makes a part of the neck. This tuberosity is divided, at its upper part, into three surfaces; the first of these, which is the smallest and uppermost, serves for the insertion of the supraspinatus muscle; the second, or middlemost, for the insertion of the infraspinatus; and the third, which is the lowest and hindmost, for the insertion of the teres minor. The other smaller tuberosity is situated anteriorly between the larger one and the head of the humerus, and serves for the insertion of the subscapularis muscle. Between these two tuberosities there is a deep groove, for lodging the tendinous head of the biceps brachii; the capsular ligament of the joint affording here a prolongation, thinner than the rest of the capsula, which covers and accompanies this muscle to its fleshy portion, where it gradually disappears in the adjacent cellular membrane. Immediately below its neck, the os humeri begins to assume a cylindrical shape, so that here the body of the bone may be said to commence. At its upper part is observed a continuation of the groove for the biceps, which extends downwards, about a fourth part of the length of the bone, in an oblique direction. The edges of this groove are continuations of the greater and lesser tuberosities, and serve for the attachment of the pectoralis, latissimus dorsi, and teres major muscles. The groove itself is lined with a glistening substance like cartilage, but which seems to be nothing more than the remains of tendinous fibres.—A little lower down, towards the external and anterior side of the middle of the bone, it is seen rising into a rough ridge, for the insertion of the deltoid muscle. On each side of this ridge the bone is smooth and flat, for the lodgment of the brachialis internus muscle; and behind the middle part

of the outermost side of the ridge is a channel, for the transmissiion of vessels into the substance of the bone. A little lower down, and near the inner side of the ridge, there is sometimes seen such another channel, which is intended for the same purpose. The os humeri; at its lower extremity, becomes gradually broader and flatter, so as to have this end nearly of a triangular shape. The bone, thus expanded, affords two surfaces, of which the anterior one is the broadest, and somewhat convex; and the posterior one narrower and smoother. The bone terminates in four large processes, the two outermost of which are called *condyles*, though not designed for the articulation of the bone.—These condyles, which are placed at some distance from each other, on each side of the bone, are rough and irregular protuberances, formed for the insertion of muscles and ligaments, and differ from each other in size and shape.—The external condyle, when the arm is in the most natural position, is found to be placed somewhat forwarder than the other. The internal condyle is longer, and more protuberant than the external. From each of these processes a ridge is continued upwards at the sides of the bone. In the interval between the two condyles are placed the two articulating processes, contiguous to each other, and covered with cartilage. One of these, which is the smallest, is formed into a small, obtuse, smooth head, on which the radius plays. This little head is placed near the external condyle, as a part of which it has been sometimes described. The other, and larger process, is composed of two lateral protuberances and a middle cavity, all of which are smooth and covered with cartilage. From the manner in which the ulna moves upon this process, it has gotten the name of *trochlea*, or pulley. The sides of this pulley are unequal; that which

is towards the little head is the highest of the two; the other, which is contiguous to the external condyle, is more slanting, being situated obliquely from within outwards, so that when the fore-arm is full extended, it does not form a straight line with the os humeri, and, for the same reason, when we bend the elbow the hand comes not to the shoulder as it might be expected to do, but to the fore part of the breast. There is a cavity at the root of these processes, on each of the two surfaces of the bone. The cavity on the anterior surface is divided by a ridge into two, the external of which receives the end of the radius, and the internal one lodges the coronoid process of the ulna in the flexions of the fore-arm. The cavity on the posterior surface, at the basis of the pulley, is much larger, and lodges the olecranon when the arm is extended. The internal structure of the os humeri is similar to that of other long bones. In newborn infants both the ends of the bone are cartilaginous, and the large head, with the two tubercles above, and condyles, with the two articulating processes below, become epiphyses before they are entirely united to the rest of the bone.

HUMILIS, (*Humilis*, from *humis*, on the ground, so named because it turns the eye downwards, and is expressive of humility). See *Rectus inferior oculi*.

HUMOR AQUÆUS. See *Aqueous humour of the eye*.

HUMOR VITRÆUS. See *Vitreous humour*.

HUMOURS OF THE EYE. See *Aqueous* and *Vitreous humour*.

HUMULUS LUPULUS, (*Humulus*, from *humus*, the ground, so named because without factitious support it creeps along the ground). The systematic name of the hop-plant. See *Lupulus*.

HUNGER. *Fames*. This function

is classed by physiologists under the head of natural actions. It is a sensation in the stomach, caused by the irritation of the gastric juice, inducing a desire for food.

HURTSICKLE. The bluebottle, or *cyanus*, is so called because it is troublesome to cut down, and sometimes notches the sickle.

HYALOID MEMBRANE, (*Membrana hyaloidea*; from *υαλος*, glass, and *ειδος*, likeness). *Membrana arachnoidea*. Capsule of the vitreous humour. The transparent membrane enclosing the vitreous humour of the eye.

HYDARTHROS, (*Hydarthrus*, *i. m.* *υδαρθρος*, from *υδαρ*, water, and *αρθρον*, a joint). *Hydarthron*. *Hydarthros*. A white swelling, or watery joint. A genus of disease arranged by Cullen in the class *locales* and order *tumores*. It is known by a uniform swelling around the joint, of the colour of the skin, and extremely painful. It mostly affects the knee and elbow joints. There are two species of this disease: 1. *Hydarthrus rheumaticus*, originating from rheumatism, which is mostly curable. 2. *Hydarthrus scrofulosus*, which is mostly incurable.

HYDATIDS, (*Hydatis*, *idis*, *υδατις*, a bladder, from *υδαρ*, water). A very singular animal, formed like a bladder, and distended with an aqueous fluid. These animals are sometimes formed in the natural cavities of the body, as the abdomen and ventricles of the brain, but more frequently in the liver, kidney, and lungs, where they produce diseased actions of those viscera. Cullen arranges these affections in the class *locales* and order *tumores*. If the vires naturæ medicatrices are not sufficient to effect a cure, the patient mostly falls a sacrifice to their ravages.—Dr. Baillie gives the following interesting account of the hydatids, as they are sometimes found in the liver:—There is no gland in the human body in

which hydatids are so frequently found as the liver, except the kidneys, where they are still more common. Hydatids of the liver are usually found in the cyst, which is frequently of considerable size, and is formed of very firm materials, so as to give to the touch almost the feeling of cartilage. This cyst, when cut into, is obviously laminated, and is much thicker in one liver than another. In some livers it is not thicker than a shilling, and in others it is near a quarter of an inch in thickness. The laminæ which compose it are formed of a white matter, and on the inside there is a lining of a pulpy substance, like the coagulable lymph. The cavity of the cyst, I have seen, in one instance, subdivided by a partition of this pulpy substance. In a cyst may be found one hydatid, or a greater number of them. They lie loose in the cavity, swimming in a fluid; or some of them are attached to the side of the cyst. They consist of a round bag, which is composed of a white, semi-opaque, pulpy matter, and contain a fluid capable of coagulation. Although the common colour of hydatids be white, yet I have occasionally seen some of a light amber colour. The bag of the hydatid consists of two laminæ, and possesses a good deal of contractile power. In one hydatid this coat or bag is much thicker and more opaque than in another, and even in the same hydatid different parts of it will often differ in its thickness. On the inside of an hydatid, smaller ones are sometimes found, which are commonly not larger than the heads of pins, but sometimes they are even larger in their size than a gooseberry. These are attached to the larger hydatid, either at scattered irregular distances, or so as to form small clusters; and they are also found floating loose in the liquor of the larger hydatids. Hydatids of the liver are often found un-

connected with each other; but sometimes they have been said to inclose each other in a series, like pill-boxes. The most common situation of hydatids of the liver is in its substance, and inclosed in a cyst; but they are occasionally attached to the outer surface of the liver, hanging from it, and occupying more or less of the general cavity of the abdomen. The origin and real nature of these hydatids are not fully ascertained; it is extremely probable, however, that they are a sort of imperfect animalcules. There is no doubt at all, that the hydatids in the livers of sheep are animalcules; they have been often seen to move when taken out of the liver and put into warm water; and they retain this power of motion for a good many hours after a sheep has been killed. The analogy is great between hydatids in the liver of a sheep and those of the human subject. In both they are contained in strong cysts, and in both they consist of the same white pulpy matter. There is undoubtedly some difference between them in simplicity of organization: the hydatid in the human liver being a simple uniform bag, and the hydatid in that of a sheep having a neck and mouth appended to the bag. This difference need be no considerable objection to the opinion above stated. Life may be conceived to be attached to the most simple form of organization. In proof of this, hydatids have been found in the brains of sheep, resembling almost exactly those in the human liver, and which have been seen to move, and therefore are certainly known to be animalcules. The hydatids of the human liver indeed, have not, as far as I know, been found to move when taken out of the body and put into warm water; were this to have happened, no uncertainty would remain. It is not difficult to see a good reason why there will hardly occur any pro-

per opportunity of making this experiment. Hydatids are not very often found in the liver, because it is not a very frequent disease there; and the body is allowed to remain for so long a time after death before it is examined, that the hydatids must have lost their living principle, even if they were animalcules, however it is very strong: and it appears even more difficult to account for their production, according to the common theory of generation, than for that of intestinal worms. We do not get rid of the difficulty by asserting, that hydatids in the human liver are not living animals, because in sheep they are certainly such, where the difficulty of accounting for their production is precisely the same.

HYDRAGOGUE, (*Hydragoga*, ὑδραγωγα, from ὕδωρ, water, and αγω, to drive out). Medicines are so termed which possess the property of increasing the secretions or excretions of the body, so as to cause the removal of water from any of its cavities, such as tonics, diuretics, cathartics, &c.

HYDRARGYRUS, (*Hydrargyrum*, ἡ, m. ὑδραργυρος; from ὕδωρ, water, and αργυρος, silver; so named from its having the resemblance of fluid silver.) *Hydrargyrum*. *Mercurius vivus*. *Argentum vivum*. Mercury. Quicksilver. An opaque silver-coloured metallic substance, resembling melted lead or tin. Next after gold and platina, it is the most ponderous substance known. A cubic foot of very fine mercury weighs 947 pounds. It differs from other metals by its property of retaining the fluid state at the ordinary temperature of the atmosphere: it is fusible at 35° under zero in Fahrenheit's thermometer and congeals at 38°. When congealed it acquires malleability. It was first proved to be susceptible of congelation in the middle of the present century. Its excessive weight,

habitual fluidity, extreme volubility, and the singular alterations it is liable to suffer by combination, may induce us to regard it as a peculiar substance, not otherwise allied to the metals than by its brilliancy, gravity, and combustibility. Mercury is not found abundantly in nature. It is met with in a virgin or fluid state, possessing all its metallic properties; or in a state of oxydation; or in combination with acids, sulphur, and other metallic substances. Virgin or fluid mercury has been found in globules or in large masses, in earths and soft stones, but most frequently in the cavities and interstices of its own ores. At Idria, in Spain, and in America, it is collected in the cavities and in the clefts of the rocks, by making depressions, in which it rests. It is likewise found in clay at Almaden, and in beds of chalk in Sicily. It is also found at times in silver and lead ores, as well as mixed with white oxyd of arsenic. At Idria, in Friuli, Sage found a red brown ore of mercury, soft and granulated in its fracture, which is regarded as a carbonated oxyd of mercury, and which has been found to afford 91 parts of mercury, out of 100 parts of the ore. Mercury is most commonly found naturally combined with sulphur, when it is called *cinnabar*, or, *ethiops*, according to the colour. It is called *native vermillion*, and *cinnabar in flowers*, when it is in the form of a very brilliant red powder. Cinnabar is found in the dutchy of Deuxponts, in the Palatinate, in Hungary, in Friuli, at Almaden, and in South America; but it chiefly abounds in Guamanga in Peru. There is a blackish ore of mercury, in which it is said to be combined with sulphur and copper, and which is found at Muschel Landberg. Mercury has also been found in amalgamation with virgin silver, in the ore of Sahlberg in Sweden. Mercury

does not appear to suffer any alteration from light. It is one of those fluid matters which are the most easily and uniformly heated. If exposed to fire in close vessels, it boils like other fluids. The vapour into which it is transported by ebullition, appears in the form of a white smoke, obscures the transparency of the vessels into which it is received, and is condensed by cold into drops of liquid or purified mercury. Mercury has no taste that the nerves of the tongue and palate can perceive: rubbed for a short time between the fingers, it emits a slight peculiar smell. Mercury is extremely susceptible of oxydation by the contact of air and other bodies; a blackish grey pellicle is continually forming on its surface, which is called *black oxyd of mercury*. If heated, with access of air, this metal is changed into a red, brilliant, scaly, earthy oxyd or powder, called precipitate per se, or *hydrargyrus calcinatus* of the pharmacopoeias. It is usually made with the bottle called *Boyle's bell*, in which a quantity of mercury is put, in such a proportion as to be spread in a very thin layer over its surface. The mouth of the bottle is fitted with a chrystal cylindrical stopper, perforated with a capillary tube. The bottle is then placed on a sand bath, and the mercury is thus heated to ebullition. The capillary aperture in the stopper of the tube admits the external air, without suffering the mercury to escape. Digestion in this manner for the space of some months, affords in the end a large proportion of red mercurial oxyd, or calcined mercury. Mercury is very little, if at all, liable to solution in water, although water remaining over mercury a considerable time contracts an evident metallic taste, and if boiled upon it, is said to acquire a vermifugal property; but the mercury does not appear to be at all changed, or de-

prived of any of its weight. It is not more disposed than other metallic substances to unite with earths. Concentrated sulphuric acid is capable of dissolving mercury, with the aid of heat; sulphureous acid gas is disengaged, and a *white oxyd* is formed, upon which if a large quantity of hot water is poured, a beautiful yellow oxyd, the *sulphas hydrargyri*, is precipitated, known by the name of *turbith mineral*, or *yellow precipitate*, or *hydrargyrus vitriolatus* of the shops. The nitric acid dissolves mercury with so great facility, that no external heat nor concentrated acid is required. A mercurial oxyd is produced by this decomposition, the *nitras hydrargyri*, or *hydrargyrus nitratus*, a nitrous acid gas being at the same time disengaged. The nitrate of mercury is corrosive: fused in a crucible, or better in a retort, it yields oxygen or nitrogen gases, the remaining oxyd becoming yellow, and at length a lively red, which is the red precipitate. The solution of mercurial nitrate forms mercurial water, which is of use to ascertain the presence of sulphuric and muriatic salts in mineral waters, and is also used as a powerful escharotic by surgeons. The muriatic acid does not act in any sensible degree upon pure metallic mercury, except by long digestion, though it be one of those which has the strongest affinity with that metal, readily combining with all the mercurial oxyds, and forming different products, according as the oxyd is more perfect or imperfect. The combination of oxyd of mercury with muriatic acid, is susceptible of two different states: in one, formed with the common muriatic acid, it is *mild mercurial muriate*: in the other, formed with the oxygenated muriatic acid, it is *corrosive sublimate*, *corrosive mercurial muriate*, *oxy-muriate of mercury*, or *hydrargyrus muriatus*. This neutral saline salt is capable of enter-

ing into combination with running mercury, when it loses its peculiar taste and solubility, with most other of its saline properties, and the product is known by the name of *mercurius dulcis*, or *calomel* of the shops. The acetous acid dissolves the oxyd of mercury, and affords white foliated crystals, the *hydrargyrus acetatus*. The boracic acid is not capable of dissolving mercury without an intermedium. In what manner the fluoric and carbonic acids act on mercury is not at present well known. The neutral salts are understood to possess no strong powers of acting on this metal; it, however, incorporates readily with sulphate of potash. Mercury artificially mixed with sulphur, forms the black or red sulphurated oxyds, known on account of their colour, by the names of *æthiops*, or *cinnabar*. See *Sulphuretum hydrargyri nigrum*, and *Sulphuretum hydrargyri rubrum*. Mercury amalgamates with most other metals. On this property is founded the art of gilding metals, the tinning of glasses, the working of gold and silver mines, &c. Mercury is also employed in painting, in forming mirrors, philosophical instruments, &c. The uses of this metal in the practice of physic and surgery are very considerable. See the various preparations of *Hydrargyrus*.

HYDRARGYRUS ACETATUS. *Mercurius acetatus. Pilula Keyseri.* By this preparation of mercury, the celebrated Keyser acquired an immense fortune in curing the venereal disease. It is an acetite of quicksilver, and therefore termed *acetis hydrargyri* in the new chemical nomenclature. The dose is from three to five grains, yet notwithstanding the encomium given to it by some, it does not appear to be so efficacious as some other preparations of mercury.

HYDRARGYRUS CALCINATUS. *Mercurius calcinatus.* Calcined mer-

cury. This preparation of mercury is given with great advantage in the cure of syphilis. Its action, however, is such, when given alone, on the bowels, as to require the addition of opium, which totally prevents it. It is also given, in conjunction with opium and camphire, as a diaphoretic, in chronic pains, and diseases of long continuance.

HYDRARGYRUS CUM CRĒTA. *Mercurius alkalisatus.* This preparation of mercury possesses alterative properties in cutaneous and venereal complaints, in obstructions of the viscera, or of the prostate gland, given in the dose of ℥ss to ʒss, two or three times a day.

HYDRARGYRUS CUM SULPHŪRE. *Æthiops mineral.* This is a black sulphuret of mercury, and therefore called *sulphuretum hydrargyri nigrum* in the new chemical nomenclature. The mercury and sulphur are triturated together, the blended mass thus obtained consists of sulphur and an imperfect oxyd of mercury. The mercury by this admixture of the sulphur is deprived of its salivating power, and may be administered with safety to all ages and constitutions as an anthelmintic and alterative.

HYDRARGYRUS MURIATUS. *Mercurius corrosivus.* *Mercurius sublimatus corrosivus.* An extremely acrid and violently poisonous preparation. It is an oxymuriate of quicksilver, and therefore called in the new chemical nomenclature *urias hydrargyri oxygenatus.* Given internally in small doses properly diluted, and never in the form of pill, it possesses oxygenating, antisyphilitical, and alterative virtues. Externally, applied in form of lotion, it facilitates the healing of venereal sores, and cures the itch.

HYDRARGYRUS MURIATUS MITIS. *Mercurius præcipitatus dulcis.* This mild muriate of quicksilver possesses similar virtues to calomel, for

which it is often substituted. See *Calomelas.*

HYDRARGYRUS NITRATUS RUBER. *Mercurius corrosivus ruber.* *Mercurius præcipitatus ruber.* Red præcipitate. This red oxyd of mercury is prepared with the nitrous acid. It is of extensive use in the practice of surgery, as a stimulant and escarotic. Finely levigated and mixed with the common cerates, it proves an excellent application to indolent ulcers, especially those which remain after burns and scalds, and where the granulations are indolent.

HYDRARGYRUS PRÆCIPITATUS CINEREUS. This preparation ordered in the Edinburgh Pharmacopœia, is used as an alterative in cases of pains arising from an admixture of rheumatism with syphilis. It may be substituted for the hydrargyrus sulphuratus ruber, in fumigating ozena, and venereal ulcerated sore throat, on account of its not yielding any vapour offensive to the patient.

HYDRARGYRUS PURIFICATUS. Purified quicksilver is sometimes administered in its metallic state in doses of one ounce or more in constipation of the bowels. See also *Pil. Empl. & Ung. ex hydrargyro. & Hydrargyrus.*

HYDRARGYRUS SULPHURATUS RUBER. *Cinnabar factitia.* This is the *Sulphuretum hydrargyri rubrum* of the new chemical nomenclature, it being a red sulphuret of mercury: it is esteemed as a mild mercurial alterative, and is given to children in cases of strophulus, porrigo, tinea, &c.

HYDRARGYRUS VITRIOLATUS. *Turpethum minerale.* *Mercurius emeticus flavus.* *Sulphas hydrargyri.* Formerly this medicine was in more general use than in the present day. It is a very powerful and active alterative when given in small doses. Two grains act on the stomach so as to produce violent vomitings. It is recommended as an emetic in cases of

amaurosis. In combination with antimony it acts powerfully on the skin.

HYDROCARDIA, (*Hydrocardia*, *α*, f. *υδροκαρδία*; from *υδωρ*, water, and *καρδία*, the heart.) *Hydrocordis*. *Hydrops pericardii*. Dropsy of the heart. Dropsy of the pericardium. A collection of fluid in the pericardium, which may be either coagulable lymph, serum, or a puriform fluid. It produces symptoms similar to those of hydrothorax, with violent palpitation of the heart, and mostly an intermittent pulse. It is incurable.

HYDRŌCĒLE, (*Hydrocele*, *es*, f. *υδρεκλή*; from *υδωρ*, water, and *κλή*, a tumour). *Oscœcele*. *Oscœophyma*. *Hydrops scroti*. *Hydrops testis*. Dropsy of the scrotum. A genus of disease in the class *cachexia*, and order *intumescētia* of Cullen, known by a soft, pyramidal, fluctuating, generally pellucid swelling of the scrotum, increasing slowly, and without pain. There are three species of this disease. 1. *Hydrocele integumentorum*, or a mere anasarcaous swelling of the scrotum. 2. *Hydrocele tunica vaginalis*. This is properly the hydrocele: the swelling is mostly of a pyramidal form, and is known by an evident fluctuation. It should carefully be distinguished from hernia and orchitis. 3. *Hydrocele funiculi spermatici*. An anasarcaous swelling of the spermatic cord, which is sometimes diffused throughout the cord, and sometimes confined to one or two enlarged cells, when it is said to be encysted.

HYDROCĒPHĀLUS, (*Hydrocephalus*, *i. m.* *υδροκεφαλος*; from *υδωρ*, water, and *κεφαλή*, the head), *Hydrocephalum*. Dropsy of the brain. Dropsy of the head. A genus of disease arranged by Cullen in the class *cachexia*, and order *intumescētia*. It is distinguished by authors into external and internal: 1. *Hydrocephalus externus*, is a collection of water between

the membranes of the brain. 2. *Hydrocephalus internus*, is when a fluid is collected in the ventricles of the brain, producing dilatation of the pupils, apoplexy, &c. See *Apoplexia*. It is sometimes of a chronic nature, when the water has been known to increase to an enormous quantity, effecting a diastasis of the bones of the head, and an absorption of the substance of the brain.

HYDROGEN, (*Hydrogenium*, *ii. n.* from *υδωρ*, water, and *γενναι*, to become, or *γενναω*, to produce, because with oxygen it produces water). Phlogiston of Kirwan? A simple or elementary substance not perceptible to the senses, but known only by its combinations. With oxygen it forms water, and from the circumstance of its necessarily entering into the composition of that fluid it receives its name. In combination with light and caloric it forms hydrogen gas, or, as it is called, gas-hydrogen. Ammoniac, or volatile alkali, is also a compound of this substance. See *Ammoniac*. Hydrogen not only enters into the composition of these, but is likewise a constituent part in a great variety of other bodies. It is one of the ingredients in the mixture of bitumens, of oils, of fats, of ardent spirits, and of all animal and vegetable bodies: hence all combustible substances of these two kingdoms yield water.

HYDROGEN, SULPHURATED. See *Hepatic air*.

HYDROLĀPĀTHUM, (*Hydrolapathum*, *i. n.* *υδρολαπαθον*, from *υδωρ*, water, and *λαπαθον*, the dock). *Herba Brittanica*. *Lapathum aquaticum*. The water-dock. *Rumex hydrolapathum*, *floribus hermaphroditis, valvulis integris graniferis, foliis lanceolatis*. Hudson's Flor. Ang. Class *Hexandria*. Order *Trigynia*. The leaves of this plant manifest considerable acidity, and are said to possess a laxative quality. The root is strongly astringent,

and has been much employed, both externally and internally, for the cure of some diseases of the skin, as scurvy, lepra, lichen, &c. The root powdered is said to be an excellent dentifrice.

HYDRŌMĒTRA, (*Hydrometra*, *α*, f. *υδρομετρα*, from *υδωρ*, water, and *μετρα*, the womb). Dropsy of the womb. A genus of disease in the class *cachexie* and order *intumescencie* of Cullen. It produces a swelling of the hypogastric region: the fluctuation is very obscure. It must be considered as a very rare disease, and one that can with difficulty be ascertained.

HYDRŌPHOBĪA, (*Hydrophobia*, *α*, f. *υδροφοβια*, from *υδωρ*, water, and *φοβια*, to fear). *Rabies canina*. Canine madness. This genus of disease arises in consequence of the bite of a rabid animal, as a dog or cat. It is termed hydrophobia, because persons that are thus bitten dread the sight or the falling of water when first seized. Cullen has arranged it under the class *neuroses* and order *spasmi*. It is known by the previous history of the disease, the dread of water, painful convulsions of the pharynx, and putrid fever.

HYDROPTHALMĪA, (*Hydrophthalmia*, *α*, f. *υδροφθαλμια*, from *υδωρ*, and *οφθαλμος*, the eye). There are two diseases different in their nature and consequences thus termed. The one is a mere anasarca or œdematous swelling of the eyelid. The other, the true hydrophthalmia, is a swelling of the bulb of the eye, from too great a collection of the vitreous or aqueous humours.

HYDROPIPER, (*Hydropiper*, *eris*, n. *υδροπιπερι*, from *υδωρ*, water, and *πιπερι*, pepper, so called from its biting the tongue like pepper, and being a native of marshy places). Biting arsmart. Lake weed. Water pepper. *Polygonum hydropiper* of Linnaeus. This plant is very common in

our ditches; the leaves have an acrid burning taste, and seem to be nearly of the same nature with those of the arum. They have been recommended as possessing antiseptic, aperient, diuretic virtues, and given in scurvy and cachexies, asthmas, hypochondriacal and nephritic complaints, and wandering gout. The fresh leaves have been applied externally as a stimulating cataplasm.

HYDROPS, (*Hydrops*, *ῥῆσις*, m. *υδροψις*, from *υδωρ*, water). A dropsy. Any species of dropsy may be so termed, as hydrops abdominis, thoracis, cerebri, pericardii, testis, &c. See *Ascites*, *Hydrothorax*, *Hydrocephalus*, *Anasarca*, *Hydrocele*, *Hydrocardia*, &c.

HYDRORACHĪTIS, (*Hydrorachitis*, *ἰδλις*, f. *υδροραχιδις*, from *υδωρ*, water, and *ραχιδις*, the spine). *Spina bifida*. A small, soft, fluctuating tumour, mostly situated on the lumbar vertebrae of new-born children. It is a genus of disease in the class *cachexie*, and order *intumescencie* of Cullen, and is always incurable.

HYDROSARCA, (*Hydrosarca*, *α*, f. *υδροσαρκα*, from *υδωρ*, water, and *σαρξ*, the flesh). Water in the cellular membrane. See *Anasarca*.

HYDROSARCOCELE, (*Hydrosarcocele*, *ες*, f. *υδροσαρκοκηλη*, from *υδωρ*, water, *σαρξ*, the flesh, and *κηλη*, a tumour). Sarcocoele, with an infusion of water into the cellular membrane.

HYDRO-SULHURET. See *Hepatic air*.

HYDRŌSULPHURĒTUM STIBĪ LUTEUM. See *Sulphur antimonii præcipitatum*.

HYDRŌSULPHURĒTUM STIBĪ RUBRUM. *Kermes mineralis*. This sulphuret of antimony was formerly in high estimation as an expectorant, sudorific, and antispasmodic, in difficult respiration, rheumatism, diseases of the skin and glands.

HYDROTHŌRAX, (*Hydrothorax*, *ἄσις*, m. *υδροθώραξις*, from *υδωρ*, water,

and *θώραξ*, the chest). *Hydrops thoracis*. *Hydrops pectoris*. A genus of disease in the class *cachexia* and order *intumescencia* of Cullen, known by dyspnoea, paleness of face, œdematous swelling of the legs, scarcity of urine, impatience of an horizontal situation, a sense of weight and tightness across the chest, sudden startings from sleep, and palpitations of the heart.

HYGIENE, (*Hygiene*, es, f. *ὑγιεινή*, from *ὑγιαίνω*, to be well). Modern physicians have applied this term to that division of *therapia* which treats of the diet of the sick and the non-naturals.

HYGROLOGY, (*Hygrolōgia*, æ, f. *υγρολογία*, from *ὑγρός*, a humour or fluid, and *λόγος*, a discourse). The doctrine of the fluids.

HYGRŌMA, (*Hygroma*, ātis, n. *υγρωμα*, from *ὑγρός*, a liquid). An encysted tumour, whose contents are either serum or a fluid like lymph. It sometimes happens that these tumours are filled with hydatids. Hygromatous tumours require the removal of the cyst, or the destruction of its secreting surface.

HYMEN, (*Hymen*, ēnis, m. *ἵμην*, from *Hymen*, the god of marriage, because this membrane is supposed to be entire before marriage or copulation). The hymen is a thin membrane of a semilunar or circular form, placed at the entrance of the vagina, which it partly closes. It has a very different appearance in different women, but it is generally, if not always, found in virgins, and is very properly esteemed the test of virginity, being ruptured in the first act of coition; and the remnants of the hymen are called the *carunculæ myrtiformes*. The hymen is also peculiar to the human species. There are two circumstances relating to the hymen which require medical assistance. It is sometimes of such a strong ligamentous texture that it cannot be ruptured, and prevents the connection between the sexes. It is

also sometimes imperforated, wholly closing the entrance into the vagina, and preventing any discharge from the uterus; but both these cases are extremely rare. If the hymen be of an unnaturally firm texture, but perforated, though perhaps with a very small opening, the inconveniencies thence arising will not be discovered before the time of marriage, when they may be removed by a crucial incision made through it, taking care not to injure the adjoining parts.

But the imperforation of the hymen will produce its inconveniencies when the person begins to menstruate. For the menstruous blood, being secreted from the uterus at each period, and not evacuated, the patient suffers much pain from the distention of the parts, many strange symptoms and appearances are occasioned, and suspicions injurious to her reputation are often entertained. In a case of this kind, for which Dr. Denman was consulted, the young woman, who was twenty-two years of age, having many uterine complaints, with the abdomen enlarged, was suspected to be pregnant, though she persevered in asserting the contrary, and had never menstruated. When she was prevailed upon to submit to an examination, the circumscribed tumour of the uterus was found to reach as high as the navel, and the external parts were stretched by a round soft substance at the entrance of the vagina, in such a manner as to resemble that appearance which they have when the head of a child is passing through them: but there was no entrance into the vagina. On the following morning an incision was carefully made through the hymen, which had a fleshy appearance, and was thickened in proportion to its distention. Not less than four pounds of blood, of the colour and consistence of tar, were discharged; and the tumefaction of the abdomen was immediately re-

moved. Several stellated incisions were afterwards made through the divided edges, which is a very necessary part of the operation; and care was taken to prevent a re-union of the hymen till the next period of menstruation, after which she suffered no inconvenience. The blood discharged was not putrid or coagulated, and seemed to have undergone no other change, after its secretion, but what was occasioned by the absorption of its more fluid parts. Some caution is required when the hymen is closed in those who are in advanced age, unless the membrane be distended by the confined menses; as the above writer once saw an instance of inflammation of the peritonæum being immediately produced after the operation, of which the patient died as in the true puerperal fever, and no other reason could be assigned for the disease.

The carunculæ myrtiformes, by their elongation and enlargement, sometimes become very painful and troublesome.

HYMENÆA COURBARIL, (*Hymenæa*, corrupted *anime*, or *animea*). The systematic name of the tree which affords the resin anime. See *Anime*.

HYO. Names compounded of this word belong to muscles which originate from, or are inserted into, or connected with the os hyoides; as, *Hyo-glossus*, *Hyo-pharyngeus*, *Genio-hyo-glossus*, &c.

HYOIDES OS, (*Hyoides*, *ὑοειδης*, from the Greek letter *υ*, and *ειδος*, likeness, so named from its resemblance). This bone, which is situated between the root of the tongue and the larynx, derives its name from its supposed resemblance to the Greek letter *υ*, and is by some writers described along with the parts contained in the mouth. Ruysch has seen the ligaments of the bone so completely ossified, that the os hyoides was joined to

the temporal bones by anchylosis. In describing this bone, it may be distinguished into its body, horns, and appendices. The body is the middle and broadest part of the bone, so placed, that it may be easily felt with the finger in the fore part of the throat. Its fore part, which is placed towards the tongue, is irregularly convex, and its inner surface, which is turned towards the larynx, is unequally concave. The *cornua*, or horns, which are flat and a little bent, are considerably longer than the body of the bone, and may be said to form the sides of the *υ*. These horns are thickest near the body of the bone. At the extremity of each is observed a round tubercle, from which a ligament passes to the thyroid cartilage. The appendices, or lesser horns, *cornua minora*, as they are called by some writers, are two small processes, which in their size and shape are somewhat like a grain of wheat. They rise up from the articulations of the cornua with the body of the bone, and are sometimes connected with the styloid process on each side by means of a ligament. It is not unusual to find small portions of bone in these ligaments; and Ruysch, as we have already observed, has seen them completely ossified. In the fœtus, almost the whole of the bone is in a cartilaginous state, excepting a small point of bone in the middle of its body, and in each of its horns. The appendices do not begin to appear till after birth, and usually remain cartilaginous many years. The os hyoides serves to support the tongue, and affords attachment to a variety of muscles, some of which perform the motions of the tongue, while others act on the larynx and fauces.

HYO-GLOSSUS. *Cerato-glossus* of Douglas. *Basio-cerato-chondro-glossus* of Albinus. A muscle situated at the side, between the os hyoides and the tongue. It arises from the basis, but

chiefly from the corner of the os hyoides, running laterally and forwards to the tongue, which it pulls inwards and downwards.

HYOPHARYNGÆUS, (*υποφάρυγγιος*; from *υοειδης*, the hyoid bone, and *φάρυγξ*, the pharynx). A muscle so called from its origin in the os hyoides, and its insertion in the pharynx.

HYOSCĪAMUS, (*Hyosciamus*, i. m. *υοσκιανος*; from *υς*, a swine, and *κιανος*, a bean, so named because hogs eat it as a medicine, or it may be because the plant is hairy and bristly like a swine). *Faba suilla*. Henbane. Hog's bean. *Hyosciamus niger*, *foliis amplexicaulibus sinuatis, floribus sessilibus* of Linnæus. Class *Petandria*. Order *Monogynia*. The smell of this indigenous plant is strong and peculiar: the leaves, when bruised, emit somewhat of the odour of tobacco: to the taste they are mild and mucilaginous. Henbane is a powerful narcotic poison, and many instances of its deleterious effects are recorded by different authors. Nevertheless, the extract of the seeds, under proper management, may be safely employed; and it has this advantage over narcotics in general, that it never renders the bowels costive, but, on the contrary, gently opens them.

HYOSCĪAMUS ALBUS. This plant, a native of the south of Europe, possesses similar virtues to the *hyosciamus niger*. See *Hyosciamus*.

HYOSCĪAMUS NIGER. The systematic name of henbane. See *Hyosciamus*.

HYPERĪCUM, (*Hypericum*, i. n. *υπερικον*; from *υπερ*, over, and *εικον*, an image or spectre; so named because it was thought to have power over and to drive away evil spirits). *Hypericum*. St. John's wort. *Hypericum perforatum* of Linnæus. *Hypericum floribus trigynis, caule ancipiti, foliis obtusis pellucido-punctatis*. Class *Polya-*

delphia. Order *Polyandria*. This indigenous plant was greatly esteemed by the ancients, but is now very rarely used. The London Pharmacopœia retains the flowers on account of the great proportion of resinous oily matter, in which the medical efficacy of the plant is supposed to reside.

HYPERĪCUM PERFORĀTUM. The systematic name of the St. John's wort. See *Hypericum*.

HYPEROSTOSIS, (*Hyperostosis*, is, f. *υπεροσωση*; from *υπερ*, upon, and *οσσειν*, a bone). See *Exostosis*.

HYPNOTICS, (*Hypnotica*, sc. *medicamenta*, *υπνωτικα*; from *υπνος*, to sleep). See *Anodynes*.

HYPOÆMA, (*Hypoæma*, ætis, n. *υποαιμα*; from *υπο*, under, and *αιμα*, blood, because the blood is under the cornea). An effusion of red blood into the chambers of the eye.

HYPOCHONDRIAC REGIONS, (*Regiones hypochondriacæ*, from *υπο*, under, and *χονδρος*, a cartilage). They are situated one on each side of the epigastric region, being the spaces in the abdomen that are under the cartilages of the spurious ribs.

HYPOCHONDRIĀSIS, (*Hypochondriasis*, is, f. *υποχονδριασις*; from *υποχονδριακος*, one who is hipped). Hypochondriac affections. A genus of disease in the class *neuroses* and order *adynamie* of Cullen; characterized by dyspepsia; languor and want of energy; dejection of mind, and apprehension of evil, more especially respecting health, without sufficient cause; with a melancholic temperament.

HYPOCISTIS, (*Hypocistes*, idis, f. *υποκιστις*; from *υπο*, under, and *κιστις*, the cistus.) See *Hypocistidis succus*.

HYPOCISTĪDIS SUCCUS. The juice of the *hypocistis*, a plant called by Linnæus *Asarum hypocistis*, a parasitical plant growing in warm climates, from the roots of the cistus,

The juice is a mild adstringent, of no particular smell nor flavour. It is seldom used.

HYPOGALA, (*Hypogala*, *α*, *f.* υπογαλα; from υπο, under, and γαλα, milk, because it is a milk-like effusion under the cornea). A collection of of white humour, like milk, in the chambers of the eye. There are two species of this disease: the one takes place, it is said, from a deposition of the milk, as is sometimes observed in women who suckle; the other, from the depression of the milky cataract.

HYPOGASTRIC ARTERIES. *Arteria hypogastrica*. See *Iliac arteries*.

HYPOGASTRIC REGION, (*Regio hypogastrica*, from υπο, under, and γαστε, the stomach). The region of the abdomen that reaches from above the pubis to within three fingers breadth of the navel.

HYPOPIUM, (*Hypopium*, *i*, *n.* υποπιον; from υπο, under, and πους, pus; because the pus is under the cornea). A collection of pus in the anterior or posterior chamber, or both chambers of the eye. The proximate cause of this disease is a preceding inflammation of the iris or uvea, an abscess or ulcer of the cornea. It is known by inspecting the eye: a white moveable liquid appears, occupying the chambers of the eye; the iris is partly or totally imperceptible, obscuring totally or partially the sight.

HYPOTHESIS, (*Hypothesis*, *is*, *vel* *eor*, *f.*). A system of general rules, founded partly on fact and partly on conjecture. A theory explains every fact: an hypothesis explains only a certain number of facts, leaving some unaccounted for, and others in opposition to it.

HYSSOP. See *Hyssopus*.

HYSSOP, HEDGE. See *Gratiola*.

HYSSOPUS, (*Hyssopus*, *i*, *m.* υσσοπος; from Azob, Heb). Common hyssop. *Hyssopus officinalis* of Linnæus. *Hyssopus, spicis secundis*,

foliis lanceolatis. Class *Didynamia*. Order *Gymnospermia*. This exotic plant is esteemed as an aromatic and stimulant, but is chiefly employed as a pectoral, and has long been thought useful in humoral asthmas, coughs, and catarrhal affections; for this purpose an infusion of the leaves, sweetened with honey or sugar, is recommended to be drank as tea.

HYSSÖPUS OFFICINÄLIS. The systematic name of the common hyssop. See *Hyssopus*.

HYSTERIA, (*Hysteria*, *α*, *f.* υστερια; from υστερον, the womb). Hysterics. Hysterical passion. A genus of disease in the class *neuroses*, and order *spasmi* of Cullen. It is characterized by a grumbling noise in the belly; a ball ascending to the throat, with a sense of suffocation: stupor; insensibility and convulsions; involuntary laughing and crying; sleep interrupted by sighs; urine limpid and abundant, previous to the fit; and great sensibility and irritability of the mind. There are four species: 1. *Hysteria chlorotica*, from a retention of the menses. 2. *Hysteria à menorrhagia*, from an immoderate flow of the menses. 3. *Hysteria à leucorrhæa*, from the fluor albus. 4. *Hysteria libidinosa*, from sensual desires.

HYSTERIC PASSION. See *Hysterical*.

HYSTEROTOMY, (*Hysterotomia*, *α*, *f.* υστεροτομία; from υστερον, the womb, and τεμνω, to cut). See *Cæsarian section*.

HYSTRICIASIS, (*Hystriciasis*, *is*, *f.* υστρικιασις; from υστριξ, a hedge-hog, or porcupine). A disease of the hairs, in which they stand erect, like porcupine quills. An account of this rare disease is to be seen in the *Philosophical Transactions*, No. 424.

HYSTRICIS LAPIS. See *Bezoar porcinum*.

HYSTRITIS, (*Hystritis*, *idis*, *f.* υστριτις; from υστερα, the womb). Me-

tritis. An inflammation of the womb. A genus of disease in the class *pyrexia* and order *phlegmasiæ* of Cullen; characterized by pyrexia, heat, tension,

tumour, and pain in the region of the womb, pain in the os uteri when touched, and vomiting.

I.

I C

IBERIS, (*Iberis*, f. *Ἰβερικὴ*, or *Ἰβερική*; so named from Iberia, the place of its natural growth). *Cardimantica*. *Lepidium iberis* of Linnæus. *Sciatica cresses*. This plant possesses a warm penetrating pungent taste like unto other cresses, and is recommended as an antiscorbutic, antiseptic, and stomachic.

ICE. *Glacies*. Water made solid by the application of cold. It is frequently applied by surgeons to resolve external inflammatory diseases.

ICHOR, (*Ichor*, *oris*, m. *ἰχρὸς*). A thin, aqueous, and acrid discharge.

ICHTHYŌCŌLLA, *Ichthyocolla*, *♀*. f. *ἰχθυόκολλα*: from *ἰχθυς*, a fish, and *κολλα*, glue). *Colla piscium*. *Isinglass*. *Fish-glue*. A substance, partly gelatinous, and partly lymphatic, which is prepared by rolling up the air bladder of the *Accipenser sturio* of Linnæus, and several other fishes, and drying it in the air, after it has been twisted into the form of a short cord, as we receive it. It affords a viscid jelly by ebullition in water, which is used in medicine as an emollient in disorders of the throat, intestines, &c.

ICHTHYŌSIS, (*Ichthyosis*, *is*, f. *ἰχθυώσις*; from *ἰχθυς*, the scale of a fish, from the resemblance of the scales to those of a fish). A genus

I C

of disease of the second order of Dr. Willan's diseases of the skin. The characteristic of ichthyosis is a permanently harsh, dry, scaly, and in some cases, almost horny texture of the integuments of the body, unconnected with internal disorder. *Psooriasis* and *Lepra* differ from this affection, in being but partially diffused, and in having deciduous scales. The arrangement and distribution of the scales in ichthyosis are peculiar. Above and below the olecranon on the arm, says Dr. Willan, and in a similar situation with respect to the patella on the thigh and leg, they are small, rounded, prominent, or papillary, and of a black colour; some of the scaly papillæ have a short narrow neck, and broad irregular tops. On some part of the extremities, and on the trunk of the body, the scales are flat and large, often placed like tiling, or in the same order as scales on the back of a fish; but in a few cases they have appeared separate, being intersected by whitish furrows. There is usually in this complaint a dryness and roughness of the soles of the feet; sometimes a thickened and brittle state of the skin in the palms of the hands, with large painful fissures, and on the face an appearance of the scurf rather than of scales. The inner part of the wrists, the hams, the inside of the elbow, the

furrow along the spine, the inner and upper part of the thigh, are perhaps the only portions of the skin always exempt from the scabiness. Patients affected with ichthyosis are occasionally much harassed with inflamed pustules, or with large painful boils on different parts of the body: it is also remarkable, that they never seem to have the least perspiration or moisture of the skin. This disease did not, in any case present to Dr. Willan, appear to have been transmitted hereditarily; nor was more than one child from the same parents affected with it. Dr. Willan never met with an instance of the horny rigidity of the integuments, *Ichthyosis cornea*, impeding the motion of the muscles or joints. It is however mentioned by authors as affecting the lips, prepuce, toes, fingers, &c. and sometimes as extended over nearly the whole body.

ICTERUS, (*Icterus*, *i*, m. *ικτερος*, named from its likeness to the plumage of the golden thrush, of which Pliny relates, that if a jaundiced person looks on one, the bird dies and the patient recovers). The jaundice. A genus of disease in the class *cachexia* and order *impetiginosæ* of Cullen; characterized by yellowness of the skin and eyes; feces white; and urine of a high colour. Species: *Icterus calculosus*, acute pain in the epigastric region, increasing after eating; gall-stones pass by stool. 2. *Icterus spasmodicus*, without pain, after spasmodic diseases and passions of the mind. 3. *Icterus mucosus*, without either pain, gall-stones, or spasm, and relieved by the discharge of tough phlegm by stool. 4. *Icterus hepaticus*, from an induration of the liver. 5. *Icterus gravidarum*, from pregnancy, and disappearing after delivery. 6. *Icterus infantum*, of infants.

IDIOPATHIC, (*Idiopathicus*, *ιδιοπαθικός*, from *ιδιος*, peculiar, and *πάθος*, an affection). A disease which does

not depend on any other disease; in which respect it is opposed to a symptomatic disease, which is dependant on another.

IDIOSYNCRASY, (*Idiosyncrasia*, *ε*, f. *ιδιοσυγκρασία*, from *ιδιος*, peculiar, *συν*, with, and *κρσις*, a temperament). A peculiarity of constitution, in which a person is affected by certain stimuli, which, if applied to a hundred other persons would produce no effect: thus some people cannot see a finger bleed without fainting; and thus violent inflammation is induced on the skin of some persons by substances that are perfectly innocent to others.

IGNATIA AMARA. The systematic name of the plant which affords St. Ignatius's bean. See *Faba indica*.

IGNATII FABÆ. See *Faba indica*.

IGNATIUS'S BEAN. See *Faba indica*.

IKAN RADIX. A somewhat oval, oblong, compressed root, brought from China. It is extremely rare, and would appear to be the root of the orchis tribe.

ILEUM, (*Ileum*, *i*, n. *ειλεον*, from *ειλεω*, to roll about, from its convolutions).

Ileum intestinum. The last portion of the small intestines, about fifteen hands breadth in length, which terminates at the valve of the cæcum. See *Intestines*.

ILEX AQUIFOLIUM. The systematic name of the common holly. See *Aquifolium*.

ILIA, (The plural of *Ile*, *εἰλη*). The flanks, or that part in which is enclosed the small intestines.

ILIAC ARTERIES. *Arteriæ iliacæ*. The arteries so called are formed by the bifurcation of the aorta, near the last lumbar vertebra. They are divided into *internal* and *external*. The *internal iliac*, also called the *hypogastric artery*, is distributed in the fœtus into six, and in the adult into five branches, which are divided about the pelvis, viz. the little iliac, the gluteal, the ischiatic, the pudical,

and the obturatory ; and in the fœtus the umbilical. The *external iliac* proceeds out of the pelvis through Poupart's ligament to form the femoral artery.

ILIAC PASSION, (*εἰλεός, ἰλεό, εἰλεῖδος*, is described as a kind of nervous colic, whose seat is the ilium). *Passio iliaca. Volvulus*. A violent vomiting, in which the fœcal portion of the food is voided by the mouth.

ILIAC REGION. The hypogastric region.

ILIACUS INTERNUS. This is a thick, broad, and radiated muscle, which is situated in the pelvis, upon the inner surface of the ilium. It arises fleshy from the inner lip of the ilium, from most of the hollow part, and likewise from the edge of that bone, between its anterior superior spinous process and the acetabulum. It joins with the psoas magnus, where it begins to become tendinous, and passing under the ligamentum Fallopii, is inserted in common with that muscle. The tendon of this muscle has been seen distinct from that of the psoas, and, in some subjects it has been found divided into two portions. The iliacus internus serves to assist the psoas magnus in bending the thigh, and in bringing it directly forwards.

ILIUM OS, (*Ilium, i, n.* from *ilia*, the small intestines, so named because it supports the *ilia*). The haunch bone. The superior portion of the os innominatum, which, in the fœtus, is a distinct bone. See *Innominatum os*.

ILLECEBRA, (*Illecebra, æ, f.* from *εἰλεω*, to turn, because its leaves resemble worms). *Vermicularis. Piper murale. Sedum minus*. Wall pepper. Stone crop. This species of sedum, *Sedum acre* of Linnæus, in its recent state, is extremely acrid, like the hydropiper ; hence, if taken in large doses, it acts powerfully on the primæ viæ, proving both emetic and cathartic ; applied to the skin as

a cataplasm, it frequently produces vesications and erosions. Boerhaave therefore imagines that its internal employment must be unsafe ; but experience has discovered, that a decoction of this plant is not only safe but of great efficacy in scorbutic complaints. For which purpose, a handful of the herb is directed by Below to be boiled in eight pints of beer till they are reduced to four, of which three or four ounces are to be taken every, or every other morning. Milk has been found to answer this purpose better than beer. Not only ulcers simply scorbutic, but those of a scrophulous, and even cancerous tendency, have been cured by the use of this plant ; of which Marquet relates several instances. He likewise found it useful as an external application in destroying fungous flesh, and in promoting a discharge in gangrenes and carbuncles. Another effect for which this plant is esteemed, is that of stopping intermittent fevers.

ILICIUM ANISATUM. The systematic name of the plant whose seeds are called the star aniseed. See *Anisum stellatum*.

IMPĒRATORĪA, (*Imperatoria, æ, f.* from *impero*, to overcome ; so named because its leaves extend and overwhelm the lesser herbs which grow near it). *Magistrantia*. Master wort. *Imperatoria ostruthium* of Linnæus. Class *Petandria*. Order *Monogynia*. The roots of this plant are imported from the Alps and Pyrenees, notwithstanding it is indigenous to this island : they have a fragrant smell, and a bitterish pungent taste. The plant, as its name imports, was formerly thought to be of singular efficacy ; and its great success, it is said, caused it to be distinguished by the name of *divinum remedium*. At present it is considered merely as an aromatic, and consequently is superseded by many of that class which possess superior qualities.

IMPERATORIA OSTRUTHIUM. The systematic name of the masterwort. See *Imperatoria*.

IMPETIGINES, (*Impetigo, gñis, f.* from *impeto*, to infect). An order in the class *cachexia* of Cullen, characterized by cachexia, deforming the external parts of the body with tumours, eruptions, &c.

IMPETIGO, (*Impetigo, gñis, f.*). This affection, as described by authors, is a disease in which several red, hard, dry, prurient spots arise in the face and neck, and sometimes all over the body, and disappear by furfuraceous or tender scales.

IMPREGNATION. See *Conception* and *Generation*.

INCISIVUS INFERIOR. See *Levator labii inferioris*.

INCISIVUS LATERALIS. See *Levator labii superioris alaeque nasi*.

INCISIVUS MEDIUS. See *Depressor labii superioris alaeque nasi*.

INCISORS, (*Dentes incisores*, from *incido*, to cut, from their use in cutting the food). The four front teeth of both jaws are so called, because they cut the food. See *Teeth*.

INCUBUS, (*Incubus, i, m.* from *incubo*, to lie upon, because the patient fancies that something lies upon his chest). See *Night mare*, and *Oneirodynia gravans*.

INCUS, (*Incus, ūdis, f.* a smith's anvil, from *incudo*, to smite upon; so named from its likeness in shape to an anvil). The largest and strongest of the bones of the ear in the tympanum. It is divided into a body and two crura. Its body is situated anteriorly, is rather broad than thick, and has two eminences and two depressions, both covered with cartilage, and intended for the reception of the head of the malleus. Its shorter crus extends no farther than the cells of the mastoid apophysis. Its longer crus, together with the manubrium of the malleus, to which it is connected by a ligament, is of the same

extent as the shorter, but its extremity is curved inwards to receive the os orbiculare, by the intervention of which it is united with the stapes.

INDEX, (*Index, ūdis, c. g.* from *indico*, to point out, because it is generally used for such purposes.) The fore finger.

INDIAN CRESS. See *Nasturtium indicum*.

INDIAN DATE PLUM. The fruit of the *Diospyros lotus* of Linnæus. When ripe it has an agreeable taste, and is very nutritious.

INDIAN LEAF. See *Cassia lignea*.

INDIAN PINK. See *Spigelia*.

INDIAN RUBBER. The substance known by the names Indian rubber, Elastic gum, Cayenne resin, Caoutchuc, and by the French Caoutchouc, is prepared from the juice of the *Siphonia elastica, foliis ternatis elleptifis integerrimis subius canis longe peliolatis*. Suppl. plant. The manner of obtaining this juice is by making incisions through the bark of the lower part of the trunk of the tree, from which the fluid resin issues in great abundance, appearing of a milky whiteness as it flows into the vessel placed to receive it, and into which it is conducted by means of a tube or leaf fixed in the incision, and supported with clay. On exposure to the air this milky juice gradually inspissates into a soft, reddish, elastic resin. It is formed by the Indians in South America into various figures, but is commonly brought to Europe in that of spear-shaped bottles, which are said to be formed by spreading the juice of the *Siphonia* over a proper mould of clay; as soon as one layer is dry another is added, until the bottle be of the thickness desired. It is then exposed to a thick dense smoke, or to a fire, until it becomes so dry as not to stick to the fingers, when by means of certain instruments of iron or wood it is ornamented on the outside with various figures. This being done,

it remains only to pick out the mould, which is easily effected by softening it with water. Indian rubber may be subjected to the action of some of the most powerful menstrua, without suffering the least change, while its pliability and elasticity are eminently peculiar to itself. Its proper menstruum is known to some persons in England, who keep it a profound secret, and prepare the gum into beautiful catheters, bougies, syringes, pessaries, &c.

INDIAN WHEAT. See *Zea mays*.

INDICATION, (*Indicatio, onis*, f. from *indico*, to shew). An indication is that which demonstrates in a disease what ought to be done. It is threefold: preservative, which preserves health: curative, which expels a present disease; and vital, which respects the powers and reasons of diet. The scope from which indications are taken or determined is comprehended in this distich:

—*Ars, ætas, regio, complexio, virtus,
Mos et symptoma, repletio, tempus et
usus.*

INDICATOR, (*Indicator, ōris*, m. from *indico*, to point; so named from its office of extending the index or fore finger). *Extensor indicis. Extensor secundi internodii indicis, proprius vulgo indicator* of Douglas. An extensor muscle of the fore finger, situated chiefly on the lower and posterior part of the fore arm. It arises by an acute fleshy beginning from the middle of the posterior part of the ulna, its tendon passes under the same ligament with the extensor digitorum communis, with part of which it is inserted into the posterior part of the fore-finger.

INFECTION. See *Contagion*.

INFLAMMABLE BODIES. Chemists distinguish by this term such bodies of the mineral kingdom only as burn with facility, and flame in an increased temperature.

INFLAMMATION, (*Inflammatio, onis*, f. from *inflammo*, to burn). *Phlogosis*. A genus of disease in the class *pyrexia*, and order *phlegmasiæ* of Cullen: characterized by redness, heat, pain, and tumour on the surface of the body. There are two species: 1. *Phlegmone*, known by inflammation of a bright red colour; tumour pointed, throbbing, and tending to suppuration. 2. *Erythema*, which is inflammation of a dull red colour, vanishing upon pressure, spreading unequally, with a burning pain, and tumour scarcely perceptible, ending in desquamation, or vesicles of the skin. *Phlogosis* often terminates in abscess, gangrene, or scirrhus.

INFLUENZA, (*Influenza, a*, f. Ital. so named because it was supposed to be produced by a peculiar influence of the stars). A species of Catarrh. See *Catarrhus à contagione*.

INFUNDIBULUM, (*Infundibulum, i*, n. from *infundo*, to pour in). A canal that proceeds from the vulva of the brain to the pituitary gland in the sella turcica. It is sometimes imper-vious.

INFUSING. *Infusio*. A process that consists in pouring water of any required degree of temperature on such substances as have a loose texture, as thin bark, wood in shavings, or small pieces, leaves, flowers, &c. and suffering it to stand a certain time. The liquor obtained by the above process is called an *infusion*.

INFUSION, (*Infusum, i*, n. from *infundo*, to pour in). A medicated liquor, formed by pouring either boiling, warm, or cold water on the substance to be infused.

INFUSUM CATĒCHU. A very useful mode of exhibiting the catechu in cases of diarrhæa, dysentery, fluor albus, and relaxation of the stomach. It may be given to children when they refuse the more nauseous remedies.

**INFŪSUM GENTIĀNÆ COMPO-
SĪTUM.** A very useful tonic and
stomachic bitter, to which other
medicines may be added to answer
particular indications. In cardialgia
arising from relaxation of the vessels
separating the gastric juice; in cases
where there is a want of appetite and
a deficiency of bile, it may be given
with advantage, and in all cases
where stomachic tonics are indi-
cated.

INFŪSUM RHÆI. A very mild
preparation of rhubarb, which may
be exhibited with success as a purga-
tive to the delicate, and those whose
bowels are easily acted on.

INFŪSUM ROSÆ. A most useful
medicine. As a common drink it
cures scarlatina of children, proving
antiseptic and gently aperient.

INFŪSUM SENNÆ SIMPLEX. A
useful vehicle for other purgative
medicines.

**INFŪSUM SENNÆ TARTĀRISĀ-
TUM.** A useful cooling aperient.

**INFŪSUM TAMARINDŌRUM CUM
SENNÆ.** A grateful cooling ape-
rient.

INGLUVIES, (*Ingluvies, ei, f.*),
The craw, crop, or gorge of a bird.
Also gluttony.

INGUEN, (*Inguen, inis, n.*). The
groin. The lower and lateral part
of the abdomen above the thigh.

INGUINAL LIGAMENT. See
Poupart's ligament.

INJECTION, (*Injectio, onis, f.*)
A medicated liquor to throw into a
natural or preternatural cavity of the
body by means of a syringe.

INNOMINĀTA ANTĒRĪA. The
first branch given off by the arch of
the aorta. It soon divides into the
right carotid and right subclavian
arteries.

INNOMINĀTUM OS, (*Innominatus,*
from *in*, priv. and *nomen*, a name; so
called because the three bones of
which it originally was formed grew
together, and formed one complete

bone, which was then left nameless.)
A large irregular bone, situated at the
side of the pelvis. It is divided into
three portions, viz. the iliac, ischiatic,
and pubic, which are usually describ-
ed as three distinct bones.

The os ilium, or haunch bone, is
of a very irregular shape. The lower
part of it is thick and narrow; its
superior portion is broad and thin,
terminating in a ridge, called the
spine of the ilium, and more common-
ly known by the name of *the haunch*.
This spine rises up like an arch,
being turned somewhat outward,
and from this appearance, the upper
part of the pelvis, when viewed toge-
ther, has not been improperly com-
pared to the wings of a phaeton.
This spine, in the recent subject,
appears as if tipped with cartilage;
but this appearance is nothing more
than the tendinous fibres of the mus-
cles that are inserted into it. Exter-
nally, this bone is unequally promi-
nent, and hollowed for the attach-
ment of muscles; and internally, at
its broadest fore part, it is smooth
and concave. At its lower part there
is a considerable ridge on its inner
surface. This ridge, which extends
from the os sacrum, and corresponds
with a similar prominence, both on
that bone and the ischium, forms,
with the inner part of the ossa pubis,
what is called the brim of the pelvis.
The whole of the internal surface,
behind this ridge, is very unequal.
The os ilium has likewise a smaller
surface posteriorly, by which it is
articulated to the sides of the os sa-
crum. This surface has by some been
compared to a human ear, and by
others to the head of a bird; but
neither of these comparisons seem to
convey any just idea of its form or
appearance. Its upper part is rough
and porous; lower down it is more
solid. It is firmly united to the os
sacrum by a cartilaginous substance,
and likewise by very strong ligamen-

toys fibres, which are extended to that bone from the whole circumference of this irregular surface. The spine of this bone, which is originally an epiphysis, has two considerable tuberosities, one anteriorly, and the other posteriorly, which is the largest of the two. The ends of this spine too, from their projecting more than the parts of the bone below them, are called spinal processes. Before the anterior spinal process the spine is hollowed, where part of the Sartorius muscle is placed, and below the posterior spinal process there is a very large niche in the bone, which, in the recent subject, has a strong ligament stretched over its lower part, from the os sacrum to the sharp-pointed process of the ischium; so that a great hole is formed, through which pass the great sciatic nerve and the posterior crural vessels under the pyriform muscle, part of which is likewise lodged in this hole. The lowest, thickest, and narrowest part of the ilium, in conjunction with the other two portions of each os innominatum, helps to form the acetabulum for the os femoris.

The os ischium, or hip-bone, which is the lowest of the three portions of each os innominatum, is of a very irregular figure, and usually divided into its body, tuberosity, and ramus. The body, externally, forms the inferior portion of the acetabulum, and sends a sharp-pointed process backwards, called the spine of the ischium. This is the process to which the ligament is attached, which was just now described as forming a great foramen for the passage of the sciatic nerve. The tuberosity is large and irregular, and is placed at the inferior part of the bone, giving origin to several muscles. In the recent subject it seems covered with a cartilaginous crust; but this appearance, as in the spine of the ilium, is nothing

more than the tendinous fibres of the muscles that are inserted into it. This tuberosity, which is the lowest portion of the trunk, supports us when we sit. Between the spine and the tuberosity is observed a sinuosity, covered with a cartilaginous crust, which serves as a pulley, on which the obturator muscle plays. From the tuberosity, the bone becoming narrower and thinner, forms the ramus or branch, which passing forwards and upwards, makes, with the ramus of the os pubis, a large hole of an oval shape, called the *foramen magnum ischii*, which affords, through its whole circumference, attachment to muscles. This foramen will be more particularly noticed in describing the os pubis.

The os pubis, or share bone, which is the smallest of the three portions of the os innominatum, is placed at the upper and fore part of the pelvis, where the two ossa pubis meet, and are united to each other by means of a very strong cartilage which constitutes what is called the *symphysis pubis*. Each os pubis may be divided into its body, angle, and ramus. The body, which is the outer part, is joined to the os ilium. The angle comes forward to form the symphysis, and the ramus is a thin apophysis, which, uniting with the ramus of the ischium, forms the *foramen magnum ischii*, or *thyroideum*, as it has been sometimes called, from its resemblance to a door or shield. This foramen is somewhat wider above than below, and its greatest diameter is, from above downwards, and obliquely from within outwards. In the recent subject it is almost completely closed by a strong fibrous membrane, called the *obturator* ligament. Upwards and outwards, where we observe a notch in the bone, the fibres of this ligament are separated, to allow a passage to the posterior crural nerve,

an artery, and vein. The great uses of this foramen seem to be to lighten the bones of the pelvis, and to afford a convenient lodgment to the obturator muscles. The three bones now described as constituting the os innominatum on each side, all concur to form the great acetabulum, or cotyloid cavity, which receives the head of the thigh bone; the os ilium and os ischium making each about two fifths, and the os pubis one fifth, of the cavity. This acetabulum, which is of considerable depth, is of a spherical shape. Its brims are high, and, in the recent subject, are tipped with cartilage. These brims, however, are higher above and externally, than they are internally and below, where we observe a notch in the bone (which is the ischium), across which is stretched a ligament, forming a hole for the transmission of blood-vessels and nerves to the cavity of the joint. The cartilage, which lines the acetabulum, is thickest at its circumference, and thinner within, where a little hole is to be observed in which are placed the apparatus that serves to lubricate the joint, and facilitate its motions. We are likewise able to discover the impression made by the internal ligament of the os femoris, which, by being attached both to this cavity and to the head of the os femoris, helps to secure the latter in the acetabulum. The bones of the pelvis serve to support the spine and upper parts of the body, to lodge the intestines, urinary bladder, and other viscera; and likewise to unite the trunk to the lower extremities. But besides these uses, they are destined, in the female subject, for other important purposes; and the accoucheur finds, in the study of these bones, the foundation of all midwifery knowledge. Several eminent writers are of opinion, that in difficult parturition, all the bones

of the pelvis undergo a certain degree of separation. It has been observed likewise, that the cartilage uniting the ossa pubis is thicker, and of a more spongy texture, in women than in men, and therefore more likely to swell and enlarge during pregnancy. That many instances of a partial separation of these bones during labour have happened there can be no doubt; such a separation, however, ought by no means to be considered as an uniform and salutary work of nature, as some writers seem to think, but as the effect of disease. But there is another circumstance, in regard to this part of Osteology, which is well worthy of attention; and this is, the different capacities of the pelvis in the male and female subject. It has already been observed, that the os sacrum is shorter and broader in women than in men; the ossa ilia are also found more expanded; whence it happens, that in women the center of gravity does not fall so directly on the upper part of the thigh as in men, and this seems to be the reason why, in general, they step with less firmness, and move their hips forwards in walking. From these circumstances also, the brim of the female pelvis is nearly of an oval shape, being considerably wider from side to side, than from the symphysis pubis to the os sacrum; whereas in man it is rounder, and every where of less diameter. The inferior opening of the pelvis is likewise proportionably larger in the female subject, the ossa ischia being more separated from each other, and the foramen ischii larger, so that, where the os ischium and os pubis are united together, they form a greater circle; the os sacrum is also more hollowed, though shorter, and the os coccygis more loosely connected, and therefore capable of a greater degree of motion than in men.

INOCULATION, (*Inoculatio*, from *inoculo*, to ingraft). The insertion of the variolous or vaccine matter under the skin, in order to communicate the small-pox or cow-pox. It is usually done in the arm or leg.

INSANĪA, (*Insania*, æ, f. from *in*, not, and *sanus*, sound). Insanity, or deranged imagination. A genus of disease in the class *neuroses* and order *vesaniae*, characterized by erroneous judgment from imaginary perceptions or recollections, attended with agreeable emotions in persons of a sanguine temperament.

INSPIRATION, (*Inspiratio, onis*, f.). The act of drawing the air into the lungs. See *Respiration*.

INTERCOSTAL ARTERIES. *Arteriae intercostales*. The superior intercostal artery is a branch of the subclavian. The other intercostal arteries are given off from the aorta.

INTERCOSTAL MUSCLES. *Intercostales externi et interni*. Between the ribs, on each side, are eleven double rows of muscles. These are the *intercostales externi* and *interni*. Galen has very properly observed, that they decussate each other like the strokes of the letter X. The *intercostales externi* arise from the lower edge of each superior rib, and, running obliquely downwards and forwards, are inserted into the upper edge of each inferior rib, so as to occupy the intervals of the ribs, from as far back as the spine to their cartilages; but from their cartilages to the sternum there is only a thin aponeurosis covering the internal intercostals. The *intercostales interni* arise and are inserted in the same manner as the external. They begin at the sternum, and extend as far as the angles of the ribs, their fibres running obliquely backwards. These fibres are spread over a considerable part of the inner surface of the ribs, so as to be longer than those of the external intercostals. Some of the posterior

portions of the internal intercostals pass over one rib and are inserted into the rib below. Verheyen first described these portions as separate muscles, under the name of *infra costales*. Winslow has adopted the same name. Cowper, and after him Douglas, calls them *costarum depressores proprii*. These distinctions, however, are altogether superfluous, as they are evidently nothing more than appendages of the intercostals. The number of these portions varies in different subjects. Most commonly there is only four, the first of which runs from the second rib to the fourth, the second from the third rib to the fifth, the third from the fourth rib to the sixth, and the fourth from the fifth rib to the seventh. The internal intercostals of the two inferior false ribs are frequently so thin, as to be with difficulty separated from the external; and, in some subjects, one or both of them seem to be altogether wanting. It was the opinion of the ancients, that the external intercostals serve to elevate, and the internal to depress the ribs. They were probably led to this opinion, by observing the different direction of their fibres; but it is now well known, that both have the same use, which is that of raising the ribs equally during inspiration. Fallopius was one of the first who ventured to call in question the opinion of Galen on this subject, by contending that both layers of the intercostals serve to elevate the ribs. In this opinion he was followed by Hieronymus Fabricius, our countryman Mayow, and Borelli. But, towards the close of the last century, Bayle, a writer of some eminence, and professor at Toulouse, revived the opinion of the ancients by the following arguments. He observed, that the oblique direction of the fibres of the internal intercostals is such, that, in each inferior rib, these fibres are nearer to the vertebræ than they are

at their superior extremities, or in the rib immediately above; and that, of course, they must serve to draw the rib downwards, as towards the most fixed point. This plausible doctrine was adopted by several eminent writers, and, amongst others, by Nicholls, Hoadley, and Schreiber; but, above all, by Hamberger, who went so far as to assert, that not only the ribs, but even the sternum, are pulled downwards by these muscles, and constructed a particular instrument to illustrate this doctrine. He pretended, likewise, that the intervals of the ribs are increased by their elevation, and diminished by their depression; but he allowed, that, while those parts of the internal intercostals that are placed between the bony part of the ribs pull them downwards, the anterior portions of the muscle, which are situated between the cartilages, concur with the external intercostals in raising them upwards. These opinions gave rise to a warm and interesting controversy, in which Hamberger and Haller were the principal disputants. The former argued chiefly from theory, and the latter from experiments on living animals, which demonstrate the fallacy of Hamberger's arguments, and prove beyond a doubt, that the internal intercostals perform the same functions as the external.

INTERCOSTAL NERVE. *Nervus intercostalis.* Great intercostal nerve. Sympathetic nerve. The great intercostal nerve arises in the cavity of the cranium from a branch of the sixth and one of the fifth pair, uniting into one trunk, which passes out of the cranium through the carotid canal, and descends by the sides of the bodies of the vertebræ of the neck, thorax, loins, and os sacrum: in its course it receives the small accessory branches from all the thirty pair of spinal nerves. In the neck it gives off three cervical ganglions, the upper, middle, and

lower; from which the cardiac and pulmonary nerves arise. In the thorax it gives off the splanchnic or anterior intercostal, which perforates the diaphragm, and forms the semilunar ganglions, from which nerves pass to all the abdominal viscera. They also form in the abdomen ten peculiar plexuses, distinguished by the name of the viscus to which they belong, as the cœliac, splenic, hepatic, superior, middle and lower mesenteric, two renal, and two spermatic plexuses. The posterior intercostal nerve gives accessory branches about the pelvis and ischiatic nerve, and at length terminates.

INTERCOSTAL VEINS. The intercostal veins empty their blood into the vena azygos.

INTERMITTENT FEVER. See *Febris intermittens*.

INTEROSSEI MANUS, (*Interosseus musculus*, from *inter*, between, and *os*, the bone). These are small muscles situated between the metacarpal bones, and extending from the bones of the carpus to the fingers. They are divided into *internal* and *external*; the former are to be seen only on the palm of the hand, but the latter are conspicuous both on the palm and back of the hand.—The *interossei interni* are three in number. The first, which Albinus names *posterior indicis*, arises tendinous and fleshy from the basis and inner part of the metacarpal bone of the fore finger, and likewise from the upper part of that which supports the middle-finger. Its tendon passes over the articulation of this part of these bones with the fore-finger, and uniting with the tendinous expansion that is sent off from the extensor digitorum communis, is inserted into the posterior convex surface of the first phalanx of that finger. The second and third, to which Albinus gives the names of *prior annularis*, and *interosseus auricularis*, arise, in the same manner, from the bases of the out-

sides of the metacarpal bones that sustain the ring-finger and the little-finger, and are inserted into the outside of the tendinous expansion of the extensor digitorum communis that covers each of those fingers. These three muscles draw the fingers, into which they are inserted, towards the thumb. The *interossei externi* are four in number, for among these is included the small muscle that is situated on the outside of the metacarpal bone that supports the fore-finger. Douglas calls it *extensor tertii internodii indicis*, and Winslow *semi interosseus indicis*. Albinus, who describes it among the interossei, gives it the name of *prior indicis*. This first interosseus externus arises by two tendinous and fleshy portions. One of these springs from the upper half of the inner side of the first bone of the thumb, and the other from the ligaments that unite the os trapezoides to the metacarpal bone of the fore-finger, and likewise from all the outside of this latter bone. These two portions unite as they descend, and terminate in a tendon, which is inserted into the outside of that part of the tendinous expansion from the extensor digitorum communis that is spread over the posterior convex surface of the fore-finger. The second, to which Albinus gives the name of *prior medii*, is not quite so thick as the last described muscle. It arises by two heads, one of which springs from the inner side of the metacarpal bone of the fore-finger, chiefly towards its convex surface, and the other arises from the adjacent ligaments, and from the whole outer side of the metacarpal bone that sustains the middle-finger. These two portions unite as they descend, and terminate in a tendon, which is inserted, in the same manner as the preceding muscle, into the outside of the tendinous expansion that covers the posterior part of the middle-finger. The third belongs

likewise to the middle-finger, and is therefore named *posterior medii* by Albinus. It arises, like the last-described muscle, by two origins, which spring from the roots of the metacarpal bones of the ring and middle-fingers, and from the adjacent ligaments, and is inserted into the inside of the same tendinous expansion as the preceding muscle. The fourth, to which Albinus gives the name of *posterior annularis*, differs from the two last only in its situation, which is between the metacarpal bones of the ring and little fingers. It is inserted into the inside of the tendinous expansion of the extensor digitorum communis that covers the posterior part of the ring-finger. All these four muscles serve to extend the fingers into which they are inserted, and likewise to draw them inwards, towards the thumb, except the third, or *posterior medii*, which, from its situation and insertion, is calculated to pull the middle-finger outwards.

INTEROSSEI PEDIS. These small muscles in their situation between the metatarsal bones resemble the interossei of the hand, and, like them, are divided into *internal* and *external*. The *interossei pedis interni* are three in number. They arise tendinous and fleshy from the basis and inside of the metatarsal bones of the middle, the third, and the little toes, in the same manner as those of the hand, and they each terminate in a tendon that runs to the inside of the first joint of these toes, and from thence to their upper surface, where it loses itself in the tendinous expansion that is sent off from the extensors. Each of these three muscles serves to draw the toe, into which it is inserted, towards the great-toe. The *interossei externi* are four in number. The first arises tendinous and fleshy from the outside of the root of the metatarsal bone of the great-toe, from the os cuneiforme in-

ternum, and from the root of the inside of the metatarsal bone of the fore-toe. Its tendon is inserted into the inside of the tendinous expansion that covers the back part of the toes. The second is placed in a similar manner between the metatarsal bones of the fore and middle-toes, and is inserted into the outside of the tendinous expansion on the back part of the fore-toe. The third and fourth are placed between the two next metatarsal bones, and are inserted into the outside of the middle and third-toes. The first of these muscles draws the fore-toe inwards towards the great-toe. The three others pull the toes, into which they are inserted, outwards. They all assist in extending the toes.

INTERSPINĀLES COLLĀ, (*Inter-spināles musculi*, from *inter*, between, and *spina*, the spine). The fleshy portions between the spinous processes of the neck, that draw these processes nearer to each other.

INTERSPINĀLES DORSI ET LUMBORUM. These are rather small tendons than muscles that connect the spinal and transverse processes.

INTERTRANSVERSĀLES LUMBORUM. Four distinct small bundles of flesh, which fill up the spaces between the transverse processes of the vertebræ of the loins, and serve to draw them towards each other.

INTERTRIGO, (*Inter-rigo, gñis*, f. from *inter*, between, and *tero*, to rub). An excoriation about the anus, groins, axilla, or other parts of the body, attended with inflammation and moisture. It is most commonly produced by the irritation of the urine, from riding, or some acrimony in children.

INTESTINES, (*Intestina, ōrum*, n. pl. from *intus*, within). The convoluted membranous tube that extends from the stomach to the anus; receives the ingested food, retains it a certain time; mixes with it the bile

and pancreatic juices; propels the chyle into the lacteals, and covers the fæces with mucus, is so called. They are situated in the cavity of the abdomen, and are divided into the small and large intestines, which have, besides their size, other circumstances of distinction. The small intestines are supplied internally with folds, called *valvulæ conniventes*, and have no bands on their external surface. The large intestines have no folds internally, and are supplied externally with three strong muscular bands, which run parallel upon the surface, and give the intestines a faccated appearance; and they have also small fatty appendages, called *appendiculæ epiploicæ*. The first portion of the intestinal tube, for about the extent of twelve fingers breadth, is called the *duodenum*; it lies in the epigastric region; makes three turnings, and between the first and second flexure receives, by a common opening, the pancreatic duct, and the *ductus communis choledochus*. It is in this portion of the intestines that chylication is chiefly performed. The remaining portion of the small intestines is distinguished by an imaginary division into the *jejunum* and *ileum*. The *jejunum*, which commences where the *duodenum* ends, is situated in the umbilical region, and is mostly found empty; hence its name: it is every where covered with red vessels, and about an hour and an half after a meal, with lacteals. The *ileum* occupies the hypogastric region and the pelvis; is of a more pallid colour than the former, and terminates by a transverse opening into the large intestines, which is called the *valve of the ileum*, *valve of the cæcum*, or the *valve of Tulpius*. The beginning of the large intestines is firmly tied down in the right iliac region, and for the extent of about four fingers breadth is called the *cæcum*, having adhering to it a worm-like process, called the *processus cæci*

vermiformis, or *appendicula caci vermiformis*. The great intestine then commences *colon*, ascends towards the liver, passes across the abdomen under the stomach to the left side, where it is contorted like the letter S, and descends to the pelvis; hence it is divided in this course into the *ascending portion*, the *transverse arch*, and the *sigmoid flexure*. When it has reached the pelvis it is called the *rectum*, from whence it proceeds in a straight line to the anus.

The intestinal canal is composed of three membranes or coats, a *common* one from the peritoneum, a *muscular coat*, and a *villous coat*, the villi being formed of the fine terminations of arteries and nerves, and the origins of lacteals and lymphatics. The intestines are connected to the body by the mesentery; the duodenum has also a peculiar connecting cellular substance, as has likewise the colon and rectum, by whose means the former is firmly accreted to the back, the colon to the kidneys, and the latter to the os coccygis, and, in women, to the vagina. The remaining portion of the tube is loose in the cavity of the abdomen. The arteries of this canal are branches of the *superior* and *inferior mesenteric*, and the *duodenal*. The veins evacuate their blood into the *vena portæ*. The nerves are branches of the eighth pair and intercostals. The *lacteal vessels*, which originate principally from the jejunum, proceed to the glands in the mesentery.

INTUS-SUSCEPTION, (*Intus-susceptio*, f. from *intus*, within, and *suscipio*, to receive). A disease of the intestinal tube, and most frequently of the small intestines; it consists in a portion of gut passing for some length within another portion.

INTYBUS, (*Intybus*, i, m. from *in*, and *tuba*, a hollow instrument so named from the hollowness of its stalk). See *Endivia*.

INŪLA, (*Inula*, æ, f. contracted

or corrupted from *helenium*, ἑλενιον, fabled to have sprung from the tears of Helen). The herb elecampane.

INŪLA, COMMON. See *Enula campana*.

INŪLA DYSENTERICA. The systematic name of the lesser inula. See *Conyza media*.

INŪLA HELENIUM. The systematic name of the elecampane. See *Enula campana*.

IPECACŪANHA, (*Ipecacuanba*, æ, f. Indian). Ipecacuan. The plant from which this valuable root is obtained, was long unknown; it was said by some writers to be the *Psychotria emetica*; class *Pentandria*; order *Monogynia*: by others, the *Viola ipecacuanba*, a syngenetic plant of the order monogynia. It is now ascertained to be neither, but a small plant called *Callicocca ipecacuanba*. There are three sorts of ipecacuan to be met with in our shops, viz. the ash-coloured or grey, the brown, and the white. The ash-coloured is brought from Peru, and is a small wrinkled root, bent and contorted into a great variety of figures, brought over in short pieces, full of wrinkled and deep circular fissures, down to a small white woody fibre that runs in the middle of each piece: the cortical part is compact, brittle, looks smooth and resinous upon breaking: it has very little smell; the taste is bitterish and subacid, covering the tongue as it were with a kind of mucilage. The brown is small, somewhat more wrinkled than the foregoing; of a brown or blackish colour without, and white within: this is brought from Brazil. The white sort is woody, has no wrinkles, nor any perceptible bitterness in taste. The first, the ash-coloured or grey ipecacuan, is that usually preferred for medicinal use. The brown has been sometimes observed, even in a small dose, to produce violent effects. The white, though taken in a large

one, has scarce any effect at all. Experience has proved that this medicine is the safest emetic with which we are acquainted, having this peculiar advantage, that if it does not operate by vomit, it readily passes off by the other emunctories. *Ipecacuan* was first introduced as an infallible remedy against dysenteries and other inveterate fluxes, as diarrhoea, menorrhagia, leucorrhoea, &c. and also in disorders proceeding from obstructions of long standing; nor has it lost much of its reputation by time: its utility in these cases is thought to depend upon its restoring perspiration. It has also been successfully employed in spasmodic asthma, catarrhal and consumptive cases. Nevertheless its chief use is as a vomit, and in small doses, joined with opium, as a diaphoretic. The officinal preparations are the *pulvis ipecacuanhæ compositus*, and the *vinum ipecacuanhæ*.

IQUETAIA. The inhabitants of the Brazils give this name to the *Scrophularia aquatica*, which is there celebrated as a corrector of the ill flavour of senna.

IRIS, (*Iris*, *īdis*, f. a rainbow; so called because of the variety of its colours). The anterior portion of the choroid membrane of the eye, which is perforated in the middle by the pupil. It is of various colours. The posterior surface of the iris is termed the *uvea*. The *flower de luce* is also called iris from the resemblance of its flowers to the rainbow.

IRIS FLORENTINA. Florentine orris, or iris. The root of this plant, *Iris florentina* of Linnæus. *Iris corollis barbatis, caule foliis altiore subbifloro, floribus sessilibus*. Class *Triandria*. Order *Monogynia*; which is indigenous to Italy, in its recent state is extremely acrid, and when chewed excites a pungent heat in the mouth, that continues several hours: on being dried, this acrimony is almost wholly dissipated; the taste is slightly

bitter, and the smell agreeable, and approaching to that of violets. The fresh root is cathartic, and for this purpose has been employed in drop-sies. It is now chiefly used in its dried state, and ranked as a pectoral and expectorant, and hence has a place in the *trochisci amyli* of the London Pharmacopœia.

IRIS FLORENTINE. See *Iris florentina*.

IRIS GERMANICA. The systematic name of the flower-de-luce. See *Iris nostras*.

IRIS NOSTRAS. Common iris, or orrice. Flower-de-luce. This plant is the *Iris germanica; corollis barbatis, caule foliis altiori multifloro, floribus inferioribus pedunculatis* of Linnæus. The fresh roots have a strong disagreeable smell, and an acrid nauseous taste. They are powerfully cathartic, and are given in drop-sical diseases, where such remedies are indicated.

IRIS PALUSTRIS. *Gladiolus luteus. Acorus vulgaris*. Yellow water flag. This indigenous plant, *Iris pseudacorus imberbis, foliis ensiformibus, petalis alternis, stigmatibus minoribus* of Thunberg. Class *Triandria*. Order *Monogynia*; is common in marshes, and on the banks of rivers. It formerly had a place in the London Pharmacopœia under the name of *gladiolus luteus*. The root is without smell, but has an acrid styptic taste, and its juice, on being snuffed up the nostrils, produces a burning heat in the nose and mouth, accompanied by a copious discharge from these organs; hence it is recommended both as an errhine and sialagogue. Given internally, when perfectly dry, its adstringent qualities are such as to cure diarrhoeas. The expressed juice is likewise said to be an useful application to serpiginous eruptions and scrofulous tumours.

IRIS PSEUDACORUS. The systematic name of the yellow water flag. See *Iris Palustris*.

IRISH SLATE. See *Lapis hibernicus*.

IRON. *Ferrum*. An imperfect metal of a white livid colour, inclining to gray, internally composed of small facets. It is very abundant in nature, being found in almost all coloured stones, bitumens, and in almost all metallic ores. The utility of iron in the practice of physic is very considerable. It is the basis of many important medicines, which are frequently employed with the happiest success. It may be said to be the only metal which is not noxious, and whose operation is not to be feared. The effects of this remedy upon the animal economy are various. It gives energy to the nerves and muscles, increases the secretions in general, especially the menstrual discharge, and excites the action of the heart and arteries. Nor is its action less effectual on the fluids; it is readily carried into the blood, combines with it, renders it of a darker colour, and imparts to it a more healthy consistence: it is therefore a tonic and alterative, and unites in its operation the properties of a great number of other medicines. Like adstringents, it increases the motion of the parts, and has the advantage of being more constant and durable in its effects than many other remedies which possess the same virtue, because it combines with the organs themselves, by means of the fluids which serve for their nutrition. It appears, therefore, that in every case wherein the muscular and nervous fibres are feeble in their action, in debilities of the stomach and intestines, and diseases dependant thereon; in short, in every case wherein the blood has not a sufficient quantity of cruror, or has not its healthy degree of consistency, steel medicines may be administered with success. The officinal preparations in the pharmacopœias are very numerous. If iron be exposed to the ac-

tion of the air, it becomes oxydated, and is converted into the *Oxydum ferri luteum*. See *Rubigo ferri*. Submitted to the action of diluted sulphuric acid, by concentrating the solution by evaporation, it forms the *Sulphas ferri*. See *Ferrum vitriolatum*. With muriatic acid, it forms the *urias ferri*, the *ferrum salitum* of Bergman, from which the *tinctura ferri muriati* is made. Iron filings sublimed with the muriate of ammonia, or sal ammoniac, form the *Murias ferri ammoniacalis*. See *Flores martiales*. With the powdered crystals of tartar, it forms the *Tartris potassæ acidulus ferratus*. See *Ferrum tartarifatum*. Iron, possessing the magnetic property, is said to produce very singular effects upon the animal economy; and it is affirmed that, when applied to the skin, it mitigates pain, diminishes convulsions, excites redness, sweat, and often a small irruption. How far these assertions are to be depended upon is uncertain; but that the magnet has very sensible effects, is proved by *Thouret*, in the Transactions of the Royal Society of Medicine of Paris.

IRRITABILITY, (*Irritabilitas, âtis*, f. from *irrito*, to provoke). *Vis insita* of Haller. *Vis vitalis* of Goetter. Oscillation of Boerhaave. Tonic power of Stahl. Muscular power of Bell. Inherent power of Cullen. The contractility of muscular fibres, or a property *peculiar* to muscles, by which they contract upon the application of certain stimuli, without a consciousness of action. This power may be seen in the tremulous contraction of muscles when lacerated, or when entirely separated from the body in operations. Even when the body is dead to all appearance, and the nervous power is gone, this contractile power remains till the organization yields, and begins to be dissolved. It is by this inherent power that a cut muscle contracts and leaves a gap; that a cut artery shrinks

and grows stiff after death. This irritability of muscles is so far independent of nerves, and so little connected with feeling, which is the province of the nerves, that upon stimulating any muscle by touching it with caustic, or irritating it with a sharp point, or driving the electric spark through it, or exciting with the metallic conductors, as those of silver or zinc, the muscle instantly contracts, although the nerve of that muscle be tied; although the nerve be cut so as to separate the muscle entirely from all connection with the system; although the muscle be separated from the body; although the creature upon which the experiment is performed may have lost all sense of feeling, and have been long apparently dead. Thus a muscle cut from the limb trembles and palpitates a long time after: the heart separated from the body contracts when irritated; the bowels, when torn from the body, continue their peristaltic motion, so as to roll upon the table, ceasing to answer to stimuli only when they become stiff and cold; and too often in the human body, the *vis insita* loses the exciting power of the nerves, and then palsy ensues; or, losing all governance of the nerves, the *vis insita*, acting without the regulating power, falls into partial or general convulsions. Even in vegetables, as in the sensitive plant, this contractile power lives. Thence comes the distinction between the irritability of muscles and the sensibility of nerves; for the *irritability* of muscles survives the animal, as when it is active after death; survives the life of the part of the feelings of the whole system, as in universal palsy, where the vital motions continue entire and perfect, and where the muscles, though not obedient to the will, are subject to irregular and violent actions; and it survives the connection with the rest of the system, as

when animals very tenacious of life are cut into parts: but *sensibility*, the property of the nerves, gives the various modifications of sense, as vision, hearing, and the rest; gives also the general sense of pleasure or pain, and makes the system, according to its various conditions, feel vigorous and healthy, or weary and low. And thus the eye feels and the skin feels: but their appointed stimuli produce no motions in these parts; they are sensible but not irritable. The heart, the intestines, the urinary bladder, and all the muscles of voluntary motion, answer to stimuli with a quick and forcible contraction; and yet they hardly feel the stimuli by which these contractions are produced, or at least they do not convey that feeling to the brain. There is no consciousness of present stimulus in those parts which are called into action by the impulse of the nerves, and at the command of the will: so that muscular parts have all the irritability of the system, with but little feeling, and that little owing to the nerves which enter into their substance; while nerves have all the sensibility of the system, but no motion.

The discovery of this singular property belongs to our countryman Glysson; but Baron Haller must be considered as the first who clearly pointed out its existence, and proved it to be the cause of muscular motion.

The laws of irritability, according to Dr. Crichton, are, 1. After every action in an irritable part, a state of rest, or cessation from motion, must take place before the irritable part can be again incited to action. If by an act of volition we throw any of our muscles into action, that action can only be continued for a certain space of time; the muscle becomes relaxed, notwithstanding all our endeavours to the contrary, and

remains a certain time in that relaxed state, before it can be again thrown into action. 2. Each irritable part has a certain portion or quantity of the principle of irritability which is natural to it, part of which it loses during action, or from the application of stimuli. 3. By a process wholly unknown to us, it regains this lost quantity, during its repose or state of rest. In order to express the different quantities of irritability in any part, we say that it is either more or less redundant, or more or less defective. It becomes redundant in a part when the stimuli which are calculated to act on that part are withdrawn, or withheld for a certain length of time, because then no action can take place: while on the other hand, the application of stimuli causes it to be exhausted, or to be deficient, not only by exciting action, but by some secret influence, the nature of which has not yet been detected; for it is a circumstance extremely deserving of attention, that an irritable part or body may be suddenly deprived of its irritability by powerful stimuli, and yet no apparent cause of muscular or vascular action takes place at the time. A certain quantity of spirits taken at once into the stomach, kills almost as instantaneously as lightning does: the same thing may be observed of some poisons, as opium, distilled laurel-water, the juice of the cerbera aihovai, &c. 4. Each irritable part has stimuli which are peculiar to it; and which are intended to support its natural action: thus, blood, which is the stimulus proper to the heart and arteries, if by any accident it gets into the stomach, produces sickness or vomiting. If the gall, which is the natural stimulus to the gall-bladder, duct, and duodenum, is by any accident effused into the cavity of the peritoneum, it excites too great action of the vessels of that part, and

induces inflammation. The urine does not irritate the tender fabric of the kidneys, ureters, or bladder, except in such a degree as to preserve their healthy action; but if it be effused into the cellular membrane, it brings on such a violent action of the vessels of these parts as to produce gangrene. Such stimuli are called *habitual* stimuli of parts. 5. Each irritable part differs from the rest in regard to the quantity of irritability which it possesses. This law explains to us the reason of the great diversity which we observe in the action of various irritable parts; thus the muscles of voluntary motion can remain a long time in a state of action, and if it be continued as long as possible, another considerable portion of time is required before they regain the irritability they lost; but the heart and arteries have a more short and sudden action, and their state of rest is equally so. The circular muscles of the intestines have also a quick action and short rest. The urinary bladder does not fully regain the irritability it loses during its contraction for a considerable space of time; the vessels which separate and throw out the menstrual discharge, act, in general, for three or four days, and do not regain the irritability they lose for a lunar month. 6. All stimuli produce action in proportion to their irritating powers. As a person approaches his hand to the fire, the action of all the vessels in the skin is increased, and it glows with heat; if the hand be approached still nearer, the action is increased to such an unusual degree as to occasion redness and pain; and if it be continued too long, real inflammation takes place; but if this heat be continued, the part at last loses its irritability, and a sphacelus or gangrene ensues. 7. The action of every stimulus is in an inverse ratio to the frequency of its application. A

Small quantity of spirits taken into the stomach, increases the action of its muscular coat, and also of its various vessels, so that digestion is thereby facilitated. If the same quantity, however, be taken frequently, it loses its effect. In order to produce the same effect as at first, a larger quantity is necessary: and hence the origin of dram-drinking.

8. The more the irritability of a part is accumulated, the more that part is disposed to be acted upon. It is on this account that the activity of all animals, while in perfect health,

is much livelier in the morning than at any other time of the day; for during the night the irritability of the whole frame, and especially that of the muscles destined for labour, viz. the muscles of voluntary action, is re-accumulated. The same law explains why digestion goes on more rapidly the first hour after food is swallowed than at any other time; and it also accounts for the great danger that accrues to a famished person upon first taking in food.

9. If the stimuli which keep up the action of any irritable body be withdrawn for too great a length of time, that process on which the formation of the principle depends is gradually diminished, and at last entirely destroyed. When the irritability of the system is too quickly exhausted by heat, as is the case in certain warm climates, the application of cold invigorates the frame, because cold is a mere diminution of the overplus of that stimulus which was causing the rapid consumption of the principle. Under such or similar circumstances, therefore, cold is a tonic remedy; but if, in a climate naturally cold, a person were to go into a cold bath, and not soon return into a warmer atmosphere, it would destroy life just in the same manner as many poor people who have no comfortable dwellings are often de-

stroyed from being too long exposed to the cold in winter. Upon the first application of cold the irritability is accumulated, and the vascular system therefore is disposed to great action; but after a certain time all action is so much diminished, that the process, whatever it be, on which the formation of the irritable principle depends, is entirely lost. For further information on this interesting subject, see Dr. Crichton on Mental Derangement.

IRRITATION. *Irritatio*. The action produced by any stimulus.

ISCHĪAS, (*Ischias*, *adis*, f. *ισχιας*; from *ισχιον*, the hip). *Sciatica*. A rheumatic affection of the hip joint; one of the terminations of acute rheumatism.

ISCHIATOCELE, (*Ischiatocele*, *es*, f. *ισχιαστοκηλη*; from *ισχιον*, the hip, and *κηλη*, a rupture). *Ischiocele*. An intestinal rupture through the sciatic ligaments.

ISCHIO-CAVERNOSUS. See *Erector penis*.

ISCHIOCELE, (*Ischiocele*, *es*, f. *ισchioκηλη*). See *Ischiatocele*.

ISCHĪUM, (*Ischium*, *i*, n. *ισχιον*; from *ισχis*, the loin, so named because it is near the loin). A bone of the pelvis of the foetus. See *Innomatum os*.

ISCHŪRIA, (*Ischuria*, *a*, f. *ισχυρια*; from *ισχω*, to restrain, and *ουρον*, the urine). A suppression of urine. A genus of disease in the class *locales* and order *epischeses* of Cullen. There are four species of ischuria: 1. *Ischuria renalis*, coming after a disease of the kidneys, with a troublesome sense of weight in that part. 2. *Ischuria ureterica*, after a disease of the kidneys, a sense of pain or uneasiness in the course of the ureters. 3. *Ischuria vesicalis*, a frequent desire to make water, with a swelling of the hypogastrium, and pain at the neck of the bladder. 4. *Ischuria urethralis*, a frequent desire to make

water, with a swelling of the hypogastrium, and pain of some part of the urethra.

ISLANDICUS MUSCUS. See *Lichen islandicus*.

ISINGLASS. See *Ichthyocolla*.

ISTHMUS VIEUSSENII. The ridge surrounding the oval fossa or

remains of the foramen ovale, in the right auricle of the human heart.

IVY. See *Hedera arborea*.

IVY-GROUND. See *Hedera terrestris*.

IVY-GUM. See *Gummi hedera*.

IXINE. See *Carlina gummifera*.

J.

J A

JACK-BY-THE-HEDGE. See *Alliaria*.

JACOBÆA. Ragwort. *Senecio jacobæa* of Linnæus. The leaves of this common plant have a roughish, bitter, sub-acrid taste, extremely nauseous. A decoction is said to have been of infinite service in the cure of epidemic camp dysentery.

JALAP. See *Jalapium*.

JALAPIUM, (*Jalapium*, i, n. from *Chalapa* or *Xalapa* in New Spain, whence it is brought). *Mechoacanna nigra*. Jalap. The plant from which this root is obtained is the *Convolvulus jalapa*; *caule volubili*; *foliis ovatis subcordatis obtusis obsolete repandis subtus villosis*; *pedunculis unifloris*. Hort Kew. Class *Pentandria*. Order *Monogynia*. A native of South America. In the shops the root is found both cut into slices and whole, of an oval shape, solid, ponderous, blackish on the outside, but gray within, and marked with several dark veins, by the number of which, and by its hardness, heaviness, and dark colour, the goodness of the root is to be estimated. It has scarcely any smell, and very little taste, but to the tongue, and to the throat, manifests a slight degree of pungency. The medicinal activity of jalap resides principally, if not wholly, in the resin, which, though given in small doses, occasions violent tormina. The root powdered, is a very com-

J A

mon, efficacious, and safe purgative, as daily experience evinces; but according as it contains more or less resin, its effects must of course vary. In large doses, or when joined with calomel, it is recommended as an anthelmintic and hydrogogue. In the pharmacopœias this root is ordered in the form of tincture and extract; and the Edinburgh college directs it also in powder with twice its weight of crystals of tartar.

JALAPPA ALBA. See *Mechoacanna*.

JAMAICA BARK. See *Chinchina caribæa*.

JAMAICA PEPPER. See *Pimento*.

JAPAN EARTH. See *Catechu*.

JAPONICA TERRA. See *Catechu*.

JARGON. *Terra circona*. *Terra zirconia*. A primitive earth lately found in the precious stone called jargon, or hyacinth of the island of Ceylon. When calcined it has a white colour, is exceedingly heavy, and rough to the touch, has no taste, and is insoluble in water.

JASMINUM, (*Jasminum*, i, n. *ياسمين*; from *jasmen*, Arab. or from *ياسمين*, a violet, and *ياسمين*, odour, on account of the fine odour of the flowers). *Jessamine*. The flowers of this beautiful plant, the *Jasminum officinale* of Linnæus, have a very fragrant smell, and a bitter taste. They afford, by distillation, an essen-

tial oil, which is much esteemed in Italy to rub paralytic limbs, and in the cure of rheumatic pains.

JASMĪNUM OFFICINĀLE. The systematic name of the jassamine tree. See *Jasminum*.

JATROPHA CURCAS. The systematic name of a plant whose seeds resemble the castor oil seeds. See *Ricinus major*.

JECORARIĀ, (*Jecoraria*, *e*, *f*. from *jecur*, the liver, so named from its supposed efficacy in diseases of the liver). See *Hepatica terrestris*.

JĒJŪNUM, (*Fejunum*, *i*. *n*. from *jejunus*, empty). *Fejunum intestinum*. The second portion of the small intestines, so called because it is mostly found empty. See *Intestines*.

JELLY. Modern chemists have given this name to the mucilaginous substance, very soluble in water, and not at all in spirits of wine, that is obtained from all the soft and white parts of animals, such as the membranes, tendons, aponeuroses, cartilages, ligaments, and skin, by boiling them in water. If the decoction or jelly be strongly evaporated, it affords a dry, brittle, transparent substance, known by the name of glue.

JESSAMINE. See *Jasminum*.

JERUSALEM COWSLIPS. See *Pulmonaria maculata*.

JERUSALEM OAK. See *Botrys vulgaris*.

JERUSALEM SAGE. See *Pulmonaria maculata*.

JESUITĀNUS CORTEX, (*Jesuitanus*; from *jesuita*, a jesuit). A specific name of the Peruvian bark, because it was first introduced into Europe by Father de Lugo, a Jesuit. See *Cinchona*.

JESUITĪCUS CORTEX. See *Cinchona*.

JESUITS BARK. See *Cinchona*.

JET. A black bitumen, hard and compact, like certain stones, found in great abundance in various parts

of France, Sweden, Germany, and Ireland. It is brilliant and vitreous in its fracture, and capable of taking a good polish by friction: it attracts light substances, and appears to be electric, like amber; hence it has been called *black amber*: it has no smell, but when heated it acquires one like bitumen judaicum.

JEWS PITCH. See *Bitumen judaicum*.

JOHN'S WORT. See *Hypericum*.

JONTHI, (*Jonthus*, *i*, *m*. *ind.*). *Vari*. Small red, hard, and indolent tubercles that appear about the face of young persons before or about the time of puberty.

JUGALE OS, (*Jugalis*; from *jugum*, a yoke, from its resemblance, or because it is articulated to the bone of the upper jaw like a yoke). *Os mala*. *Os zygomaticum*. The ossa malarum are the prominent square bones which form the upper part of the cheeks. They are situated close under the eyes, and make part of the orbits. Each of these bones has three surfaces to be considered. One of these is exterior and somewhat convex. The second is superior and concave, serving to form the lower and lateral parts of the orbit. The third, which is posterior, is very unequal, and concave, for the lodgment of the lower part of the temporal muscle. Each of these bones may be described as having four processes, formed by their four angles. Two of these may be called *orbital* processes. The superior one is connected with the orbital process of the os frontis; and the inferior one with the malar process of the maxillary bone. The third is connected with the temporal process of the sphenoid bone; and the fourth forms a bony arch, by its connection with the zygomatic process of the temporal bone. In infants these bones are entire and completely ossified.

JUGLANS, (*Juglans*, *dis*, f. *quasi Jovis glans*, the royal fruit, from its magnitude), The walnut. The tree which bears this fruit is the *Juglans regia* of Linnæus, (*Juglans foliolis ovalibus glabris subserratis subæqualibus*. Class *Monoecia*. Order *Polyandria*), a native of Persia, but cultivated in this country. The unripe fruit, which has an astringent bitterish taste, and has been long employed as a pickle, is the part directed for medicinal use by the London college, on account of its anthelmintic virtues. An extract of the green fruit is the most convenient preparation, as it may be kept for a sufficient length of time, and made agreeable to the stomach of the patient by mixing it with cinnamon water.

JUGLANS REGIA. The systematic name of the walnut tree. See *Juglans*.

JUGULAR VEINS, (*Venæ jugulares* from *jugulum* the throat). These veins run from the head down the sides of the neck, and are divided, from their situation, into external and internal. The *external* or *superficial jugular vein* receives the blood from the frontal, angular, temporal, auricular, sublingual or ranine, and the occipital veins. The *internal* or *deep-seated jugular vein* receives the blood from the lateral sinusses of the dura mater, the laryngeal and pharyngeal veins. Both jugulars unite, and form with the subclavian vein, the superior vena cava, which terminates in the superior part of the right auricle of the heart.

JUJUBES. See *Jujubæ*.

JUJUBÆ. (*Arab*). Jujubes. A half dried fruit of the plumkind, about the size and shape of an olive, the produce of the *Rhammes zizyphus* of Linnæus. Jujubes, when in perfection, have an agreeable sweet taste, and in the southern parts of Europe, where they are common, they make an ar-

ticle of food in their recent state, and of medicine when half dried.

JULY FLOWERS. See *Caryophyllus ruber*.

JUNCUS ODORATUS. *Fanum camelorum*. *Juncus aromaticus*. Camel hay. Sweet rush. This dried plant, *Andropogon schænanthus* of Linnæus, is imported into this country from Turkey and Arabia. It has an agreeable smell, and a warm, bitterish, not unpleasant taste. It was formerly employed as a stomachic and deobstruent.

JUNIPER. See *Juniperus*.

JUNIPER GUM. See *Sandarack*.

JUNIPERUS, (*Juniperus*, i, f. from *juvenis*, young, and *pario*, to bring forth; so called because it produces its young berries while the old ones are ripening). Common juniper, *Juniperus communis* of Linnæus. *Juniperus foliis ternis patentibus mucronatis, baccis longioribus*. Class *Dioecia*. Order *Monadelphica*. Both the tops and berries of this indigenous plant are directed in our pharmacopœias, but the latter are usually preferred, and are brought chiefly from Holland and Italy. Of their efficacy as a stomachic, carminative, diaphoretic, and diuretic, there are several relations by physicians of great authority: and medical writers have also spoken of the utility of the juniper in nephritic cases, uterine obstructions, scorbutic affections, and some cutaneous diseases. Our pharmacopœias direct the essential oil, and a spirituous distillation of the berries, to be kept in the shops.

JUNIPERUS COMMUNIS. The systematic name of the juniper tree. See *Juniperus*.

JUNIPERUS LICIÀ. The systematic name of the plant which affords the frankincence. See *Olibanum*.

JUNIPERUS SABINÆ. The systematic name of the savine tree. See *Sabina*.

JUPITER. The antient chemical name of tin.

K.

K A

KAJEPUT OLEUM. See *Ca-jeput oil*.

KALI, (*Kali*, n. ind. from *kali*, Arab.). The *Kali* of the pharmacopœias is the vegetable alkali or potash. See also *Alkali vegetable* and *mineral*, *Barilla*, *Natron*, *Potash*, &c.

KALI ACETĀTUM. *Terra foliata tartari. Tartarus regeneratus. Arcanum Tartari. Sal diureticus.* A useful diuretic, deobstruent, and eccoprotic preparation of potash. In the new chemical nomenclature it is called *acetis potassæ*. Externally it is applied dissolved in vinegar to inflammatory swellings of the testicles and other indolent tumours. Internally it is exhibited in dysconia abdominalis, pituitous affections of the primæ viæ, rheumatisms, dropsies, icterus, intermittent fevers, hæmorrhoids, and dysury.

KALI CITRĀTUM. *Alkali volatile, succo citri saturatum.* This neutral saline liquor, a citrat of potash, is made by saturating prepared kali with lemon juice. It is the base of the saline draught; it possesses nervine and sudorific properties; and is exhibited in rheumatism, catarrh, and most febrile diseases.

KALI PURUM. *Alkali vegetabile fixum causticum.* Caustic vegetable alkali. This preparation of kali is violently caustic, destroying the living animal fibre with great energy. See *Alkali caustic*.

KALI PRÆPARĀTUM. *Sal absynthii. Sal Tartari. Sal plantarum. Alkali vegetabile fixum, Carbonas potassæ crystallifatus.* This preparation

K E

of potash is in general use to form the kali citratum for the saline draughts. A scruple is generally directed to be saturated with lemon-juice. In this process the kali preparatum, which is a salt composed of potash and carbonic acid, is decomposed. The citric acid having a greater affinity for the potash than the carbonic, seizes it and forms the kali citratum, whilst the carbonic acid flies off in the form of air. The kali preparatum possesses antacid virtues, is an antidote against white arsenic, and may be exhibited with advantage in convulsions and other spasms of the intestines arising from acidity, in calculous complaints, leucorrhœa, serophula, and aphthous affections.

KALI SULPHURĀTUM. See *Hepar sulphuris*.

KALI TARTĀRISĀTUM. *Tartarum solubile. Tartaris tartarifatus. Sal vegetabilis. Alkali vegetabile tartarifatum.* Diuretic, deobstruent, and eccoprotic virtues are attributed to this preparation, which is a tartrate of potash.

KALI VITRIOLĀTUM. *Alkali vegetabile vitriolatus. Sal de duobus. Arcanum duplicatum. Sal polychrestus. Nitrum vitriolatum.* This preparation of potash, is called *sulphas potassæ* in the new chemical nomenclature. Its virtues are cathartic, diuretic, and deobstruent; with which intentions it is administered in a great variety of diseases, as constipation, suppression of the lochia, fevers, icterus, dropsies, milk tumours, &c.

KEIRI. See *Chieri*.

KELP. The mineral alkali which is obtained in this country by burning marine plants.

KERMES, (*Kermes*, from *chermah*, Arab.). *Granum tinctorium*. *Coccus baphica*. Round reddish grains, about the size of peas, found in Spain, Italy, and the south of France, adhering to the branches of the scarlet oak. They are the nidus of a minute red animalcule, called *Coccus quercus ilicis* of Linnaeus. The *confectio alkermes*, now obsolete, was prepared with these, which possess corroborant and adstringent virtues.

KERMES MINERALIS. See *Hydrofulpburctum sibirii rubrum*.

KERNEL WORT. See *Scrophularia vulgaris*.

KIDNEYS. *Renēs*. Two abdominal viscera, shaped like a kidney-bean, that secrete the urine. They are situated on each lumbar region, near the first lumbar vertebra, behind the peritoneum, and are composed of three substances; a cortical, which is the external, and very vascular; a tubulose, which consists of small tubes, and a papillous substance, which is the innermost. The kidneys are generally surrounded with more or less adipose membrane, and they have also a proper membrane, *membrana propria*, which is closely accreted to the cortical substance. The renal arteries, called also emulgent, proceed from the aorta. The veins evacuate their blood into the ascending cava. The absorbents accom-

pany the blood-vessels, and terminate in the thoracic duct. The nerves of the kidneys are branches of the eighth pair and great intercostals. The excretory duct of this viscus is called the *ureter*. At the middle or pelvis of the kidney, where the blood-vessels enter it, is a large membranous bag, which diminishes like a funnel, and forms a long canal or ureter, that conveys the urine from the kidney to the bladder, which it perforates obliquely.

KIKEKUNEMALO. A pure resin, very similar to copal, but of a more beautiful whiteness and transparency. It is brought from America, where it is said to be used medicinally in the cure of hysteria, tetanus, &c. It forms the most beautiful of all varnishes.

KINA KINA. See *Cinchona*.

KINO, (*Kino*, n. ind. Indian). *Gummi gambiense*. *Gummi rubrum adstringens gambiense*. The tree from which this resin is obtained, though not botanically ascertained, is known to grow on the banks of the river Gambia, in Africa. On wounding its bark the fluid kino immediately issues drop by drop, and by the heat of the sun, is formed into hard masses. It is very like the resin called *Sanguis draconis*; is much redder, more firm, resinous, and adstringent than catechu. It is now in common use, and is the most efficacious vegetable adstringent, or styptic, in the materia medica.

KNEE HOLLY. See *Ruscus*.

L.

LA

L ABDANUM. See *Ladanum*.

L ABYRINTH. That part of the internal ear behind the cavity of the tympanum, which is constituted by the cochlea, vestibulum, and semicircular canals.

L AC, (*Lacca*, *a*, f. Arab.). Gum-lac. See *Lacca*.

L AC AMMŌNIACI. A very nauseous attenuant, expectorant, and antispasmodic preparation of ammoniacum.

L AC AMYGDALÆ. A very pleasant, cooling, demulcent drink, calculated to alleviate ardor urinæ, and relieve strangury. It forms a pleasant ptisan in coughs, hoarsenesses, and catarrhs.

L AC SULPHŪRIS. See *Sulphur præcipitatum*.

L ACCA, (*Lacca*, *a*, f. from *lakab*, Arab.). Gummi *Lacca*. Stick-lac. Seed-lac. Shell-lac. The improper name of gum-lac is given to a concrete brittle substance, of a dark red colour, brought from the East Indies, incrustated on the twigs of the *Croton lacciferum*; *foliis ovalis tomentosis serrulatis petiolatis, colycibus tomentosis* of Linnæus, where it is deposited by a small insect, at present not scientifically known. When the resinous matter is broken off the wood into small pieces of grains it is termed *seed-lac*, and when melted and formed into flat plates *shell-lac*. This substance is chiefly employed for making sealing wax. A tincture of it is recommended as an antiscorbutic to wash the gums.

LA

L ACHRYMA ABIEGNAS. See *Terebinthina argentarotensis*.

L ACHRYMÆ, (*Lachryma*, *a*, f.). The tears. A limpid fluid secreted by the lachrymal gland, and flowing on the surface of the eye.

L ACHRYMAL DUCTS. The excretory ducts of the lachrymal gland, which open upon the internal surface of the upper eyelid.

L ACHRYMAL GLAND. *Glandula lachrymalis*. A glomerate gland, situated above the external angle of the orbit, in a peculiar depression of the frontal bone. It secretes the tears, and conveys them to the eye by its excretory ducts, which are six or eight in number. See *Lachrymal ducts*.

L ACTATS, (*Lactas*, *tis*, m.). Salts formed by the union of the acid of four whey, or lactic acid, with different bases; thus *aluminous lactat*, *ammoniacal lactat*, &c.

L ACTEALS. *Vasa lactea*. The absorbents of the mesentery, which originate in the small intestines, and convey the chyle from thence to the thoracic duct. They are very tender and transparent vessels, possessed of an infinite number of valves, which, when distended with chyle, give them a knotty appearance. They arise from the internal surface of the villous coat of the small intestines, perforate the other coats, and form a kind of network, whilst the greater number unite one with another between the muscular and external coats. From

thence they proceed between the laminæ of the mesentery to the conglobate glands. In their course they constitute the greater part of the gland through which they pass, being distributed through them several times, and curled in various directions. The lacteals having passed these glands, go to others, and at length seek those nearest the root of the mesentery. From these glands, which are only four or five, or perhaps more, the lacteals pass out and ascend with the mesenteric artery, and unite with the lymphatics of the lower extremities, and those of the abdominal viscera, and then form a common trunk, the *thoracic duct*, which in some subjects is delayed at its origin, forming the *receptaculum chyli*. See *Nutrition*.

LACTIC ACID, (from *lac*, milk). The acid of sour milk.

LACTŪCA, (*Lactuca*, *a*, *f*. from *lac*, milk, named from the milky juice which exudes upon its being wounded). Lettuce. The garden lettuce is merely the *Lactuca sativa* cultivated. They are esteemed as wholesome aperient bitter anodynes, easy of digestion, but affording no nutriment. They appear to agree better with hot, bilious, melancholic temperaments, than the phlegmatic. The seeds possess a quantity of oily substance, which triturated with water forms an emulsion esteemed by some in ardor urinæ, and some diseases of the urinary passage.

LACTŪCA GRAVEŒLENS. Opium scented lettuce. *Lactuca virofa* of Linnæus. *L. foliis horizontalibus carinaculeatis lentatis*. Class Syngenesia. Order Polygamia æquales. A common plant in our hedges and ditches. It has a strong ungrateful taste, resembling that of opium, and a bitterish acrid taste: it abounds with a milky juice, in which its sensible qualities seem to reside, and which appears to

have been noticed by Dioscorides, who describes the odour and taste of the juice as nearly agreeing with that of the white poppy. Its effects are also said, according to Haller, to be powerfully narcotic. Dr. Collin, at Vienna, first brought the *lactuca virofa* into medical repute, and its character has lately induced the college of physicians at Edinburgh to insert it in the catalogue of the *materia medica*. More than twenty-four cases of dropsy are said by Collin to have been successfully treated, by employing an extract prepared from the expressed juice of this plant, which is stated not only to be powerfully diuretic, but by attenuating the viscid humours to promote all the secretions, and to remove visceral obstructions. In the more simple cases, proceeding from debility, the extract, in doses of eighteen to thirty grains a day, proved sufficient to accomplish a cure, but when the disease was inveterate, and accompanied with visceral obstructions, the quantity of extract was increased to three drams; nor did larger doses, though they excited nausea, ever produce any other bad effect; and the patients continued so strong under the use of this remedy, that it was seldom necessary to employ any tonic medicines. Though Dr. Collin began his experiments with the *lactuca* at the Pazman hospital, at the time he was trying the *arnica*, 1771, yet very few physicians, even at Vienna, have since adopted the use of this plant. Plenciz, indeed, has published a solitary instance of its efficacy, while Quarin informs us that he never experienced any good effect from its use; alledging, that those who were desirous of supporting its character, mixed with it a quantity of extractum scillæ. Under these circumstances we shall only say, that the recommendation of this medicine by Dr. Collin, will be

scarcely thought sufficient to establish its use in England.

LACTŪCA SATIVA. The systematic name of the lettuce. See *Lactuca*.

LACTŪCA SYLVESTRIS. The officinal name of the *Lactuca scariola* of Linnæus, which possesses a stronger degree of bitterness than the *Lactuca sativa*.

LACTŪCA VIRŌSA. The systematic name of the opium scented lettuce. See *Lactuca graveolens*.

LACŪNÆ, (*Lacuna*, æ, f. from *lacus*, a channel). The mouths or openings of the excretory ducts of the muciparous glands of the urethra.

LADANUM, (*Ladanum*, i, n. *λᾶδανον*; from *ladon*, Arab.). *Labdanum*. This resinous juice exudes upon the leaves of the *Cistus creticus*; *aborescens exstipulatus, foliis spatulato-ovatis petiolatis enerviis scabris, calycinis lanceolatis* of Linnæus. Class *Polyandria*. Order *Monogynia*, in Canada, where the inhabitants collect it by lightly rubbing the leaves with leather, and afterwards scraping it off and forming it into irregular masses for exportation. Three sorts of ladanum have been described by authors, but only two are to be met with in the shops. The best, which is very rare, is in dark coloured masses, of the consistence of a soft plaster, and growing still softer on being handled; the other is in long rolls, coiled up, much harder than the preceding, and not so dark. The first has commonly a small, and the last a large admixture of fine sand, without which they cannot be collected pure, independently of designed abuses: the dust blown on the plant by winds from the loose sands among which it grows, being retained by the tenacious juice. The soft kind has an agreeable smell, and a lightly pungent bitterish taste: the hard is much

weaker. *Ladanum* was formerly much employed internally as a pectoral and adstringent in catarrhal affections, dysenteries, and several other diseases; at present, however, it is wholly confined to external use, and is an ingredient in the stomachic plaster, *emplastrum ladani* of the London Pharmacopœia.

LADIES BEDSTRAW. See *Galium luteum*.

LADIES MANTLE. See *Alchemilla*.

LADIES SMOCK See *Cardamine*.

LAGOPHTHALMUS, (*Lagophthalmus*, i, m. *λαγοφθαλμος*, from *λαγος*, a hare, and *οφθαλμος*, an eye, because it is believed that hares sleep with their eyes open). A want of power to close the eyelid. It may arise from spasm, palsy, atony, or fissure of the muscles of the eyelids, and a variety of other causes.

LAKEWEED. See *Hydropiper*.

LAMBDOIDAL SUTURE, (*Sutura Lambdoidalis*, from Λ , and *ειδος*, resemblance, because it is shaped like the letter Λ). Occipital suture. The suture that unites the occipital bone to the two parietal bones.

LAMIUM ALBUM, (*Lamium*, i, n. from *Lamium*, a mountain of Ionia, where it grew, or from *lama*, a ditch, because it usually grows about ditches and neglected places). *Urtica mortua*. *Galeopsis*. Dead nettle. White archangel nettle. Uterine hæmorrhages and fluor albus are said to be relieved by infusions of this plant, from whose sensible qualities very little benefit can be expected.

LAMPSANA. See *Lapsana*.

LAPÄTHUM, (*Lapatham*, i, n. *λαπαθον*; from *λαπαζω*, to evacuate, so named because it purges gently). The dock.

LAPÄTHUM ACETOSUM. Common sorrel. See *Acetosa*.

LAPÄTHUM ACUTUM. See *Oxy-lapathum*.

LAPÄTHUM AQUATĪCUM. See *Hydrolapathum*.

LAPĪDES CANCRŌRUM. See *Cancer*.

LAPIS BEZOAR. See *Bezoar*.

LAPIS CÆRULĒUS. See *Lapis lazuli*.

LAPIS CALAMINÄRIS. See *Calamine stone*.

LAPIS CYÄNUS. See *Lapis lazuli*.

LAPIS HÆMATĪTES. See *Hæmatites*.

LAPIS HIBERNĪCUS. *Tegula hibernica*. *Ardesia hibernica*. *Hardesia*. Irish slate. A kind of slate or very hard stone found in different parts of Ireland in a mass of a blueish black colour, which stains the hands. When dried and powdered it is pale, or of a whitish blue, and by keeping grows black. In the fire it yields a sulphureous gas, and acquires a pale red colour, with additional hardness. It is occasionally powdered by the common people, and taken in spruce beer, against inward bruises.

LAPIS HYSTRĪCIS. See *Bezoar porcinum*.

LAPIS INFERNÄLIS.

LAPIS LAZŪLI. *Lapis cyanus*. Azure stone. A combination of silex, the blue fluat of lime and sulphat of lime, and iron. This singular mixture forms a stone of a beautiful opaque blue, which it preserves in a strong heat, and does not suffer any alteration by the contact of air. It was formerly exhibited as a purgative and vomit, and given in epilepsy.

LAPIS MALACENSIS. See *Bezoar porcinum*.

LAPIS PORCĪNUS. See *Bezoar porcinum*.

LAPIS SIMĪÆ. See *Bezoar simiæ*.

LAPPA MAJOR. See *Barbada*.

LAPSANA, (*Lapsana*). *Lamp-sana*. Dock-creeses. Nipple-wort,

This plant, *Lapsana communis* of Linnæus, is a lactescent bitter, and nearly similar in virtues to the cichory, dandelion, and endive. It has been employed chiefly for external purposes, against wounds and ulcerations, whence the name of nipple-wort.

LARCH TREE. The name of the tree which affords the venice turpentine. See *Terebenthina veneta*.

LARD. The English name of hog's fat when melted down. Hog's lard, *adeps suellæ*, forms the base of many unguents, and is often eaten by the poor instead of butter.

LARYNGOTOMY, (*Laryngotomia*, *æ*, f. λαρυγγειοτομία; from λαρυγξ, the larynx, and τέμνω, to cut). See *Bronchotomy*.

LARYNX, (*Larynx*, *ngis*, f. λαρυγξ). A cartilaginous cavity, situated behind the tongue, in the anterior part of the fauces, and lined with an exquisitely sensible membrane. It is composed of the annular or cricoid cartilage, the scutiform or thyroid, the epiglottis, and two arytaenoid cartilages. The superior opening of the larynx is called the *glottis*. The *laryngeal arteries* are branches of the external carotids. The *laryngeal veins* evacuate their blood into the external jugulars. The nerves of the larynx are from the eighth pair. The use of the larynx is to constitute the organ of voice, and to serve also for respiration.

LASERPITIUM LATIFOLIUM, (*Laserpitium*, *i*, n. from *laser*, perhaps from *lazar*, Arab.). Lasser-wort. The systematic name of the white gentian. See *Gentiana alba*.

LASERPITIUM SILER. The systematic name of the heart-wort. See *Seseli*.

LATERAL SINUSSES. The bifurcation and continuation of the longitudinal sinus of the dura mater. They commence about the middle of

the tentorium, one passing along each horizontal crucial spine within the tentorium, and round to the foramen lacerum in basi cranii, where the internal jugular vein begins. Their use is to carry the blood from the brain into the internal jugulars, which return it to the heart.

LATEX, (*Latez*, *icis*, m. *quod in venis terræ lateat*). All manner of water or juice. A term sometimes applied to the blood as being the spring or source of all the humours.

LATIRITIOUS SEDIMENT, (*Latiritius*; from *later*, a brick). A term applied to the brick-like sediment deposited in the urine of people afflicted with fever, twelve or fourteen hours after the urine is passed.

LATISSIMUS COLLI. See *Platysma myoides*.

LATISSIMUS DORSI, (*Latissimus*, sc. *musculus*). A muscle of the humerus, situated on the posterior part of the trunk. It is a very broad, thin, and for the most part, fleshy muscle, which is placed immediately under the skin, except where it is covered by the lower extremity of the trapezius. It arises tendinous from the posterior half of the upper edge of the spine of the os ilium, from the spinous processes of the os sacrum and lumbar vertebræ, and from five or six, and sometimes from seven, and even eight, of the lowermost ones of the back; also tendinous and fleshy from the upper edges and external surface of the four inferior false ribs, near their cartilages, by as many distinct slips. From these different origins the fibres of the muscle run in different directions; those from the ilium and false ribs run almost perpendicularly upwards; those from the sacrum and lumbar vertebræ, obliquely upwards and forwards; and those from the vertebræ of the back, transversely outwards and forwards, over the inferior angle of the scapula, where they receive a small thin bundle of

fleshy fibres; which arise tendinous from that angle, and are inserted with the rest of the muscle, by a strong, flat, and thin tendon, of about two inches in length, into the fore part of the posterior edge of the groove observed between the two tuberosities of the os humeri, for lodging the tendon of the long head of the biceps. In dissection, therefore, this muscle ought not to be followed to its insertion, till some of the other muscles of the os humeri have been first raised. Its use is to pull the os humeri downwards and backwards, and to turn it upon its axis. Riolanus, from its use on certain occasions, gave it the name of *anterior*. When we raise ourselves upon our hands, as in rising from off an arm chair, we may easily perceive the contraction of this muscle. A *bursa mucosa* is found between the tendon of this muscle and the os humeri, into which it is inserted.

LAUDANUM. The tincture of opium. See *Tinctura opii*.

LAUREL CHERRY. See *Lauro-cerasus*.

LAUREL, SPURGE. See *Laureola*.

LAURĒŌLA, (*Laureola*, *æ*, f. dim. of *laurus*, the laurel, named from its resemblance to the laurel). Spurge laurel. The bark of this plant, *Daphne laureola* of Linnæus, is recommended to excite a discharge from the skin, in the same way as that of *thymelæa*.

LAURO-CERĀSUS, (*Lauro-cerasus*, *i*, f. from *laurus*, the laurel, and *cerasus*, the cherry tree, so called because it has leaves like the laurel). Common or cherry laurel. *Prunus lauro-cerasus* of Linnæus. *P. floribus racemosis foliis sempervirentibus dorso biglandulosis*. Class *Icosandria*. Order *Monogynia*. The leaves of the lauro-cerasus have a bitter styptic taste, accompanied with a flavour resembling that of bitter almonds, or other kernels of the drupaceous fruits: the

flowers also manifest a similar flavour. The powdered leaves applied to the nostrils excite sneezing, though not so strongly as tobacco. The kernel-like flavour which these leaves impart being generally esteemed grateful, has sometimes caused them to be employed for culinary purposes, and especially in custards, puddings, blanch-mange, &c.; and as the proportion of this sapid matter of the leaf to the quantity of the milk is commonly inconsiderable, bad effects have seldom ensued. But as the poisonous quality of this laurel is now indubitably proved, the public ought to be cautioned against its internal use.

The following communication to the Royal Society, by Dr. Madden of Dublin, contains the first and principal proofs of the deleterious effects of this vegetable upon mankind:—
“A very extraordinary accident that fell out here some months ago, has discovered to us a most dangerous poison, which was never before known to be so, though it has been in frequent use among us. The thing I mean is a simple water, distilled from the leaves of the lauro-cerasus; the water is at first milky, but the oil which comes over the helm with it, being in a good measure separated from the phlegm, by passing it through a flannel bag it becomes as clear as common water. It has the smell of bitter almonds, or peach kernel, and has been for many years in frequent use among our housewives and cooks, to give that agreeable flavour to their creams and puddings. It has also been much in use among our drinkers of drams; and the proportions they generally use it in has been one part of laurel-water to four of brandy. Nor has this practice, however frequent, ever been attended with any apparent ill consequences, till some time in the month of September 1728, when it happened, that one Martha Boyse, a servant, who lived with a

person that sold great quantities of this water, got a bottle of it from her mistress, and gave it to her mother. Ann Boyse made a present of it to Frances Eaton, her sister, who was a shopkeeper in town, and who she thought might oblige her customers with it. Accordingly, in a few days, she gave about two ounces to a woman called Mary Whaley, who drank about two-thirds of what was filled out, and went away. Frances Eaton drank the rest. In a quarter of an hour after Mary Whaley had drank the water, (as I am informed), she complained of a violent disorder in her stomach, soon after lost her speech, and died in about an hour, without vomiting or purging, or any convulsion. The shopkeeper, F. Eaton, sent word to her sister, Ann Boyse, of what had happened, who came to her upon the message, and affirmed that it was not possible the cordial (as she called it) could have occasioned the death of the woman; and, to convince her of it, she filled out about three ounces, and drank it. She continued talking with F. Eaton about two minutes longer, and was so earnest to persuade her of the liquor's being inoffensive, that she drank about two spoonfuls more, but was hardly well seated in her chair, when she died without the least groan or convulsion. Frances Eaton who, as before observed, had drank somewhat more than a spoonful, found no disorder in her stomach or elsewhere; but, to prevent any ill consequences, she took a vomit immediately, and has been well ever since.”—Dr. Madden mentions another case, of a gentleman at Kilkenny, who mistook a bottle of laurel-water for a bottle of ptisan. What quantity he drank is uncertain, but he died in a few minutes, complaining of a violent disorder in his stomach. In addition to this, we may refer to the unfortunate case of Sir Theodosius Boughton, whose

death, in 1780, an English jury declared to be occasioned by this poison. In this case, the active principle of the lauro-cerasus was concentrated by repeated distillations, and given to the quantity of one ounce, the suddenly fatal effects of which must be still in the recollection of the public. To brute animals this poison is almost instantaneously mortal, as amply appears by the experiments of Madden, Mortimer, Nicholls, Fontana, Langrish, Vater, and others. The experiments conducted by these gentlemen shew that the laurel-water is destructive to animal life, not only when taken into the stomach, but also on being injected into the intestines, or applied externally to different organs of the body. It is remarked by Abbe Fontana, that this poison, even "when applied in a very small quantity, to the eyes, or to the inner part of the mouth, without touching the œsophagus, or being carried into the stomach, is capable of killing an animal in a few minutes: whilst applied in a much greater quantity to wounds, it has so little activity, that the weakest animals, such as pigeons, resist its action."

The most volatile is the most active part of the lauro-cerasus; and if we judge from its sensible qualities, an analogous principle seems to pervade many other vegetable substances, especially the kernels of drupaceous fruits; and in various species of the amygdalus, this sapid principle extends to the flowers and leaves. It is of importance to notice, that this is much less powerful in its action upon human subjects than upon dogs, rabbits, pigeons, and reptiles. To poison man, the essential oil of the lauro-cerasus must be separated by distillation, as in the spirituous or common laurel-water; and unless this is strongly imbued with the oil, or given in a large dose, it proves innocent. Dr. Cullen observes, that the seda-

tive power of the lauro-cerasus acts upon the nervous system in a different manner from opium and other narcotic substances, whose primary action is upon the animal functions; for the lauro-cerasus does not occasion sleep, nor does it produce local inflammation, but seems to act directly upon the vital powers. Abbe Fontana supposes that this poison destroys animal life, by exerting its effects upon the blood; but the experiments and observations from which he draws this opinion are evidently inconclusive. It may also be remarked, that many of the Abbe's experiments contradict each other. Thus, it appears from the citation given above, that the poison of this vegetable, when applied to wounds, does not prove fatal; but future experiments led the Abbe to assert, that the oil of the lauro-cerasus, "whether given internally, or applied to the wounds of animals, is one of the most terrible and deadly poisons known." Though this vegetable seems to have escaped the notice of Stoerck, yet it is not without advocates for its medical use. Linnæus informs us, that in Switzerland it is commonly and successfully used in pulmonary complaints. Langrish mentions its efficacy in agues; and as Bergius found bitter almonds to have this effect, we may by analogy conclude, that this power of the lauro-cerasus is well established. Baylies found, that it possessed a remarkable power of diluting the blood, and from experience, recommended it in all cases of disease supposed to proceed from too dense a state of that fluid; adducing particular instances of its efficacy in rheumatism, asthma, and in scirrhus affections. Nor does this author seem to have been much afraid of the deleterious quality of lauro-cerasus, as he directs a pound of its leaves to be macerated in a pint of water, of which he gives from thirty to sixty drops three or four times a day.

LAURUS, (*Laurus*, *i*, & *its*, *f*. from *laus*, praise, because it was usual to crown the heads of eminent men with branches of it). Sweet-bay. *Laurus nobilis*; *foliis venosis lanceolatis perennantibus, floribus quadridis* of Linnæus. Class *Enneandria*. Order *Monogynia*. This tree is a native of Italy, but cultivated in our gardens and shrubberies as a handsome evergreen. The leaves and berries possess the same medicinal qualities, both having a sweet fragrant smell, and an aromatic adstringent taste. The laurus of honorary memory, the distinguished favorite of Apollo, may be naturally supposed to have had no inconsiderable fame as a medicine; but its pharmaceutical uses are so limited in the practice of the present day, that this dignified plant is now rarely employed, except in the way of enema, or as an external application; thus, in the London pharmacopœia, the leaves are directed in the *decoctum pro fomento*, and the berries in the *emplastrum cumini*.

LAURUS BENZOIN. The systematic name of the benjamin-tree. See *Benzoinum*.

LAURUS CAMPHORA. The systematic name of the camphire-tree. See *Camphora*.

LAURUS CINNAMOMUM. The systematic name of the cinnamon-tree. See *Cinnamomum*.

LAURUS CULILAWAN. The systematic name of the plant whose bark is called *cortex culilawan* in the shops.

LAURUS NOBILIS. The systematic name of the sweet-bay tree. See *Laurus*.

LAURUS SASSAFRAS. The systematic name of the sassafras-tree. See *Sassafras*.

LAVENDER, FRENCH. See *Stæchas*.

LAVENDŪLA, (*Lavendula*, *a*, *f*. from *lavo*, to wash; so called because on account its fragrancy it was used

in baths). Common lavender. *Lavendula spica* of Linnæus. *Lavendula foliis sessilibus lanceolato-linearibus marginibus revolutis, spica interrupta nuda*. Class *Didynamia*. Order *Gymnospermia*. A native of the southern parts of Europe, but cultivated in our gardens on account of the fragrance of its flowers. Their taste is bitter, warm, and somewhat pungent; the leaves are weaker and less grateful. The essential oil, obtained by distillation, is of a bright yellow colour, of a very pungent taste, and possesses, if carefully distilled, the fragrance of the lavender in perfection. Lavender has been long recommended in nervous debilities, and various affections proceeding from a want of energy in the animal functions. The college directs an essential oil, a simple spirit, and a compound tincture, to be kept in the shops.

LAVENDULA SPICA. The systematic name of the common lavender. See *Lavendula*.

LAVENDŪLA STÆCHAS. The systematic name of the French lavender. See *Stæchas*.

LAWSONIA INERMIS. The systematic name of the true alkanna. See *Alkanna vera*.

LAXATOR TYMPANI, (*Laxator*, *oris*, *m*. from *laxo*, to loosen; so called from its office to relax the drum of the ear). *Externus mallei* of Albinus. *Anterior mallei* of Winslow. *Obliquus auris* of Douglas. A muscle of the internal ear, that draws the malleus obliquely forwards towards its origin; consequently the membrana tympani is made less concave, or is relaxed.

LEAD. *Plumbum*. An imperfect metal, of a dull white colour, inclining to a blue. It is very soft, and easily cut with a knife: has a peculiar and remarkable smell, which becomes stronger by friction. Its taste is scarcely sensible in the mouth, but its effect is very manifest in the sto-

mach and intestines, whose nerves it irritates, producing pain, convulsions, stupor, and palsy. Lead is rarely found native, but mostly in the earthy, saline, or mineralized form, united with sulphur, and forming galena. This metal melts readily when exposed to heat, long before it is heated to ignition, and, if melted in contact with air, it readily attracts its oxygen, forming an oxyd in the form of a gray pellicle. A more violent heat changes this gray pellicle into a dark yellow oxyd, which, if cooled by the effusion of boiling water, ground and washed, and exposed for forty-eight hours to a moderate but steady heat in a furnace, and then passed through fine sieves into barrels, forms minium or red lead. See *Oxydum plumbi rubrum*. But, if the heat be increased suddenly, it melts into a semivitrified mass called litharge. See *Oxydum plumbi semivitreum*. All the acids dissolve lead very speedily. Dissolved in vinegar, the solution is termed acetite of lead, which, if evaporated and cooled, deposits prismatic crystals. See *Cerussa acetata*. Lead is made into utensils and vessels for various economical purposes, but not without danger in their use; for its noxious qualities are soon communicated to the substance they contain. Those who work in manufactories where this metal is concerned, are continually attacked with colics (see *Colica pictorum*), often accompanied with vomiting, and not unfrequently with palsies. The various preparations of lead, directed in our pharmacopœias, should therefore be very cautiously administered internally; nor should they, in very delicate habits, be freely employed externally. Most of the preparations are esteemed as resolvent and anodyne applications to external inflammatory affections.

LAZŪLI LAPIS. See *Lapis lazuli*.

LEDUM PALUSTRE. The systematic name of the *rosmarinus sylvestris*. See *Rosmarinus sylvestris*.

LEIPOTHYMIA, (*Leipothymia*, *a*, f. *λειποθυμία*; from *λεπω*, to leave, and *θυμος*, the mind). See *Syncope*.

LEMITHOCHORTON. See *Corallina corficana*.

LEMON. See *Limon*.

LEMON SCURVY GRASS. See *Cochliaria bortenfis*.

LENS, (*Lens*, *tis*, f. a *lentore*, from its glutinous quality). The lentil. *Ervum lens*; *pedunculis subbifloris*; *seminibus compressis, convexis* of Linnæus; *φανος* of the Greek writers. There are two varieties; the one with large, the other small seeds. They are eaten in many places as we eat peas, than which they are more flatulent, and more difficult to digest. A decoction of these seeds is used as a lotion to the ulcerations after small pox, and it is said with success. See also *Chryselline lens*.

LEPRA, (*Lepra*, *a*, f. from *λεπρις*, a scale; named from its appearance). The leprosy. A disease in the class *cachexia*, and order *impetigines* of Cullen, characterized by the skin being rough and chapped, with white scurfaceous scales and crusts, under which is frequently a moisture, with itching.

LEPRA ALBA. See *Lepra alphas*.

LEPRA GRÆCORUM. Dr. Willan describes this disease as characterized by scaly patches, of different sizes, but having always nearly a circular form. In this country, three varieties of the disease are observed, which he has described under the titles of *Lepra vulgaris*, *Lepra alphas*, *Lepra nigricans*.

1. The *Lepra vulgaris* exhibits first small distinct elevations of the cuticle, which are reddish and shining, but never contain any fluid; these patches continue to enlarge gradually, till they nearly equal the dimensions

of a crown-piece. They have always an orbicular, or oval form; are covered with dry scales, and surrounded by a red border. The scales accumulate on them so as to form a thick prominent crust, which is quickly re-produced, whether it fall off spontaneously, or may have been forcibly detached. This species of lepra sometimes appears first at the elbow, or on the fore-arm; but more generally about the knee. In the latter case the primary patch forms immediately below the patella, within a few weeks, several other scaly circles appear along the fore part of the leg and thigh, increasing by degrees till they come nearly into contact. The disease is then often stationary for a considerable length of time. If it advance further, the progress is towards the hip and loins; afterwards to the sides, back, shoulders; and about the same time to the arms and hands. In the greater number of cases the hairy scalp is the part last affected: although the circles formed on it remain for some time distinct, yet they finally unite, and cover the whole surface on which the hair grows, with a white scaly incrustation. This appearance is attended, more especially in hot weather, with a troublesome itching, and with a watery discharge for several hours, when any portion of the crust is detached, which takes place from very slight impressions. The pubes in adults is sometimes affected in the same manner as the head: and if the subject be a female there is usually an internal *pruritus pudendi*. In some cases of the disorder, the nails, both of the fingers and toes, are thickened, and deeply indented longitudinally. When the lepra extends universally, it becomes highly disgusting in its appearance, and inconvenient from the stiffness and torpor occasioned by it in the limbs. The disease, however, even

in this advanced stage, is seldom disposed to terminate spontaneously. It continues nearly in the same state for several years, or sometimes during the whole life of the person affected, not being apparently connected with any disorder of the constitution.

2. *Lepra alphos*. The scaly patches in the alphos are smaller than those of the *lepra vulgaris*, and also differ from them in having their central parts depressed or indented. This disorder usually begins about the elbow, with distinct, eminent asperities, of a dull red colour, and not much longer than papillæ. These in a short time dilate to nearly the size of a silver penny. Two or three days afterwards the central part of them suffers a depression, within which small white powdery scales may be observed. The surrounding border, however, still continues to be raised, but retains, the same size and the same red colour as at first. The whole of the fore-arm, and sometimes the back of the hand, is spotted with similar patches: they seldom become confluent excepting round the elbow, which in that case is covered with a uniform crust. This affection appears in the same manner upon the joint of the knee, but without spreading far along the thigh or leg. Dr. Willan has seldom seen it on the trunk of the body, and never on the face. It is a disease of long duration, and not less difficult to cure than the foregoing species of lepra: even when the scaly patches have been removed by persevering in the use of suitable applications, the cuticle still remains red, tender, and brittle, very slowly recovering its usual texture. The alphos, as above described, frequently occurs in this country.

3. The *Lepra nigricans* differs little from the *Lepra vulgaris*, as to its form or distribution. The most striking difference is in the colour of

the patches, which are dark and livid. They appear first on the legs and fore-arms, extending afterward to the thighs, loins, neck, and hands. Their central part is not depressed as in the alphas. They are somewhat smaller in size than the patches of the lepra vulgaris, and not only is the border livid or purplish, but the livid colour of the base likewise appears through the scaly incrustation, which is seldom very thick. It is further to be observed, that the scales are more easily detached than in the other forms of lepra, and that the surface remains longer excoriated, discharging lymph, often with an intermixture of blood, till a new incrustation forms, which is usually hard, brittle, and irregular. The lepra nigricans affects persons whose occupation is attended with much fatigue, and exposes them to cold or damp, and to a precarious or improper mode of diet, as soldiers, brewers, labourers, butchers, stage-coachmen, scullermen, &c.; some women are also liable to it who are habituated to poor living and constant hard labour.

LETHARGY. *Lethargus.* A heavy and constant sleep, with scarce any intervals of waking; when awakened, the person answers, but ignorant or forgetful of what he said, immediately sinks into the same state of sleep. It is symptomatic of fever, apoplexy, &c.

LETTUCE, GARDEN. See *Lactuca*.

LEUCANTHEMUM VULGARE, (λευκανθῆμον, from λευκος, white, and ανθος, a flower, so called from its white floret). See *Bellis major*.

LEUCOMA, (*Leucoma*, αῖτις, n. λευκομα, from λευκος, white). A variety of the *caligo cornea* of Cullen's nosology. See *Caligo*.

LEUCONYMPHÆA, (*Leuconymphæa*, α, f. λευκονυμφαια, from γένος, white, and νυμφαία, the water lily). See *Nymphæa alba*.

LEUCOPHLEGOMATIC, (*Leucophlegmasia*, from λευκος, white, and, φλεγμα, phlegm). A term applied by the older medical writers to a dropical habit of body.

LEUCOPĪPER, (*Leucopiper, eris*, n. λευκοπιπερ, from λευκος, white, and πιπερις, pepper). See *Piper nigrum*.

LEUCORRŒA, (*Leucorrhœa*, α, f. λευκορροια, from λευκος, white, and ῥέω, to flow). *Fluor albus*. The whites. An increased secretion of white mucus from the vagina of women, arising from debility, and not from the venereal virus.

LEVĀTOR ANGŪLI ORIS, (*Levātor, ōris*, m. from *levo*, to lift up; so named from its office, which is to lift up the part to which it is affixed). *Elevator labiorum communis* of Douglas. *Caninus* of Winslow. A muscle situated above the mouth, which draws the corner of the mouth upwards, and makes that part of the cheek opposite to the chin prominent, as in smiling. It arises thin and fleshy from the hollow of the superior maxillary bone, between the root of the socket of the first grinder and the foramen infra orbitarium, and is inserted into the angle of the mouth and under lip, where it joins with its antagonist.

LEVATOR ANI. This muscle arises from the os pubis, within the pelvis, as far up as the upper edge of the foramen thyroideum, and joining of the os pubis with the os ischium, from the thin tendinous membrane that covers the obturator internus and coccygæus muscles, from the spinous process of the ischium. From these origins all round the inside of the pelvis, its fibres run down like rays from a circumference to a center, to be inserted into the sphincter ani, acceleratores urinæ, and anterior part of the two last bones of the os coccygis, surrounding the extremity of the rectum, neck of the bladder, prostate gland, and part of the vesiculæ semi-

nales. Its fibres joining with those of its fellow form a funnel-shaped hole, that draws the rectum upwards after the evacuation of the fæces, and assists in shutting it. The levatores ani also sustain the contents of the pelvis, and assist in ejecting the semen, urine, and contents of the rectum, and perhaps, by pressing upon the veins, contribute greatly to the erection of the penis.

LEVATOR LABII INFERIORIS. *Levator menti* of Albinus. *Incisivus inferior* of Winslow. *Elevator labii inferioris proprius* of Douglas. A muscle of the mouth, situated below the lips; it arises from the lower jaw, at the roots of the alveoli of two incisor teeth and the cuspidatus, and is inserted into the under lip and skin of the chin.

LEVATOR LABII SUPERIORIS ALÆQUE NASI. *Elevator labii superioris proprius* of Douglas. *Incisivus lateralis et pyramidalis* of Winslow. A muscle of the mouth and lips, that raises the upper lip towards the orbit, and a little outwards; it serves also to draw the skin of the nose upwards and outwards, by which the nostril is dilated. It arises by two distinct origins; the first broad and fleshy from the external part of the orbital process of the superior maxillary bone, immediately above the foramen infra orbitarium; the second from the nasal process of the superior maxillary bone, where it joins the os frontis. The first portion is inserted into the upper lip and orbicularis muscle, the second into the upper lip, and outer part of the ala nasi.

LEVATOR OCULI. See *Rectus superior oculi*.

LEVATOR PALATI. *Levator palati mollis* of Albinus. *Petro-salpingo-staphilinus, vel salpingo-staphilinus internus vulgo* of Winslow. *Salpingo-staphilinus* of Valsalva. *Pterigo-staphilinus externus, vulgo*, of Douglas. *Sphæno-staphilinus* of Cowper. A muscle situated

between the lower jaw and the os hyoides laterally. It arises tendinous and fleshy from the extremity of the petrous portion of the temporal bone, where it is perforated by the Eustachian tube, and also from the membranous part of the same tube, and is inserted into the whole length of the velum pendulum palati, as far as the root of the uvula, and unites with its fellow. Its use is to draw the velum pendulum palati upwards and backwards, so as to shut the passage from the fauces into the mouth and nose.

LEVATOR PALATI MOLLIS. See *Levator palati*.

LEVATOR PALPÆBRÆ SUPERIORIS. *Aperiens palpebrarum rectus. Apertor oculi.* A proper muscle of the upper eyelid, that opens the eye, by drawing the eyelid upwards. It arises from the upper part of the foramen opticum of the sphænoid bone, above the rectus superior oculi, near the trochlearis, and is inserted by a broad thin tendon into the cartilage that supports the upper eyelid.

LEVATOR PARVUS. See *Transversus perinei*.

LEVATOR SCAPULÆ. A muscle situated on the posterior part of the neck, that pulls the scapula upwards, and a little forwards. This name, which was first given to it by Riolanus, has been adopted by Albinus. Douglas calls it *elevator seu musculus patientiæ*; and Winslow, *angularis vulgo levator proprius*. It is a long muscle, nearly two inches in breadth, and is situated obliquely under the anterior edge of the trapezius. It arises tendinous and fleshy from the transverse processes of the four, and sometimes five superior vertebræ colli, by so many distinct slips, which soon unite to form a muscle that runs obliquely downwards and outwards, and is inserted by a flat tendon into the upper angle of the scapula. Its use is to raise the scapula upwards and a little forwards.

LEVISTICUM, (*Levisicum, i, n.*

from *levo*, to assuage; so called from the relief it gives in painful flatulencies). *Levage*. The odour of this plant, *Ligustrum levisiticum* of Linnæus, (*Ligustrum foliis multiplicibus, foliolis superne incis.* Class *Pentandria*. Order *Digynia*), is very strong and particularly ungrateful; its taste is warm and aromatic. It abounds with a yellowish gummy resinous juice, very much resembling opoponax. Its virtues are supposed to be similar to those of angelica and master-wort in expelling flatulences, exciting sweat, and opening obstructions; therefore it is chiefly used in hysterical disorders and uterine obstructions. The leaves eaten in salad are accounted emmenagogue. The root, which is less ungrateful than the leaves, is said to possess similar virtues, and may be employed in powder.

LICHEN, (*Lichen, enis*, m. λεῖχνη, or λῆχη, a tetter or ring-worm). Lichen is by Dr. Willan defined, an extensive eruption of papulæ affecting adults, connected with internal disorder, usually terminating in scurf, recurrent, not contagious. The varieties of lichen he considers under the denominations of *Lichen simplex*, *Lichen agrius*, *Lichen pilaris*, *Lichen lividus*, and *Lichen tropicus*.

1. The *Lichen simplex* usually commences with head-ache, flushing of the face, loss of appetite, general languor, and increased quickness of the pulse. Distinct red papulæ arise first about the cheeks and chin, or on the arms; and in the course of three or four days the same appearance takes place on the neck, body, and lower extremities, accompanied with an unpleasant sensation of tingling, which is somewhat aggravated during the night. In about a week the colour of the eruption fades, and the cuticle begins to separate; the whole surface is at length covered with scurfy exfoliations, which are particularly large,

and continue longest in the flexures of the joints. The duration of the complaint is seldom in any two cases alike; ten, fourteen, seventeen, or sometimes twenty days intervene betwixt the eruption and the renovation of the cuticle. The febrile state, or rather the state of irritation at the beginning of this disorder, is seldom considerable enough to confine the patient to the house. After remaining five or six days, it is generally relieved on the appearance of the eruption. This, as well as some other species of the lichen, occurs about the beginning of summer or in autumn, more especially affecting persons of a weak and irritable habit, hence women are more liable to it than men. Lichen simplex is also a frequent sequel of acute diseases, particularly fever and catarrhal inflammation, of which it seems to produce a crisis. In these cases the eruption has been termed by medical writers scabies critica. Many instances of it are collected under that title by Sauvages, Nosol. Method. Class x. Order 5. *Impetigines*.

2. The *Lichen agrius* is preceded by nausea, pain in the stomach, head-ache, loss of strength, and deep-seated pains in the limbs, with fits of coldness and shivering, which symptoms continue several days, and are sometimes relieved by the papulous eruption. The papulæ are distributed in clusters, or often in large patches, chiefly on the arms, the upper part of the breast, the neck, face, back, and sides of the abdomen; they are of a vivid red colour, and have a redness, or some degree of inflammation, diffused round them to a considerable extent, and attended with itching, heat, and a painful tingling. Dr. Willan has observed, in one or two cases where it was produced from imprudent exposure to cold, that an acute disease ensued, with great quickness of the pulse, heat, thirst,

pains of the bowels, frequent vomiting, head-ache, and delirium. After these symptoms had continued ten days, or somewhat longer, the patient recovered, though the eruption did not return. The diffuse redness connecting the papulæ, and the tendency to become pustular, distinguish the lichen agrius from the lichen simplex, and the other varieties of this complaint, in which the inflammation does not extend beyond the basis of the papulæ, and which terminates in scurf or scales.

3. *Lichen pilaris*. This is merely a modification of the first species of lichen, and, like it, often alternates with complaints of the head or stomach, in irritable habits. The peculiarity of the eruption is, that the small tubercles or asperities appear only at the roots of the hairs of the skin, being probably occasioned by an enlargement of their bulbs, or an unusual fulness of the blood-vessels distributed to them. This affection is distinguishable from the cutis asserina, by its permanency, by its red papulæ, and by the troublesome itching or tingling which attends it. If a part thus affected be violently rubbed, some of the papulæ enlarge to the size of wheals, but the tumour soon subsides again. The eruption continues more or less vivid for about ten days, and terminates, as usual, in small exfoliations of the cuticle, one of which surrounds the base of each hair. This complaint, as likewise the lichen agrius, frequently occurs in persons accustomed to drink largely of spirituous liquors undiluted.

4. *Lichen lividus*. The papulæ characterising this eruption are of a dark red or livid hue, and somewhat more permanent than in the foregoing species of lichen. They appear chiefly on the arms and legs, but sometimes extend to other parts of the body. They are finally succeeded, though at very uncertain periods, by slight

exfoliations of the cuticle after which a fresh eruption is not preceded, nor attended by any febrile symptoms. It principally affects persons of a weak constitution, who live on a poor diet and are engaged in laborious occupations. Young persons, and often children living in confined situations, or using little exercise, are also subject to the lichen lividus; and in them the papulæ are generally intermixed with the petechiæ, or larger purple spots, resembling vibices. This circumstance points out the affinity of the lichen lividus with the purpura or land-scurvy, and the connection is further proved by the exciting causes, which are the same in both complaints. The same method of treatment is likewise successful in both cases. They are presently cured by nourishing food, moderate exercise in the open air, along with the use of Peruvian and vitriolic acid, or the tincture of muriated steel.

5. *Lichen tropicus*. By this term is expressed the prickly heat, a papulous eruption, almost universally affecting Europeans settled in tropical climates. The prickly heat appears without any preceding disorder of the constitution. It consists of numerous papulæ, about the size of a small pin's head, and elevation so as to produce a considerable roughness of the skin. The papulæ are of a vivid red colour, and often exhibit an irregular form, two or three of them being in many places united together; but no redness or inflammation extends to the skin in the interstices of the papulæ.

LICHEN CANINUS. The systematic name of the ash-coloured ground liver wort. See *Lichen cinereus terrestris*.

LICHEN CINERÆUS TERRESTRIS. *Muscus caninus*. This cryptogamous plant, called ash-coloured ground liver wort, and scientifically, *Lichen caninus* by Linnæus, has a weak,

faint smell, and a sharpish taste. It was for a long time highly extolled as a medicine of singular virtue, in preventing and curing that dreadful disorder which is produced by the bite of rabid animals, but now deservedly forgotten. See *Pulvis antilyssus*.

LICHEN COCCIFĒRUS. See *Muscus pyxidatus*.

LICHEN ISLANDĪCUS. The medicinal qualities of the lichen islandicus have lately been so well established at Vienna, that this plant is now admitted into the materia medica of the Edinburgh pharmacopœia. It is extremely mucilaginous, and to the taste is bitter, and somewhat astringent. Its bitterness, as well as the purgative quality which it manifests, in its recent state, are in a great measure dissipated on drying, or may be extracted by a slight infusion in water, so that the inhabitants of Iceland convert it into a tolerably grateful and nutritive food. An ounce of this Lichen, boiled a quarter of an hour in a pint of water, yielded seven ounces of a mucilage as thick as that procured by the solution of one pint of gum arabic in three of water.

The medical virtues of this lichen were probably first learned from the Icelanders, who employ it in its fresh state as a laxative; but when deprived of this quality and properly prepared, we are told that it is an efficacious remedy in consumptions, coughs, dysenteries, and diarrhæas. Scopoli seems to have been the first who of late years called the attention of physicians to this remedy in consumptive disorders: and further instances of its success are related by Herz, Cramer, Tromsdorff, Ebeling, Paulsky, Stoll, and others, who bear testimony of its efficacy in most of the other complaints above mentioned. Dr. Herz says, that since he first used

the lichen in dysentery, he found it so successful, that he never had occasion to employ any other remedy; it must be observed, however, that cathartics and emetics were always repeatedly administered before he had recourse to the lichen, to which he also occasionally added opium. Dr. Crichton informs us, that during seven months residence at Vienna he had frequent opportunities of seeing the lichen islandicus tried in phthisis pulmonalis at the general hospitals, and confesses, "that it by no means answered the expectation he had formed of it." He adds, however, "from what I have seen, I am fully convinced in my own mind that there are only two species of this disease where this sort of lichen promises a cure. The two species I hint at, are the phthisis hæmoptoica, and the phthisis pituitosa or mucosa. In several cases of these I have seen the patients so far get the better of their complaints as to be dismissed the hospital cured, but whether they remained long so or not I cannot take upon me to say." That this lichen strengthens the digestive powers, and proves extremely nutritious, there can be no doubt; but the great medicinal efficacy attributed to it at Vienna will not readily be credited at London. It is commonly given in the form of a decoction; an ounce and a half of the lichen being boiled in a quart of milk. Of this a tea-cupful is directed to be drank frequently in the course of the day. If milk disagree with the stomach, a simple decoction of the Lichen in water is to be used. Care ought to be taken that it be boiled over a slow fire, and not longer than a quarter of an hour.

LICHEN PLICĀTUS. The systematic name of the *muscus arboreus*. See *Muscus arboreus*.

LICHEN PULMONĀRIUS. The systematic name of the officinal muscus

pulmonarius quercinus. See *Pulmonaria arborea*.

LICHEN PYXIDATUS. The systematic name of the cup moss. See *Muscus pyxidatus*.

LICHEN ROCCELLA. The systematic name of the roccella of the shops. See *Roccella*.

LICHEN SAXATILIS. The systematic name of the muscus crani humani. See *Ufnea*.

LIENTERIA, (*Lienteria*, α, f. λειν-
τερια, from λειος, smooth, εντερων, the
intestine, and ῥεω, to flow). A spe-
cies of diarrhoea. See *Diarrhoea*.

LIFE, ANIMAL. To live, may be defined the property of acting from an intrinsic power; hence the life of an animal body appears to be threefold. 1. *Its Chemical Life*, which consists in that attraction of the elements, by which the vital principle, diffused through the solids and fluids, defends all the parts of the body from putrefaction. In this sense it may be said, that every atom of our body lives *chemically*, and that life is destroyed by putrefaction alone. 2. *Its Physical Life*, which consists in the irritability of the parts. This physical property remains for some time after death. Thus the heart or intestines removed from the body, whilst still warm, contract themselves on the application of a stimulus. In like manner, the serpent or eel being cut into pieces, each part moves and palpitates for a long time afterwards. Hence these parts may be said to live *physically*, as long as they continue warm and soft. 3. *Its Physiological Life* consists in the action of inorganic parts proper to each, as the action of the heart and vessels; so that, these actions ceasing, the body is said to be physiologically dead. The physiological life ceases first, next the physical, and finally the chemical perishes.

LIGAMENT, (*Ligament*, i, n. from

ligo, to bind). Ligaments are elastic and strong membranes connecting the extremities of the moveable bones. They are divided into *capsular*, which surround joints like a bag, and *connecting* ligaments. The use of the capsular ligaments is to connect the extremities of the moveable bones, and prevent the efflux of synovia; the external and internal connecting ligaments strengthen the extremities of the moveable bones.

A Table of all the Ligaments.

Ligaments of the lower jaw. The condyles of the lower jaw are connected with the articular sinuses of the temporal bone by two ligaments, the capsular and lateral ligament.

Ligaments of the occipital bone, and vertebrae of the neck. The condyles of the occipital bone are united with the articular depressions of the first vertebrae by the capsular, broad, anterior, and posterior ligaments, the ligaments of the odontoid process, and ligamentum nuchae.

Ligaments of the vertebrae. The vertebrae are connected together by means of their bodies and oblique processes. The bodies by a soft cartilaginous substance, and the processes by ligaments, viz. the transverse ligament of the first vertebrae; the anterior and posterior common; the interspinous; the intertransverse; the intervertebral ligaments: the capsular ligaments of the oblique processes; and the ligaments of the last vertebrae of the loins with the os sacrum.

Ligaments of the ribs. The posterior extremity of the ribs is united with the vertebrae; the anterior with the sternum. The ligaments of the posterior extremity are, the capsular ligaments of the greater and lesser heads; the internal and external ligaments of the neck of the ribs; and a ligament peculiar to the last

rib. The ligaments of the anterior extremity are, the capsular ligaments of the cartilages of the true ribs, and the ligaments of the ribs *inter se*.

Ligaments of the sternum. The ligaments connecting the three portions of the sternum to the ribs are, the membrana propria of the sternum; and the ligaments of the ensiform cartilage.

Ligaments of the pelvis. The ligaments which connect the ossa innominata with the os sacrum are, three ligamenta ileo sacra; two sacroischiatric ligaments; two transverse ligaments of the pelvis: the ligamentum obturans of the foramen ovale, and the ligamentum Poupartii, or inguinale. See *Pelvis*.

Ligaments of the os coccygis. The basis of the os coccygis is connected to the apex of the os sacrum, by the capsular and longitudinal ligaments.

Ligaments of the clavicle. The anterior extremity is connected with the sternum and first rib; and the posterior extremity with the acromion of the scapula, by the interclavicular, the capsular ligament, the ligamentum rhomboideum, and in the posterior extremity, the capsular ligament.

Ligaments of the scapula. The proper ligaments which connect the scapula with the posterior extremity of the clavicle are, the conoid and trapezoid ligaments.

Ligaments of the humerus. The head of the humerus is connected with the glenoid cavity of the scapula by the capsular ligament.

Ligaments of the articulation of the cubit. The elbow joint is formed by the inferior extremity of the humerus, and superior extremities of the ulna and radius. The ligaments connecting these bones are, the capsular, the brachio-cubital, and the brachio-radial ligaments.

Ligaments of the radius. The

radius is affixed to the humerus, cubit, and carpus, by peculiar ligaments, namely, the superior, inferior, oblique, and interosseous ligaments.

Ligaments of the carpus. The ligaments which connect the eight bones of the wrist together, and with the fore-arm and metacarpus, are, the capsular ligament of the carpus; the first and second transverse ligament; the oblique ligaments, and the capsular ligament proper to the bones of the carpus.

Ligaments of the metacarpus. The bones of the metacarpus are in part connected with the second row of bones of the carpus, and in part together, by the articular and interosseous ligaments.

Ligaments of the fingers. The fingers and phalanges are connected together, and with the metacarpus; and the thumb with the carpus, by the lateral ligaments of the fingers, and ligament of the thumb with the os trapezium of the carpus.

Ligaments which keep the tendons of the muscles of the hand in their proper place. The ligaments which keep tendons of the muscles of the hand in their place, are situated partly on the palm and partly on the back of the hand. In the back of the hand are, the external transverse ligament of the carpus, the vaginal, and the transverse ligaments of the extensor tendons. In the palm of the hand are, the internal transverse ligament of the carpus, the vaginal or crucial ligaments of the flexor tendons of the phalanges, and the accessory ligaments of the flexor tendons.

Ligaments of the articulation of the femur. The head of the os femoris is strongly annexed to the acetabulum of the os innominatum, by two very strong ligaments, the capsular ligament, and ligamentum teres, or restraining ligament.

Ligaments of the articulation of the knee. The knee joint is formed by

the condyles of the os femoris, head of the tibia and the patella. The ligaments are the capsular, the posterior, the external and the internal lateral ligaments, the crucial and the alar ligaments, the ligaments of the femilunar cartilages, and ligaments of the patella.

Ligaments of the fibula. The fibula is connected with the tibia by means of the capsular ligament of the superior extremity, the interosseous ligament, and the ligaments of the inferior extremity.

Ligaments of the articulation of the tarsus. The inferior extremity of the tibia and fibula forms the cavity into which the astragalus of the tarsus is received. This articulation is effected by the anterior, middle, and posterior ligament of the fibula, the ligamentum tibiæ deltoïdes, the capsular ligament, and the ligaments proper to the bones of the tarsus.

Ligaments of the metatarsus. The bones of the metatarsus are connected in part together, and in part with the tarsus, by means of the capsular ligament, the articular ligaments, the transverse ligaments in the back and sole of the foot, and the interosseous ligaments of the metatarsus.

Ligaments of the toes. The phalanges of the toes are united partly together, and partly with the metatarsus, by the capsular and lateral ligaments.

Ligaments which retain the tendons of the muscles of the foot in their proper place. These ligaments are found partly in the back and partly in the sole of the foot. They are the vaginal ligament of the tibia, the transverse or crucial ligaments of the tarsus, the ligaments of the tendons of the peronei muscles, the lacinated ligament, the vaginal ligament of the extensor muscle and flexor pollicis, the vaginal ligaments of the flexor tendons, the accessory ligaments of the flexor tendons, and

the transverse ligaments of the extensor tendons.

LIGAMENTUM CILIARE. Behind the uvea of the human eye, there arise out of the choroid membrane, from the ciliary circle, white complicated striæ, covered with a black matter, and running from thence backwards, firmly attached to the very thin membrane of the vitreous humour, where it is inserted into the crystalline lens. The fluctuating extremities of these striæ are spread abroad even to the crystalline lens, upon which they lie, but are not affixed. Taken together they are called *ligamentum ciliare*.

LIGAMENTUM OVARII. The thick round portion of the broad ligament of the uterus, by which the ovarium is connected with the uterus. The ancients supposed this was hollow, to convey the female semen into the uterus.

LIGHT. *Lux.* It is at present universally acknowledged that light is a body or fluid, existing independent of all other substances, and possessing its own characteristic properties, or phenomena, which are as follow: 1. The motion of light is so rapid, that it passes through nearly eight thousand leagues in a second. 2. The elasticity of the rays of light is such, that the angle of reflexion is equal to the angle of incidence. 3. The fluid of light is ponderous; for if a ray of light be received through a hole, and the blade of a knife presented to it, the ray is diverted from a right line, and is reflected towards the body. This circumstance shows that it obeys the law of attraction, and sufficiently authorizes its being classed among other ponderous bodies. 4. The great NEWTON succeeded in decomposing the solar light into seven primitive rays, which present themselves in the following order: red, orange, yellow, green, blue, indigo, violet. Dyers present us with only three colours, which are red, blue, and yellow; the com-

binations and proportions of these three principles form all the shades of colour with which the arts are enriched.

LIGNUM AGALLOCHI VERI. See *Lignum aloes*.

LIGNUM ALOES. *Lignum agallochi veri*. *Lignum calambac*. *Lignum aspalathi*. *Xyloaëtes*. The tree whose wood bears this name is not yet scientifically known. It is imported from China in small, compact, ponderous pieces, of a yellow rusty brown color, with black or purplish veins, and sometimes of a black colour. It has a bitterish resinous taste, and a slight aromatic smell. It is used to fumigate rooms in eastern countries.

LIGNUM ASPALĀTHI. See *Lignum aloes*.

LIGNUM CALAMBAC. See *Lignum aloes*.

LIGNUM CAMPECHENSE, (*Campechensis*; so called because it was brought from Campeachy, in the bay of Honduras). *Lignum campechianum*. *Lignum sappan*. Logwood. The wood of this tree, *Hæmatoxylum campechianum* of Linnæus, Class *Decandria*. Order *Monogynia*, is of a solid texture, and of a dark red colour. It is imported principally as a substance for dying, cut intounks and logs of about three feet in length: of these pieces the largest and thickest are preserved, as being of the deepest colour. Logwood has a sweetish subadstringent taste, and no remarkable smell; it gives a purplish red tincture both to watery and spirituous infusions, and tinges the stools, and sometimes the urine, of the same colour. It is employed medicinally as an adstringent and corroborant. In diarrhœas it has been found peculiarly efficacious, and has the recommendation of some of the first medical authorities; also in the latter stages of dysentery, when the obstructing causes are re-

moved; to obviate the extreme laxity of the intestines usually superinduced by the repeated dejections. An extract is ordered in the pharmacopœias.

LIGNUM INDICUM. See *Guaiacum*.

LIGNUM MOLUCCENSE. See *Lignum pavanæ*.

LIGNUM NEPHRITICUM. Nephritic wood. The wood of the *Guilandina moringa*; *inermis foliis sub-bipinnatis, foliis inferioribus ternatis* of Linnæus, which also affords the *nux been*. It is brought from America in large, compact, ponderous pieces, without knots, the outer part of a whitish, or pale yellowish colour, the inner of a dark brown, or red. When rasped it gives out a faint aromatic smell. It is never used medicinally in this country, but stands high in reputation abroad, in difficulties of urine, nephritic complaints, and most disorders of the kidneys and urinary passages.

LIGNUM PAVANÆ. *Lignum pavanum*. *Lignum moluccense*. The wood of the *Croton tiglium*; *foliis ovatis glabris acuminatis ferratis, caule arboreo* of Linnæus, which affords the *grana tiglii*. It is of a light spongy texture, white within, but covered with a greyish bark; and possesses a pungent, caustic taste, and a disagreeable smell. It is said to be useful as a purgative in hydropical complaints.

LIGNUM RHODIUM. See *Rosewood*.

LIGNUM SANCTUM. See *Guaiacum*.

LIGNUM SANTALI RUBRI. See *Santalum rubrum*.

LIGNUM SAPPAN. See *Lignum campechense*.

LIGNUM SERPENTUM. The wood of the *Ophyoxylum serpentinum* of Linnæus. It is said to be an alexipharmic.

LIGUSTICUM LEVISTICUM. The systematic name of lovage. See *Levisticum*.

LILIUM ALBUM, (*Lilium*, i, n. from λειος, smooth, graceful; so named from the beauty of its leaf). The roots of the common white lily, *Lilium candidum*; *foliis sparsis, corollis campanulatis, intus glabris*. Class *Hexandria*. Order *Monogynia*, are directed by the Edinburgh pharmacopœia; they are extremely mucilaginous, and chiefly used, boiled in milk and water, in emollient and suppurating cataplasms.

LILIUM CANDIDUM. The systematic name of the white lily. See *Lilium album*.

LILIUM CONVALLIUM. *Convallaria*. *Maianthemum*. Lily of the valley. May lily. The flowers, of this plant, *Convallaria majalis scapo nudo* of Linnæus, have a penetrating bitter taste, and are given in nervous and catarrhal disorders.

LILLY, MAY. See *Lilium convallium*.

LILLY, WHITE. See *Lilium album*.

LILLY, WATER. See *Nymphæa alba* and *Nymphæa lutea*.

LILLY OF THE VALLEY. See *Lilium convallium*.

LIMĀCES, (*Limax, acis*, m. plur. *limaces*; from *limus*, slime, so named from its sliminess). *Cochleæ terrestres*. Snails. These animals abound with a viscid slimy juice, which it readily gives out by boiling, to milk or water, so as to render them thick and glutinous. These decoctions are apparently very nutritious and demulcent, and are recommended in consumptive cases and emaciations.

LIMATŪRA FERRI. Steel filings are considered as possessing stimulating and strengthening qualities, and are exhibited in worm cases, ataxia, leucorrhœa, diarrhœa, chlorosis, &c.

LIME. *Calx*. Calcareous earth. A substance obtained by decomposing

calcareous matters by the action of fire, which deprives them of their acid. Stones composed of shells, marbles, and most calcareous spars, are the substances which afford the best lime; but the hard calcareous stone, called lime-stone, is more commonly used. These are arranged in a furnace or kiln, so as to form a kind of vault, beneath which a wood fire is lighted, and kept up until a strong flame, without smoke, is raised about ten feet above the furnace, and till the stones become very white. Good quick-lime is hard, sonorous, becomes speedily and strongly heated by the addition of water, and emits a dense vapour during its extinction. It is usually in the form of a stone, of a dirty white colour; its taste is burning, acrid, and urinous; and it is sufficiently strong to cause inflammation when applied to the skin. It is found native in the vicinity of volcanos. Lime, exposed to the air, swells, breaks, and is reduced to powder, its bulk being considerably increased: it is then termed slack-lime. There are many neutral salts into whose composition lime enters; those, however, which are employed in medicine are four in number: 1. The carbonate of lime, or chalk. See *Creta*. 2. The citrate of lime, called also *lapides cancrorum citrati*, and *conchæ citratæ*, formed of a combination of lime with the citric acid. It is given in doses of from one to two drachms, in any vehicle, as a diuretic and deobstruent, in vomitings, prurigo cutis, &c. 3. The muriat of lime; *calx salita* of Bergman. The illustrious FOURCROY recommends this salt in the various forms of scrofula. 4. The phosphate of lime, called also *cornu cervi ustum seu calcinatum*. This is given from half a drachm to a drachm at a dose in rachitis. Quick-lime is employed by surgeons in combination with soap or other substances as a power-

ful caustic : and lime water is of considerable utility both in the practice of physice and surgery.

LIME-TREE. See *Tilia*.

LIMON, (*Limōnum*, i, n. and *limon*, *ōnis*, m. Heb.) *Citrea malus*.

Citrus. The lemon. The tree which affords this fruit is the *Citrus medica*; *petiolis linearibus* of Linnæus. Class *Polyadelphia*. Order *Icosandria*: a native of the upper parts of Asia, but cultivated in Spain, Portugal, and France. The juice, which is much more acid than that of the orange, possesses similar virtues. It is always preferred where a strong vegetable acid is required. Saturated with the fixed vegetable alkali, it forms the *kali citratum*, which is in frequent extemporaneous use in febrile diseases, and by promoting the secretions, especially that of the skin, proves of considerable service in abating the violence of pyrexia. As an antiscorbutic, the citric acid is also very generally taken on board ships destined for long voyages; but even when well depurated of its mucilaginous parts, it is found to spoil by long keeping. To preserve it in purity for a considerable length of time, it is necessary that it should be brought to a highly concentrated state, and for this purpose it has been recommended to expose the juice to a degree of cold sufficient to congeal the aqueous and mucilaginous parts. After a crust of ice is formed, the juice is poured into another vessel; and, by repeating this process several times, the remaining juice, it is said, has been concentrated to eight times its original strength, and kept without suffering any material change for several years. The exterior rind of the lemon is a very grateful aromatic bitter, not so hot as orange peel, yielding in distillation a less quantity of oil, which is extremely light, almost colourless, and generally brought

brought from the southern parts of Europe, under the name of Essence of Lemons. The lemon-peel, though less warm, is similar in its qualities to that of the orange, and is employed with the same intentions. The pharmacopœias direct a syrup of the juice, and the peel enters into vinous and aqueous bitter infusions; it is also ordered to be candied; and the essential oil is an ingredient in the *spiritus ammoniæ compositus* and other formulæ.

LINARIA, (*Linaria*, æ, f. from *linum*, flax, named from the resemblance of its leaves to those of flax). *Osyris*. *Urinaria*. Common toad flax. *Antirrhinum linaria* of Linnæus. *A foliis lanceolato linearibus confertis caule erecto, spicis terminalibus sessilibus, floribus imbricatis*. A perennial indigénous plant, common in barren pastures, hedges, and the sides of roads, flowering from July to September. The leaves have a bitterish and somewhat saline taste, and when rubbed between the fingers have a faint smell resembling that of elder. They are said to be diuretic and cathartic, and in both characters to act powerfully, especially in the first, hence the name *urinalis*. They have been recommended in dropsies and other disorders requiring powerful evacuations. The linaria has also been used as a resolvent in jaundice, and such diseases as were supposed to arise from visceral obstructions. But the plant has been chiefly valued for its effects when externally applied, especially in hæmorrhoidal affections, for which both the leaves and flowers have been employed in various forms of ointment, fomentation, and poultice. Dr. Wolph first invented an ointment of this plant for the piles. The Landgrave of Hesse, to whom he was physician, constantly interrogated him to discover its composition, but Wolph obstinately refused, till the prince promised to

give him a fat ox annually for the discovery: hence to the following verse which was made to distinguish the linaria from the escula, viz.

“*Esula lactescit, sine lacte linaria crescit,*”

The hereditary Marshall of Hesse added,

“*Esula nil nobis, sed dat linaria taurum.*”

LINCTUS, (*Linctus*, *us*, *m.* from *lingo*, to lick). A term in pharmacy that is generally applied to a soft and somewhat oily substance, of the consistence of honey.

LINĒA ALBA. An aponeurosis that extends from the scrobiculus cordis straight down to the navel, and from thence to the pubis. It is formed by the tendinous fibres of the internal oblique ascending and the external oblique descending muscles, and the transversalis, interlaced with those of the opposite side.

LINGUA, (*Lingua*, *a*, *f.* from *lingo*, to lick up). The tongue. See *Tongue*.

LINGUA AVIS. The seeds of the *Fraxinus*, or ash, are so called from their supposed resemblance to a bird's tongue.

LINGUA CANINA. So called from the resemblance of its leaves to a dog's tongue. See *Cynoglossum*.

LINGUA CERVINA. See *Scolopendrium*.

LINGUALIS, (*Lingualis*, *sc. musculus*; from *lingua*, a tongue). A muscle of the tongue. It arises from the root of the tongue laterally, and runs forward between the hyoglossus and genio glossus, to be inserted into the tip of the tongue, along with part of the stylo-glossus. Its use is to contract the substance of the tongue, and to bring it backwards.

LINIMENT, (*Linimentum*, *i*, *n.* from *lino*, to anoint). An oily substance of a mediate consistence be-

tween an ointment and oil, but so thin as to drop.

LINIMENTUM AMMONIÆ. A stimulating liniment, mostly ordered to relieve rheumatic pains, bruises, and paralytic numbness.

LINIMENTUM AMMONIÆ FORTIUS. A more powerful stimulating application than the former, acting as a rubifacient. In pleurodynia, indolent tumours, and arthritic pains, it is to be preferred to the milder one.

LINIMENTUM AQUÆ CALCIS. This has been long in use as an application to burns and scalds.

LINIMENTUM CAMPHORÆ COMPOSITUM. An elegant and useful stimulant application in paralytic, spasmodic, and rheumatic diseases.

LINIMENTUM OPIATUM. A solvent anodyne embrocation, adapted to remove indolent tumours of the joints, and those weaknesses which remain after strains and chilblains before they break.

LINIMENTUM SAPONIS COMPOSITUM. This is a more pleasant preparation, to rub parts affected with rheumatic pains, swellings of the joints, &c. than any of the foregoing, and at the same time not inferior, except where a rubifacient is required.

LINIMENTUM SIMPLEX. An emollient application for chapped lips, hands, &c.

LINNÆA, (*Linnaea*, *a*, *f.* so named in honour of Linnæus). This plant, *Linnaea borealis*, has a bitter subastrigent taste, and is used in some places in the form of fermentation, to rheumatic pains, and an infusion with milk is much esteemed in Switzerland in the cure of sciatica.

LINNÆA BOREALIS. The systematic name of the plant named in honour of the immortal Linnæus. See *Linnaea*.

LINSEED. See *Linum*.

LINUM, (*Linum*, *i*, *n.* from *λεῖος*, soft, smooth; so called from its soft,

smooth texture). Common flax. *Linum usitatissimum* of Linnæus. *Linum calycibus capsulisque mucronatis, petalis crenatis, foliis lanceolatis alternis, caule subfolitario*. Class *Pentandria*. Order *Pentagynia*. The seeds of this useful plant, called linseed, have an unctuous, mucilaginous, sweetish taste, but no remarkable smell; on expression they yield a large quantity of oil, which, when carefully drawn, without the application of heat, has no particular taste or flavour: boiled in water they yield a large proportion of a strong flavourless mucilage, which is in use as an emolient or demulcent in coughs, hoarsenesses, and pleuritic symptoms, that frequently prevail in catarrhal affections; and it is likewise recommended in nephritic pains and stranguries. The meal of the seeds is also much used externally in emollient and maturing cataplasms. The expressed oil is an officinal preparation, and is supposed to be of a more healing and balsamic nature than the other oils of this class: it has, therefore, been very generally employed in pulmonary complaints, and in colics and constipations of the bowels.

LINUM CATHARTICUM. Purging flax, or mill-mountain. This small plant, *Linum catharticum, foliis oppositis ovato-lanceolatis, caule dichotomo, corollis acutis* of Linnæus, is an effectual and safe cathartic. It has a bitterish and disagreeable taste. A handful infused in half a pint of boiling water is the dose for an adult.

LINUM USITATISSIMUM. The systematic name of the common flax. See *Linum*.

LIPARIS, (*Liparis, is*, f. λιπαρίς, from λιπος, fat, so named from its unctuous quality). See *Pinguicula*.

LIPAROCÈLE, (*Liparocèle, es*, f. λιπαροκήλη, from λιπος, fat and κηλη, a tumour). That species of sarcocele in which the substance constituting the disease is fat.

LIPOMA, (*Lipoma, ātis*, n. from λιπος, fat). A solitary, soft, unequal, in-

dolent tumour, arising from a luxuriance of adeps in the cellular membrane. The adipose structure forming the tumour is sometimes diseased towards its centre, and more fluid than the rest. At other times it does not appear to differ in any respect from adipose membrane, except in the enlargement of the cells containing the fat. These tumours are always many years before they arrive at any size.

LIPPITUDO, (*Lippitudo, inis*, f. from *lippus*, blear-eyed). An exudation of a puriform humour from the margin of the eye-lids. The proximate cause is a deposition of acrimony on the glandulæ meibomianæ in the margin of the eyelids. This humour in the night agglutinates the tarsi of the eyelids together. The margins of the eyelids are red and tumefy, are irritated and excite pain. A phthalia, fistulæ lachrymalis, and sometimes an ectropium, are the consequences. The species of the lippitudo are, 1st, *Lippitudo infantum*, which is familiar to children, particularly of an acrimonious habit. The lippitudo of infants is mostly accompanied with tinea, or some scabby eruption, which points out that the disease originates, not from a local, but general or constitutional affection: 2d, *Lippitudo adultorum* or *senilis*. This arises from various acrimonies, and is likewise common to hard drinkers: 3d, *Lippitudo venerea*, which arises from a suppressed gonorrhœa or fluor albus, and is likewise observed in children born of parents with venereal complaints: 4th, *Lippitudo scrophulosa*, which accompanies other scrophulous symptoms: 5th, *Lippitudo scorbutica*, which affects the scorbutic, and is cured by the means used for the sea or land scurvy. Vegetable diet and pure air, fresh meats, and exercise, for the former; but mineral alteratives, antiphlogistics, and a dry strict regimen, is the cure for the latter.

LIQUIDAMBER. See *Liquidambra*.

LIQUIDAMBER STYRACIFLUA.

The systematic name of the tree which affords both the liquidamber and liquid storax. See *Liquidambra*.

LIQUIDAMBRA, (*Liquidambra*, *æ*, f. from *liquidus* and *amber*). Liquid amber. A resinous juice, of a yellow colour inclining to red, at first about the consistence of turpentine, by age hardened into a solid brittle mass. It is obtained by wounding the bark of the *Liquidamber styraciflua*; *foliis palmato-angulatis*; *foliis indivisis, acutis*, of Linnæus. This juice has a moderately pungent, warm, balsamic taste, and a very fragrant smell, not unlike that of the *Storax calamita* heightened by a little ambergris. It is seldom used medicinally. The *Styrax liquida* is also obtained by boiling from this plant. There are two sorts distinguished by authors; the one, the purer part of the resinous matter that rises to the surface in boiling, separated by a strainer, of the consistence of honey, tenacious like turpentine, of a reddish or ash-brown colour, moderately transparent, of an acrid unctuous taste, and a fragrant smell, faintly resembling that of the solid storax, but somewhat disagreeable. The other, the more impure part which remains on the strainer, untransparent, and in smell and taste much weaker than the former. Their use is chiefly as stomachics, in the form of plaster.

LIQUIRITIA, (*Liquiritia*, *æ*, f. from *liquor*, juice, or from *elikoris*, Welsh). See *Glycyrrhiza*.

LIQUOR AMNII, (*Liquor, ōris, m.*). All that fluid which is contained in the membranaceous ovum surrounding the fœtus in utero, is called by the general name of the waters, the water of the amnion or ovum, or liquor amnii. The quantity, in proportion to the size of the different parts of the ovum, is greatest by far in early pregnancy. At the time of parturition, in some cases, it amounts

to or exceeds four pints, and in others it is scarcely equal to as many ounces. It is usually in the largest quantity when the child has been some time dead, or is born in a weakly state. This fluid is generally transparent, often milky, and sometimes of a yellow or light brown colour, and very different in consistence; and these alterations seem to depend upon the state of the constitution of the parent. It does not coagulate with heat like the serum of the blood; and, chemically examined, it is found to be composed of phlegm, earthy matter, and sea salt, in different proportions in different subjects, by which the varieties in its appearance and consistence are produced. It has been supposed to be excrementitious; but it is generally thought to be secreted from the internal surface of the ovum, and to be circulatory as in other cavities. It was formerly imagined, that the fœtus was nourished by this fluid, of which it was said to swallow some part frequently; and it was then asserted, that the qualities of the fluid were adapted for its nourishments. But there have been many examples of children born without any passage to the stomach; and a few, of children in which the head was wanting, and which have nevertheless arrived at the full size. These cases fully prove, that this opinion is not just, and that there must be some other medium by which the child is nourished besides the waters. The incontrovertible uses of this fluid are, to serve the purpose of affording a soft bed for the residence of the fœtus, to which it allows free motion, and prevents any external injury during pregnancy: and inclosed in the membranes, it procures the most gentle, yet efficacious dilatation of the os uteri, and soft parts, at the time of parturition. Instances have been recorded, in which the waters of the ovum are said to have been voided so early as in the sixth month of pregnancy,

without prejudice either to the child or parent. The truth of these reports seems to be doubtful, because, when the membranes are intentionally broken, the action of the uterus never fails to come on, when all the water is evacuated. A few cases have occurred to me, says Dr. Denman, in practice, which might have been construed to be of this kind; for there was a daily discharge of some colourless fluid from the vagina for several months before delivery; but there being no diminution of the size of the abdomen, and the waters being regularly discharged at the time of labour, it was judged that some lymphatic vessel near the os uteri had been ruptured, and did not close again till the patient was delivered. He also met with one case, in which, after the expulsion of the placenta, there was no sanguineous discharge, but a profusion of lymph, to the quantity of several pints, in a few hours after delivery; but the patient suffered no inconvenience except from surprise.

LIQUOR VOLATILIS CORNU CERVI. This preparation of the volatile alkali, commonly termed hartshorn, possesses the same virtues as the aqua ammœniæ. It is in common use to smell at in faintings, &c. See *Carbonas ammoniacæ liquidus*.

LIQUORICE. See *Glycyrrhiza*.

LIQUORICE, SPANISH. See *Glycyrrhiza*.

LITHARGYRUM. See *Lead*.

LITHARGYRUS, (*Lithargyrus*, i. m. λιθαργυρον, from λιθος, a stone, and αργυρος, silver). White lead, the scum of silver. See *Lead*, and *Oxydum plumbi semivitreum*.

LITHIATS, (*Lithias, tis*, m.). Salts formed by the union of the lithic acid, or acid of the stone sometimes found in the human bladder, with different bases; thus, *lithiat of alumine*, *lithiat of ammoniac*, &c.

LITHOLOGY, (*Lithologia*, α, f. λιθολογία, from λιθος, a stone, and λογος, a discourse). A discourse or treatise on stones.

LITHONTRIPTICS, (*Lithontriptica*, sc. *medicamenta*, λιθοντριπτικά, from λιθος, a stone, and τριπτω, to break). From the strict sense and common acceptance of the word, this class of medicines should comprehend such as possess a power of dissolving calculi in the urinary passages. It is, however, a question, whether there be in nature any such substances. By this term, then, is meant those substances which possess a power of removing a disposition in the body to the formation of calculi. The different articles referred to this class are comprehended under two orders: 1. *Antacid lithontriptics*, as *lime-water* and *caustic alkali*, which are best suited to such constitutions as are disposed to acidity in the primæ viæ. 2. *Astringent lithontriptics*, as *uva ursi*, &c. which are mostly selected for the relaxed fibre, but which may be given with obvious advantage where there are no manifest marks indicating laxity.

LITHOSPERMUM, (*Lithospermum*, i. n. λιθοσπερμον, from λιθος, a stone, and σπέρμα, seed, named from the hardness of its seed). *Milium solis*. Common gromwell. The seeds of this officinal plant, *Lithospermum officinale*; *seminibus lævibus*, *corollis vix calycem superantibus*, *foliis lanceolatis*, of Linnæus, were formerly supposed, from their stony hardness, to be efficacious in calculous and gravelly disorders. Little credit is given to their lithontriptic character, yet they are occasionally used as diuretic for clearing the urinary passages, and for obviating strangury, in the form of emulsion.

LITHOSPERMUM OFFICINALE. The systematic name of the officinal gromwell. See *Lithospermum*.

LIXIVIA VITRIOLATA SULPHUREA. *Sal polychrestus*. Its virtues are delivered under the head of *Kali vitriolatum*.

LIXIVIA VITRIOLATA SULPHUREA. *Sal polychrestus*. Its virtues are delivered under the head of *Kali vitriolatum*.

LIXIVIATION. *Lessive.* The process employed by chemists of dissolving, by means of warm water, the saline and soluble particles of cinders, the residues of distillation and combustion, coals and neutral earths, in order to obtain those particles which are termed *lixivial salts*.

LIXIVIUM, (*Lixivium*, *i*, n. from *lix*, wood-ash). The liquor in which saline and soluble particles of the residues of distillation and combustion are dissolved.

LIXIVIUM SAPONARIUM. See *Aqua kali*.

LIXIVIUM TARTARI. See *Aqua kali*.

LIVER, (*Hepar*, *ήπαρ*). A large viscus of a deep red colour, of great size and weight, situated under the diaphragm, in the right hypochondrium, its smaller portion occupying part of the epigastric region. In the human body the liver is divided into two principal lobes, the right of which is by far the largest. They are divided on the upper side by a broad ligament, and on the other side by a considerable depression or fossa. Between these two lobes is a smaller lobe, called *lobulus Spigelii*. In describing this viscus it is necessary to attend to seven principal circumstances: I. Its ligaments. II. Its surfaces. III. Its margins. IV. Its tubercles. V. Its fissure. VI. Its sinus; and VII. The *pori bilarii*. The ligaments of the liver are four in number, all arising from the peritoneum. 1. *The right lateral ligament*, which connects the thick right lobe with the posterior part of the diaphragm. 2. *The left lateral ligament*, which connects the convex surface and margin of the left lobe with the diaphragm, and in those of whom the liver is very large with the œsophagus and spleen. 3. *The broad or middle suspensory ligament*, which passes from the diaphragm into the convex surface, and separates the right lobe of

the liver from the left. It descends from above through the large fissure to the concave surface, and is then distributed over the whole liver. 4. *The round ligament*, which in adults consists of the umbilical vein indurated into a ligament. The liver has two surfaces, one superior, which is convex and smooth, and one inferior, which is concave, and has holes and depressions to receive not only the contiguous viscera, but the vessels running into the liver. The margins of the liver are also two in number; the one, which is posterior and superior, is obtuse; the other, situated anteriorly and inferiorly, is acute. The tubercles of the liver are likewise two in number, and are found near the vena portæ. Upon looking on the concave surface of this viscus a considerable fissure is obvious, known by the name of the *fissure of the liver*; but, in order to expose the sinus, it is necessary to remove the gall-bladder, when a considerable sinus, before occupied by the gall-bladder, will be apparent. The *blood-vessels* of the liver are the hepatic artery, the vena portæ, and the cavæ hepaticæ, which are described under their proper names. The *absorbents* of the liver are very numerous. The liver has *nerves* from the great intercostal and eighth pair, which arise from the hepatic plexus, and proceed along with the hepatic artery and vena portæ into the substance of the liver. With regard to the substance of the liver, various opinions have been entertained. It is, however, now pretty well ascertained to be a large gland, composed of lesser glands connected together by cellular structure. The small glands which thus compose the substance of the liver are termed *penicilli*, from the arrangement of the arterial ramifications of the vena portæ composing each gland, resembling that of the hairs of a pencil. The chief use of this large viscus is to sup-

ply a fluid, named bile, to the intestines, which is of the utmost importance in chylicification. The small penicilli perform this function by a specific action on the blood they contain, by which they secrete in their very minute ends the fluid termed *hepatic bile*; but whether they pour it into what is called a follicle, or not, is yet undecided, and is the cause of the difference of opinion respecting the substance of the liver. If it be secreted into a follicle, the substance is truly glandular, according to the notions of the older anatomists; but if it be secreted merely into a small vessel, called a biliary pore (whose existence can be demonstrated), corresponding to the end of each penicilli, without any intervening follicle, its substance is then, in their opinion, vascular. According to our notions in the present day, in either case, the liver is said to be glandular; for we connect to our senses the idea a gland, when any arrangement of vessels performs the office of separating from the blood a fluid or substance different in its nature from the blood. The small vessels which receive the bile secreted by the penicilli, are called *pori biliarii*; these converge together throughout the substance of the liver towards its under surface, and, at length, form one trunk, called *ductus hepaticus*, which conveys the bile into either the *ductus communis choledochus*, or *ductus cysticus*. See *Gall-bladder*.

LIVER-WORT. See *Hypatica terrestris*.

LIVER-WORT, ASH-COLOURED. See *Lichen cinereus terrestris*.

LIVER-WORT, GROUND. See *Lichen cinereus terrestris*.

LIVER-WORT, ICELAND. See *Lichen islandicus*.

LIVER-WORT NOBLE. See *Hepatica terrestris*.

LOBELIA, (*Lobelia*, *e*, f. named

in honour of LOBEL, a botanist). Blue lobelia, or cardinal flower. The root of this plant, *Lobelia syphilitica*, is the part directed by the Edinburgh Pharmacopœia for medicinal use; in taste it resembles tobacco, and is apt to excite vomiting. It derived the name of *syphilitica* from its efficacy in the cure of syphilis, as experienced by the North American Indians, who considered it a specific in that disease, and with whom it was long an important secret, which was purchased by Sir William Johnson, and since published by different authors. The method of employing this medicine is stated as follows: A decoction is made of a handful of the roots in three measures of water. Of this, half a measure is taken in the morning fasting, and repeated in the evening: and the dose is gradually increased till its purgative effects become too violent, when the decoction is to be intermitted for a day or two, and then renewed, until a perfect cure is effected. During the use of this medicine a proper regimen is to be enjoined, and the ulcers are also to be frequently washed with the decoction, or, if deep and foul, to be sprinkled with the powder of the inner bark of the New Jersey tea-tree, *Ceanothus americanus*. Although the plant thus used is said to cure the disease in a very short time, yet it is not found that the antisyphilitic powers of the lobelia have been confirmed in any instance of European practice.

LOBELIA SYPHILITICA. The systematic name of the blue lobelia of the pharmacopœias. See *Lobelia*.

LOCĀLES. The fourth class of Cullen's nosology, which comprehends morbid affections that are partial, and includes eight genera, viz. dysæsthesiæ, dyforexia, dyscinesia, apocenosæ, epischeses, tumores, ectopia, and dialyses.

LOCHIA, (*Lochia*, *orum*, n. pl.

λογία, from λοχεύω, to bring forth). The cleanings. The serous, and for the most part green-coloured, discharge that takes place from the uterus and vagina of women, during the first four days after delivery.

LOCHIORRHŒA, (*Lochiorrhœa*, *æ*, f. λοχιόρρηα, from λοχεύω, and ῥεω, to flow). An excessive discharge of the lochia.

LOCKED JAW. *Trismus*. A species of tetanus. See *Tetanus*.

LOGWOOD. See *Lignum campechense*.

LONGISSIMUS DORSI. This muscle, which is somewhat thicker than the sacro-lumbalis, greatly resembles it, however, in its shape and extent, and arises, in common with that muscle, between it and the spine. It ascends upwards along the spine, and is inserted by small double tendons into the posterior and inferior part of all the transverse processes of the vertebræ of the back, and sometimes of the last vertebra of the neck. From its outside it sends off several bundles of fleshy fibres, interspersed with a few tendinous filaments, which are usually inserted into the lower edge of the ten uppermost ribs, not far from their tubercles. In some subjects, however, they are found inserted into a less number, and in others, though more rarely, into every one of the ribs. Towards the upper part of this muscle is observed a broad and thin portion of fleshy fibres, which cross and intimately adhere to the fibres of the longissimus dorsi. This portion arises from the upper and posterior part of the transverse processes of the five or six uppermost vertebræ of the back, by as many tendinous origins; and is usually inserted by six tendinous and fleshy slips, into the transverse processes of the six inferior vertebræ of the neck. This portion is described by Winslow and Albinus as a distinct muscle; by

the former under the name of *transversalis major colli*, and by the latter under that of *transversalis cervicis*. But its fibres are so intimately connected with those of the longissimus dorsi, that it may very properly be considered as an appendage to the latter. The use of this muscle is to extend the vertebræ of the back, and to keep the trunk of the body erect; by means of its appendage it likewise serves to turn the neck obliquely backwards, and a little to one side.

LONGITUDINAL SINUS. Longitudinal sinus of the dura mater. A triangular canal, proceeding in the falciform process of the the dura mater, immediately under the bones of the skull, from the crista galli to the tentorium, where it branches into the lateral sinusses. The longitudinal sinus has a number of trabeculæ or fibres crossing it. Its use is to receive the blood from the veins of the pia mater, and convey it into the lateral sinusses, to be carried through the internal jugulars to the heart.

LONGUS COLLI. This is a pretty considerable muscle, situated close to the anterior and lateral part of the vertebræ of the neck. Its outer edge is in part covered by the rectus internus major. It arises tendinous and fleshy within the thorax, from the bodies of the three superior vertebræ of the back, laterally; from the bottom and fore part of the transverse processes of the first and second vertebræ of the back, and of the last vertebra of the neck: and likewise from the upper and anterior points of the transverse processes of the sixth, fifth, fourth, and third vertebræ of the neck, by as many small distinct tendons; and is inserted tendinous into the fore part of the second vertebra of the neck, near its fellow. This muscle, when it acts singly, moves the neck to one side; but, when both

act, the neck is brought directly forwards.

LONICĒRA DIERVILLA. The systematic name of a species of honey suckle. See *Diervilla*.

LONICĒRA PERICLIMĒNUM. Honey suckle. This beautiful and common plant was formerly used in the cure of asthma, for cleansing fordid ulcers, and removing diseases of the skin, virtues it does not now appear to possess.

LOPEZ RADIX. *Radix lopeziana.* *Radix indica lopeziana.* The root of of an unknown tree, growing, according to some, at Goa. It is met with in pieces of different thickness, some at least of two inches diameter. The woody part is whitish, and very light; softer, more spongy, and whiter next the bark, including a denser, somewhat reddish, medullary part. The bark is rough, wrinkled, brown, soft, and, as it were, woolly, pretty thick, covered with a thin paler cuticle. Neither the woody nor cortical part has any remarkable smell or taste, nor any appearance of resinous matter. It appears that this medicine has been remarkably effectual in stopping colliquative diarrhœas which had resisted the usual remedies. Those attending the last stage of consumptions were particularly relieved by its use. It seemed to act, not by an astringent power, but by a faculty of restraining and appeasing spasmodic and inordinate motions of the intestines. Dr. Gaubius, who gives this account, compares its action to that of fimarouba, but thinks it more efficacious than this medicine.

LOPEZ ROOT. See *Lopez radix*.

LOPEZIANA RADIX. See *Lopez radix*.

LOVE APPLE. The fruit of the *Solanum lycopersicum* of Linnæus. It is so much esteemed by the Portuguese and the Spaniards, that it is an ingredient in almost all their soups

and sauces, and is deemed cooling and nutritive.

LOVAGE. See *Levisticum*.

LUES VENERĒA, (*Lues*, is, f. from *lueo*, to dissolve, because it produces dissolution). The venereal disease. See *Syphilis* and *Gonorrhœa*.

LUJŪLA, (*Lujula*, æ, f. corrupted or contracted from *allelujah*, praise the Lord; so called from its many virtues). *Acetofella.* Wood-ferrel. *Oxalis acetofella* of Linnæus. This delicate indigenous plant is totally inodorous, but has a grateful acid taste, which is more agreeable than the common ferrel; and approaches nearly to that of the juice of lemons, or the acid of tartar, with which it also corresponds in a great measure in its medical effects, being esteemed refrigerant, antiscorbutic, and diuretic. Its principal use, however, is to allay inordinate heat, and to quench thirst; for this purpose a pleasant whey may be formed by boiling the plant in milk. An essential salt is prepared from this plant, known by the name of Essential Salt of Lemons, and commonly used for taking ink-stains out of linen.

LUMBĀGO, (*Lumbago*, inis, f. from *lumbus*, the loin). A rheumatic affection of the muscles about the loins.

LUMBĀRIS EXTERNUS. See *Quadratus lumborum*.

LUMBĀRIS INTERNUS. See *Psoas magnus*.

LUMBRICĀLES MANUS, (*Lumbricales*, sc. *musculus*, from their resemblance to the *lumbricus*, or earthworm). *Fidicinales.* The four small fingers of the flexors of the fingers which assist the bending of the fingers when the long flexors are in full action. They arise thin and fleshy from the outside of the tendons of the flexor profundus, a little above the lower edge of the carpal ligaments, and are inserted by long slender ten-

doms into the outer sides of the broad tendons of the interosseal muscles about the middle of the first joint of the fingers.

LUMBRICALES PEDIS. Four muscles like the former, that increase the flexion of the toes, and draw them inwards.

LUMBRICUS, (*Lumbricus*, *i*, *m.* à *lubricitate*, from its slipperiness). *Ascaris lumbricoides.* *Lumbricus teres.* A species of worm which inhabits occasionally the human intestines. It has three nipples at its head, and a triangular mouth in its middle. Its length is from four to twelve inches, and its thickness, when twelve inches long, about that of a goose-quill. They are sometimes solitary, at other times very numerous.

LUMBRICUS TERRESTRIS. See *Earth worm*.

LUMBUS VENÆRIS. See *Millefolium*.

LUNA, (*Luna*, *æ*, *f.* so named from its resemblance in brightness to silver). The old alchemistical name of silver. See *Silver*.

LUNAR CAUSTIC. See *Argentum nitratum*.

LUNGS, (*Pulmo*, *nis*, *m.*). Two viscera situated in the cavities of the chest, by means of which we breathe. The lung in the right cavity of the chest is divided into three lobes, that in the left cavity into two. They hang in the chest, attached at their superior part to the neck, by means of the trachea, and are separated by the mediastinum. They are also attached to the heart by means of the pulmonary vessels. The substance of the lungs is of four kinds, viz. vesicular, vascular, bronchial, and a parenchymatous substance. The vesicular substance is composed of the air-cells. The vascular invests those cells like a net-work. The bronchial is throughout the lungs, having the air-cells at their extremities; and the

spongy substance that connects the spaces between these parts is termed the *parenchyma*. The lungs are covered with a fine membrane, a reflexion of the pleura, called *pleura pulmonalis*. The internal surface of the air-cells is covered with a very fine, delicate, and sensible membrane, which is continued from the larynx through the trachea and bronchia. The arteries of the lungs are the pulmonary, which circulate the blood through the air-cells to undergo a certain change, and the bronchial artery, a branch of the aorta, which carries blood to the lungs for their nourishment. The pulmonary veins return the blood that has undergone this change, by four trunks, into the left auricle of the heart. The bronchial veins terminate in the vena azygos. The nerves of the lungs are from the eighth pair and great intercostal. The absorbents are of two orders; the superficial and deep-seated: the former are more readily detected than the latter. The glands of these viscera are called bronchial. They are muciparous, and situated about the bronchia.

LUNGWORT, SPOTTED. See *Pulmonaria maculata*.

LUPĪA, (*Lupia*, *æ*, *f.* λυπία: from λυπεω, to molest). A genus of disease, including encysted humours, whose contents are very thick, and sometimes solid, as *meliceris*, *atheroma*, *steatoma*, and *ganglion*.

LUPĪNUS, (*Lupinus*, *i*, *m.* from λυπεω, grief, or dislike; so called from its extreme bitterness). Under this term the white lupin is directed in some pharmacopœias. The seed, the ordinary food of mankind in the days of Galen and Pliny, is now forgotten. Its farinaceous and bitter meal is occasionally exhibited to remove worms from the intestines, and made into poultices to resolve indolent tumours.

LUPINUS ALBUS. The systematic name of the white lupin. See *Lupinus*.

LUPULUS, (*Lupulus*, *i*, *m.* from *λυπη*, dislike, so named from its bitterness). The hop. It is the floral leaf or bractea of this plant, *Humulus lupulus* of Linnæus, that is dried and used in various kinds of strong beer. Hops have a bitter taste, less ungrateful than most of the other strong bitters, accompanied with some degree of warmth and aromatic bitter, and are highly intoxicating. The hop flower also exhales a considerable quantity of its narcotic power in drying, hence those who sleep in the hop-houses are with difficulty roused from their slumber. A pillar stuffed with these flowers was said to have laid our present monarch asleep when other remedies had failed.

LUTEA CORPORA. See *Corpora lutea*.

LYCOPERDON, (*Lycoperdon*, *i*, *n.* *λυκοπερδον*; from *λυκος*, a wolf, and *περδω*, to break wind; so named because it was supposed to spring from the dung of wolves). *Crepitus lupi*. The puff-ball. A round or egg-shaped fungus, the *Lycoperdon bovista* of Linnæus, when fresh, of a white colour, with a very short or scarcely any pedicle, growing in dry pasture grounds. When young it is sometimes covered with tubercles on the outside, and is pulpy within. By age it becomes smooth externally, and dries internally into a very fine, light, brownish dust, which is used by the common people to stop hemorrhages.

LYCOPERDON BOVISTA. The systematic name of the puff-ball. See *Lycoperdon*.

LYCOPERDON TUBER. The systematic name of the truffle. See *Truffle*.

LYCOPODIUM, (*Lycopodium*, *i*, *n.*

λυκοποδιον; from *λυκος*, a wolf, and *πες*, a foot, so called from its supposed resemblance). *Muscus clavatus*. Club moss. Wolf's claw. This plant, *Lycopodium clavatum* of Linnæus, affords a great quantity of pollen, which is much esteemed in some places to sprinkle on young children, to prevent, and in the curing parts which are fretting. A decoction of the herb is said to be a specific in the cure of the plica polonica.

LYCOPODIUM CLAVATUM. The systematic name of the club moss. See *Lycopodium*.

LYCOPODIUM SELAGO. The systematic name of the upright club-moss. See *Muscus erectus*.

LYMPH. *Lympha*. The liquid contained in the lymphatic vessels. It has a fatuous smell, no taste, and is of a crystalline colour. Its specific gravity is greater than water; in consistence it is thin and somewhat plastic. The quantity appears to be very great, as the system of the lymphatic vessels forms no small part of the human body. Its constituent principles appear to be gelatinous albuminous water. The lymphatic vessels absorb this water from the tela cellulosa of the whole body, from all the viscera and the cavities of the viscera; and convey it to the thoracic duct, where it is mixed with the chyle.

The use of the lymph is to return the superfluous nutritious jelly from every part, and to mix it with the chyle in the thoracic duct, there to be further converted into the nature of the animal; and lastly, it has mixed with it the superfluous aqueous vapour, which is expired into the cavity of the cranium, thorax, and abdomen.

LYMPHATIC GLANDS. (*Glandulæ lymphaticæ*). See *Conglobate glands*.

LYMPHATICS. Absorbents that

carry a transparent fluid or lymph. They are small transparent vessels, which originate in every part of the body. With the lacteal vessels of the intestines they form what is termed the *absorbent system*. Their termination is in the thoracic duct. See *Absorbent vessels*, *Lacteals*, and *Thoracic duct*.

Lymphatics of the head and neck. Absorbents are found on the scalp and about the viscera of the neck, which unite into a considerable *branch* that accompanies the jugular vein. Absorbents have not been detected in the human brain: yet there can be no doubt of there being such vessels: it is probable that they pass out of the cranium through the canalis caroticus and foramen lacerum in basi cranii, on each side, and join the above *jugular branch*, which passes through some glands as it proceeds into the chest to the angle of the subclavian and jugular veins.

Lymphatics of the upper extremities. The absorbents of the upper extremities are divided into superficial and deep-seated. The *superficial absorbents* ascend under the skin in every direction to the wrist, from whence a *branch* proceeds upon the posterior surface of the fore-arm to the head of the radius, over the internal condyle of the humerus, up to the axilla, receiving several branches as it proceeds. Another *branch* proceeds from the wrist along the anterior part of the fore-arm, and forms a *net-work* with a *branch* coming over the ulna from the posterior part, and ascends on the inside of the humerus to the glands of the axilla. The *deep-seated absorbents* accompany the larger blood-vessels, and pass through two glands about the middle of the humerus, and ascend to the glands of the axilla. The superficial and deep-seated absorbents having passed through the axillary glands, form

two trunks, which unite into *one*, to be inserted with the jugular absorbents into the thoracic duct, at the angle formed by the union of the subclavian with the jugular vein.

Lymphatics of the inferior extremities. These are also superficial and deep-seated. The *superficial ones* lie between the skin and muscles. Those of the toes and foot form a *branch* which ascends upon the back of the foot over the tendon of the cruræus anticus, forms with other branches a *plexus* above the ancles, then proceeds along the tibia over the knee, sometimes passes through a gland, and proceeds up the inside of the thigh to the subinguinal glands. The *deep-seated* absorbents follow the course of the arteries, and accompany the femoral artery, in which course they pass through some glands in the leg and above the knee, and then proceed to some deep-seated subinguinal glands. The absorbents from about the external parts of the pubis, as the penis, perineum, and from the external parts of the pelvis, in general proceed to the inguinal glands. The subinguinal and inguinal glands send forth several branches, which pass through the abdominal ring into the cavity of the abdomen.

Lymphatics of the abdominal and thoracic viscera. The absorbents of the lower extremities accompany the external iliac artery, where they are joined by many branches from the uterus, urinary bladder, spermatic chord, and some branches accompanying the internal iliac artery: they then ascend to the sacrum, where they form a *plexus*, which proceeds over the psoas muscles, and meeting with the lacteals of the mesentery form the thoracic duct, or trunk of the absorbents, which is of a serpentine form, about the size of a crow-quill, and runs up the dorsal verte-

bræ, through the posterior opening of the diaphragm, between the aorta and vena azygos, to the angle formed by the union of the subclavian and jugular veins. In this course it receives *the absorbents of the kidneys*, which are superficial and deep-seated, and unite as they proceed towards the thoracic duct. *The absorbents of the spleen*, which are upon its peritoneal coat, and unite with those of the pancreas. A *branch* from a plexus of vessels passing above and below the duodenum, and formed by the absorbents of the *stomach*, which come from the lesser and greater curvature, and are united about the pylorus with those of the pancreas and liver, which converge from the external surface and internal parts towards the portæ of the liver, and also by several branches from the *gall-bladder*.

Use of Lymphatics. The office of these vessels is to take up substances which are applied to the mouths; thus the vapour of circumscribed cavities, and of the cells of the cellular membrane are removed by the lymphatics of those parts; and thus mercury and other substances are taken into the system when rubbed on the skin.

The principle by which this absorption takes place is a power inherent in the mouths of absorbing vessels, a vis insita, dependent on the high degree of irritability of their internal membrane by which the vessels contract and propel the fluid forwards. Hence the use of this function appears to be of the utmost importance, viz. to supply the blood with chyle; to remove

the superfluous vapour of circumscribed cavities, otherwise dropsies, as hydrocephalus, hydrothorax, hydrocordis, ascites, hydrocele, &c. would constantly be taking place: to remove the superfluous vapour from the cells of the cellular membrane dispersed throughout every part of the body, that anasarca may not take place: to remove the hard and soft parts of the body, and to convey into the system medicines which are applied to the surface of the body.

LYPOMA, (*Lypoma*, *itis*, n.) See *Lipoma*.

LYRA, (*Lyra*, *e*, f. from *λυρα*, a lyre, or musical instrument). *Psalterium*. The triangular medullary space between the posterior crura of the fornix of the cerebrum, which is marked with prominent medullary fibres that give the appearance of a lyre.

LYSIMACHIA NUMMULARIA. The systematic name of the money-wort. See *Nummularia*.

LYSIMACHIA PURPUREA, (*Lysimachia*, *e*, f. from *Lysimachus*, who first discovered it). The herb, root, and flowers of this plant, *Lythrum salicaria* of Linnæus, possess a considerable degree of astringency, and are used medicinally in the cure of diarrhæas and dysenteries, fluor albus, and hymoptysis.

LYTHRUM SALICARIA, (*Lithrum*, *i*, n. from *λυθρον*, blood, so called from its resemblance in color, and *Salicaria*, from *salix*, a willow, from the resemblance of its leaves to those of the willow). The systematic name of the common or purple willow herb. See *Lysimachia purpurea*.

M.

MA

M. THIS letter has two significations: when herbs, flowers, chips, or such-like substances are ordered, in a prescription, and M. follows them, it signifies *manipulus*, a handful; and when any quantity of other ingredients is directed, it is a contraction of *misce*; thus *m. f. mist.* signifies, mix and make a mixture.

MACEDONIAN PARSLEY. See *Petroselinum macedonicum*.

MACER, (*μακερ*; from *masa*, Heb.) Grecian macer. The root which is imported from Barbary by this name, is supposed to be the *simarouba*.

MACERATION, (*Maceratio*, *onis*, f. from *macero*, to soften by water). In a pharmaceutical sense this term implies an infusion either with or without heat, wherein the ingredients are intended to be almost wholly dissolved in order to extract their virtues.

MACIES, (*Macies*, *ei*, f.). A wasting of the body. See *Atrophy* and *Tubes*.

MACIS, (*Macis*, *idis*, f.) Mace. A thick, tough, reticulated, unctuous membrane, of a lively, reddish, yellow colour, approaching to that of saffron, which envelopes the shell of the nutmeg. See *nux moschata*. The mace, when fresh, is of a blood-red color, and acquires its yellow

MA

hue in drying. It is dried in the sun upon hurdles fixed above one another, and then, it is said, sprinkled with sea water, to prevent its crumbling in carrying. It has a pleasant aromatic smell, and a warm, bitterish, moderately pungent taste. It is in common use as a grateful spice, and appears to be in its general qualities nearly similar to the nutmeg. The principal difference consists in the mace being much warmer, more bitter, less unctuous, and sitting easier on weak stomachs.

MACROPIPER, (*Macropiper*, *eris*, n. *μακροπιπερ*; from *μακρος*, long, and *πιπερις*, pepper.) See *Piper longum*.

MACŪLA, (*Macula*, *æ*, f.). A permanent discolouration of some portion of the skin, often with a change of its texture, but not connected with any disorder of the constitution.

MACŪLA VENERĒA. The venereal eruption.

MAD-APPLE. The oblong egg-shaped fruit of the *Solanum melongena* of Linnæus. They are often boiled in their native places in soups and fauces, the same as the love-apple, are accounted very nutritive, and are much sought after by the votaries of Venus.

MADARŌSIS, (*Madarosis*, *is*, f. *μαδαρωσις*, from *μαδος*, bald, without

hair). A defect or loss of eyebrows, or eyelashes, causing a disagreeable deformity, and painful sensation of the eyes, in a strong light.

MADDER. See *Rubia*.

MADNESS. See *Melancholia*, *Insania*, and *Mania*.

MADOR, (*Mador, oris, m.*) A sweating. See *Ephidrosis*.

MAGELLANICANUS CORTEX. See *Winteranus cortex*.

MAGISTERY, (*Magisterium, i, n.* from *magister*, a master). The ancient chemists used this word to signify a peculiar and secret method of preparing any medicine as it were by a masterly process. A subtle preparation, as a precipitate or solution by menstruum.

MAGISTRANTIA, (*Magistrantia, a, f.* from *magistro*, to rule, so called by way of eminence as exceeding all others in virtues). See *Imperatoria*.

MAGNES, (*Magnes, elis, m.* from *Magnes*, its inventor). The magnet or load stone. A muddy iron ore, in which the iron is modified in such a manner as to afford a passage to a fluid called the magnetic fluid. The magnet exhibits certain phenomena; it is known by its property of attracting steel filings, and is found in Auvergne, in Biscay, in Spain, in Sweden, and Siberia.

MAGNESIA, (*Magnesia, a, f.* from *magnes*, a loadstone). The substance which is thus called in the scientific chemical nomenclature is pure magnesian earth, and not the magnesia of the shops. It is given as an absorbent, antacid, and eccoprotic, in cardialgia, spasms, convulsions, and tormina of the bowels of infants; pyrosis, flatulencies, and other diseases of the primæ viæ; obstipation, leucorrhœa, rickets, scrophula, crusta lactea, and podagra. See *Magnesia alba*.

MAGNESIA ALBA, (*Magnesia, a,*

from *magnes*, a loadstone). The ancient alchemists gave this name to such substances as they conceived to have the power of attracting any principle from the air. Thus an earth, which from being exposed to the air, increased in weight, and yielded vitriol, they called *magnesia vitriolata*: and later chemists, observing in their process, that a nitrous acid was separated, and an earth left behind, supposing it had attracted the acid, called it *magnesia nitri*, which from its colour soon obtained the name of *magnesia alba*. The *magnesia alba* of the pharmacopœias is a carbonate of magnesia, and is usually obtained from Epsom salt. It is in form of very fine powder, considerably resembling flour in its appearance and feel; it has no sensible taste on the tongue; it gives a faint greenish colour to the tincture of violets, and converts turnsole to a blue. It is employed medicinally as an absorbent, antacid, and purgative.

MAGNESIA CALCINATA. See *Magnesia usta*.

MAGNESIA USTA. *Magnesia calcinata*. *Magnesia pura*. Burnt magnesia. This preparation is the pure magnesian earth, and therefore termed *magnesia* simply in the new chemical nomenclature. It is antacid and eccoprotic, and may be given with advantage in cardialgia, spasms, convulsions, and tormina of infants, flatulencies, and other disorders of the primæ viæ. It is likewise recommended in the cure of leucorrhœa, rickets, scrophula, crusta lactea, and podagra.

MAGNESIA VITRIOLATA. *Sal catharticus amarus*. *Sal Epsomensis*. This very common purging salt is obtained in great abundance from the Epsom water in Surrey. It is a sulphate of magnesia, and therefore called *fulphas magnesiæ* in the new

chemical nomenclature. It is mostly given as a cathartic in subura of the primæ viæ, constipation, &c. Its nauseous state is completely overcome by rubbing two or three bitter almonds to an ounce, and mixing them. Vitriolated magnesia is also employed to obtain magnesia.

MAGNETISM. The property which iron possesses of being attracted by the magnet.

MAGNUM OS. The third bone of the lower row of the bones of the carpus, reckoning from the thumb towards the little finger.

MAHAGONI. The systematic name of the tree whose wood bears this name, and is so well known, is the *Swietenia mahagoni* of Linnæus. Its bark, when dried, has an adstringent bitter taste, similar to that of peruvian bark, but stronger, for which it appears it may be substituted in the cure of fevers and other diseases.

MAIDENHAIR. See *Adiantum*.

MAIDENHAIR, CANADA. *Adiantum Canadense*. This is the *Adiantum pedatum* of Linnæus. It is in common use in France for the same purposes as the common adiantum is in the country, and appears to be far superior to it.

MAIDENHAIR, ENGLISH. See *Adiantum*.

MAIDENHAIR-TREE. *Ginkgo. Ginan Itso*. In China and Japan, where this tree grows, the fruit acquires the size of a damask plumb, and contains a kernel resembling that of our apricot. These kernels always make part of the desert at all public feasts and entertainments. They are said to promote digestion, and to cleanse the stomach and bowels.

MAJANTHEMUM. See *Lilium convallium*.

MAJORANA, (*Majorana*, *a*, *f*. corrupted from *majorano*, *quod mense Maia florebat*, because it flowers in

May). Sweet marjoram. *Origanum majorana* of Linnæus. *Origanum foliis ovatis obtusis, spicis subrotundis compactis pubescentibus*. Class *Didynamia*. Order *Gymnospermia*. This plant has been long cultivated in our gardens, and is in frequent use for culinary purposes. The leaves and tops have a pleasant smell, and a moderately warm, aromatic, bitterish taste. The medicinal qualities of the plant are similar to those of the wild plant (see *Origanum*); but being much more fragrant, it is thought to be more cephalic. It is directed in the *pulvis sternutatorius* by both Pharmacopeias, with a view to the agreeable odour which it diffuses to the asarabacca, rather than to its errhine power, which is very inconsiderable. In its recent state it is said to have been successfully applied to schirrous tumours of the breast.

MAJORANA SYRIACA. See *Marum syriacum*.

MALABAR PLUM. This fruit which is the produce of the *Eugenia jambos*, smells, when ripe, like roses. On the coast of Malabar, where the trees grow plentifully, these plums are in great esteem. They are not only eaten fresh off the trees, but are preserved in sugar, in order to have them eatable all the year. Of the flowers a conserve is prepared, which is used medicinally as a mild adstringent.

MALABATHRUM, (*Malabathrum*, *i*, *n*. *μαλαβαθρον*; from *Malabar*, in India, whence it was brought, and *betre*, a leaf, Ind.). The leaf of the tree whose bark is called cassia. See *Cassia lignea*.

MALACABEAN. See *Anacardium orientale*.

MALACHITE, (*Malachites*, from *μαλαχίη*, the mallow, from its resemblance in colour to the mallow). A species of copper ore found in Siberia.

MALACOSTEON, (*Malacosteon*, *i*, *n*. μαλακαστεον; from μαλακος, soft, and οστεον, a bone. See *Mollities of sum*).

MALÆ OS, (*Mala*, *ø*, *f*. from *malus*, so called from its roundness). The cheek bone. See *Jugale os*.

MALATS, (*Malas*, *tis*, *m*.). Salts formed by the union of the malic acid, or acid of apples, with different bases; thus *malat of copper*, *malat of lead*, &c.

MALE FERN. See *Filix*.

MALE ORCHIS. See *Satyrion*.

MALE SPEEDWELL. See *Veronica*.

MALIC ACID. *Acidum malicum*. This acid is obtained by saturating the juice of apples with alkali, and pouring in the acetous solution of lead, until it occasions no more precipitate. The precipitate is then to be edulcorated, and sulphuric acid poured on it, until the liquor has acquired a fresh acid taste, without any mixture of sweetness. The whole is then to be filtered, to separate the sulphate of lead. The filtered liquor is the malic acid, which is very pure, remains always in a fluid state, and cannot be rendered concrete. The union of this acid with different bases constitutes what are called malats.

MALIGNANT. (*Malignus*). A term which may be applied to any disease whose symptoms are so aggravated as to threaten the destruction of the patient. It is frequently used to signify a dangerous epidemic.

MALIS, (*Malis*, *is*, *f*.). A disease of the skin produced by an insect lodging underneath. It is very common in Persia, where the disease is produced by the worm called *Gordius medinensis*, or *Dracunculus persicus*; in America, by the *Pulex*; and it is sometimes produced in Europe by the *Pediculus*.

MALLEABILITY, (*Malleabilitas*, from *malleus*, a hammer). The pro-

perty which several metals possess of being extended under the hammer into thin plates, without cracking.

MALLÆI ANTERIOR. See *Laxator tympani*.

MALLÆI EXTERNUS. See *Laxator tympani*.

MALLÆI INTERNUS. See *Tensor tympani*.

MALLEÖLUS, (*Malleolus*, *i*, *m*. dim. of *malleus*, a mallet; so called from its supposed resemblance to a mallet). The ankle, distinguished into external and internal, or *malleolus externus* and *internus*.

MALLÆUS, (*Malleus*, *i*, *m*. quasi *molleus*, from *mollio*, to soften; so called from its likeness to a little hammer). A bone of the internal ear is so termed. It is distinguished into a head, neck, and manubrium. The head is round, and encrusted with a thin cartilage, and annexed to another bone of the ear, the incus, by ginglymus. Its neck is narrow, and situated between the head and manubrium or handle; from which a long slender process arises, adheres to a furrow in the auditory canal, and is continued as far as the fissure in the articular cavity of the temporal bone. The manubrium is terminated by an enlarged extremity, and connected to the membrana tympani by a short conoid process.

MALLOW, COMMON. See *Malva*.

MALLOW, ROUND-LEAVED. See *Malva rotundifolia*.

MALLOW, VERVAIN. See *Malva alcea*.

MALPHIGIA GLABRA. The systematic name of the tree which affords an esculent cherry. See *Barbadoes cherry*.

MALUM MORTUUM. A disease that appears in the form of a pustule, which soon forms a dry, brown, hard, and broad crust. It is seldom attended with pain, and remains fixed for a long time before it can be detach-

ed. It is mostly observed on the tibia and os coccygis, and sometimes on the face.

MALVA, (*Malva*, *a*, f. *quasi mollis*, from *mollis*, soft; named from the softness of its leaves). *Malva vulgaris*. Common mallow. *Malva sylvestris* of Linnæus. *Malva caule erecto herbaceo, foliis septemlobatis acutis, pedunculis petiolisque pilosis*. Class *Monadelphia*. Order *Polyandria*. This indigenous plant has a strong affinity to the althæa, both in a botanical and a medical respect. See *Althæa*. It is principally used in fomentations, cataplasms, and emollient enemas.

MALVA ALCEA. The vervain mallow. The flowers of this plant are used medicinally in some countries.

MALVA ARBORËA. The mallow tree. This beautiful tree is the *alcea rosea* of Linnæus. The flowers are said to possess adstringent and mucilaginous virtues. They are seldom used medicinally.

MALVA ROTUNDIFOLIÀ. Round-leaved mallow. The whole herb and root possess similar virtues to, and may be substituted for the common mallow. See *Malva*.

MALVA SYLVESTRIS. The systematic name of the common mallow. See *Malva*.

MALVA VULGARIS. See *Malva*.

MALVERN WATER. This mineral water is classed amongst the simple cold waters. Its contents, as well as that of Holywell in the county of Flint, are some carbonic acid, a very small portion of earth, either lime or magnesia, united with the carbonic and marine acids; perhaps a little neutral alkaline salt, and a very large proportion of water. Malvern water is principally employed *externally* in scrofulous inflammations of the eyes, and all cutaneous eruptions; *internally* it is prescribed in painful affections of the kidneys and bladder, attended

with bloody, purulent, or fetid urine, irritating sores of the surface, and fistulas of long standing.

MAMILLÆ, (*Mamilla*, *a*, f. *dim. mamma*, the breast). The breasts of men are so termed. It is likewise applied sometimes to the nipple.

MAMMA, (*Mamma*, *a*, f.). See *Breast*.

MAMMARY ARTERIES. *Arteria mamillares*. The internal mammary artery is a branch of the subclavian, and gives off the mediastinal, thymal, and pericardiac arteries. The external mammary is a branch of the axillary artery.

MAMMARY VEINS. *Vena mamillares*. These vessels accompany the arteries, and evacuate their blood into the subclavian vein.

MAMMEA AMERICANA. The systematic name of the tree on which the mammee fruit grows. See *Mammee*.

MAMMEE. A delicious fruit, the produce of the *Mammea Americana* of Linnæus. They have a very grateful flavour when ripe, and are much cultivated in Jamaica, where they are generally sold in the markets for one of the best fruits of the island.

MAN. Man is compounded of solids, fluids, a vital principle, and, what distinguishes him from every other animal, a soul.

The solids are divided into hard and soft, which analysis demonstrates to be formed of earthy particles, connected together by an intermediate gluten. The hard parts are the bones and cartilages. The soft parts, muscles, nerves, the viscera, and every other part except the fluids. The fluids are very various. See *Fluids*. Anatomy demonstrates the structure of the various parts of which the human body consists, these the reader will find under their respective heads, as muscles, bones, cartilages, &c. and of late great progress has been made towards ascertaining, by chemi-

cal criteria, its principles and elements. The constituent principles of man are, 1. *The water*, which constitutes the greatest part of the humours, and is the vehicle of the other principles. 2. *The Animal gas*, which consists of carbonated hydrogen, and is found not only in the blood, but in all the other fluids. 3. *The Inflammable gas*, emitted from the large intestines, *in flatu*. 4. *The Animal gluten*, which consists of carbone, and azote, and forms the fibres of the solid parts; the caseous portion of the milk; and the cruor of the blood. 5. *The Albumen*, present in the serum of the blood. 6. *The Jelly*, found in the serum of the blood; lymph of the lymphatic vessels, and other fluids; and the interstices of all the fibres. 7. *The Cruor*, which is the animal gluten impregnated with oxydated iron. 8. *The Mucus*, which lubricates the primæ viæ; the aerial surfaces of the lungs; the parts of generation, and the urinary passages. 9. *The Animal oil*, which fills the cells of the adipose membrane. 10. *The Resin*, found in the bile. 11. *The Sebacic acid*, which is present in animal oil. 12. *The Phosphoric acid*, which enters into the composition of the animal earth of the bones, and the phosphorated salts of the urine. 13. *The Lactic acid*, in the sugar of the serum of the milk. 14. *The Sugar*, latent in the serum of the milk. 15. *The Animal earth*, which is a phosphorated calx, and not only forms the greatest part of the bones, but also is found in the fibres of the soft parts, and in all the fluids. 16. *Phosphorated volatile alkali*, and 17. *Phosphorated soda*, both of which are detected in the urine. 18. *Culinary salt*, obtained from the urine, gastric juice, semen, and other humours.

The Elementary Principles of our body hitherto known, are, 1. *Azot*, an element which combined with hy-

drogene constitutes volatile alkali; with the matter of heat, azotic air; with carbon, the gluten of animal fibres. *Azot* is the primary element of the animal body, for it may be extracted from almost every part of the animal, by means of the nitrous acid, this having a greater affinity with the elements than the azot itself. The mucus, jelly, membranes, tendons, ligaments, and cartilages, afford it in a less degree by means of the nitrous acid. The lymph, serum of the blood, the water of hydropic patients, the liquor amnii, and cheese, give out more. The greatest quantity of azot is obtained from the coagulable lymph of the blood, and from muscle. The flesh of young animals contain less than that of old; and it is in greater quantity in sarco-phagous, than in the flesh of phytophagous animals and fish. It is not probable that the azot is produced by the decomposition of the nitre; for after having performed the separation, it is capable of saturating the same quantity of salt of tartar as before. 2. *The matter of heat*, which enters into the composition of both solids and fluids, and which, in a separate form, constitutes the animal heat. 3. *The matter of light*, which in its free state produces vision, and, when compounded, enters as an element into the composition of oil and all other inflammable parts. The eyes of animals, which shine in the night time, owe this property to the matter of light. 4. *The electric matter*, which enters into all bodies, and affords the phenomena of animal electricity. 5. *Oxygen*, which, in combination with the matter of heat, constitutes vital air; with hydrogen, forms water; with aciescent bases, the acid salts of our fluids. 6. *Hydrogen*, which, combined with oxygen, forms water; with azote, volatile alkali; with the matter of heat, inflammable air, which is emitted from

the large intestines; and with carbon, animal gas: and lastly, combined with carbon and the sebatic acid, constitutes the oil of the adipose membrane. 7. *Carbon*, which, in combination with hydrogen and the sebatic acid, constitutes the oil of the adipose membrane; with hydrogen alone, animal gas; with azot, animal gluten. 8. *Sulphur*, which, combined with inflammable air, constitutes the hepatic air, that exhales from muscular fibres, hair, incubated eggs, animal gluten, and, according to Lavoisier, human excrement. 9. *Phosphorus*, which, with oxygen, forms the phosphoric acid; and, with inflammable air, phosphoric air. The lucid sweat of some men, the phosphorescence or light given out by the putrifying bodies of some animals, and the phosphorus obtained from cheese and human bones, sufficiently shew that phosphorus constitutes an element of our body. 10. *Soda*, or the fixed mineral alkali. 11. *Potash*, or the fixed vegetable alkali. Each of these is found in several of the fluids of the human body. 12. *An Earthy element*. Of the earths, no kind is so frequently detected as the *calcareous*, which is found in the bones and other parts. 13. *A metallic element*. Of so great a number of metals, iron and manganese alone are found in an organized body, whether animal or vegetable. Iron is in greater quantity in the flesh than in the bones; but in the greatest proportion in the crur or red part of the blood. 14. *An odorous principle*, perceptible in all the animal fluids; but of a peculiar kind in the human urine and excrements. 15. *The nervous fluid*, contained in the nerves, and which appears to be an element *sui generis*, distinct from all known fluids, and not to be collected by art. 16. *The vital principle*. In all solid and fluid parts of a living body there exists an element, with properties peculiar to

itself, which constitutes life; hence it is justly called vital. This principle induces a mode of union in the other elements, widely differing from that which arises from the common laws of chemical affinity. By the aid of this principle nature produces the animal fluids, as blood, bile, semen, and the rest, which can never be produced by the art of chemistry. But if, in consequence of death, the laws of vital attraction or affinity cease to operate, then the elements, recovering their former properties, become again obedient to the common laws of chemical affinity, and enter into new combinations, from which new principles, or the production of putrefaction, are produced. Thus the hydrogen, combining itself with the azot, forms volatile alkali; and the carbonated hydrogen, with the azot, putrid air, into which the whole body is converted. It also appears from hence, why organized bodies alone, namely animal and vegetable, are subject to putridity; to which inorganic or mineral substances are in no degree liable, the latter not being compounded according to the laws of vital affinity, but only according to those of chemical affinity. For the fatiscence or resolution of the pyrites or ferrum sulphuratum in the atmospheric air, is not putrefaction, but only the oxygen, furnished by the air, combining with the sulphur, and forming sulphuric acid. Fire, as well as putridity, separates the constituent principles of animal bodies into their elements; but these, by a peculiar law, under the action of fire again combine in a different manner, and form peculiar constituent principles, called the products of fire. Thus the hydrogen, combining with azot, is changed into volatile alkali; but with a large proportion of carbon, it forms empyreumatic oil. From what has hitherto been said, it will also appear, that the true constituent

principles of an animal body cannot be detected, either by putrefaction or the action of fire; for by these means we only discover the elements of those principles. Thus, whenever volatile alkali is found to be generated, azot and hydrogen may be supposed to have been present in the natural state of the animal substance; and when empyreumatic oil is obtained, it may be concluded it is furnished by the hydrogen and carbon of the animal part.

MANDIBŪLA, (*Mandibula*, *α*, *f.* from *mando*, to chew). The lower jaw. See *Maxilla inferior*.

MANDRAGŌRA, (*Mandragora*, *α*, *f.* *μανδραγορα*, from *μανδρα*, a den, and *αγειρα*, to collect, because it grows about caves and dens of beasts; or from the German *man dragen*, bearing man). Mandrake. *Atropa mandragora* of Linnæus. The boiled root is employed in the form of poultice, to disperse indolent tumours.

MANDRAKE. See *Mandragora*.

MANGANESE, (*Manganesium*, *i*, *n.*). A gray dark-coloured mineral oxyd, which soils the fingers, and is employed in glass-houses in different proportions, either to colour or take away colour from glass. It ought to be considered as a peculiar semimetal, because its analysis has not yet been made, and it is found to possess properties common to no other metallic substance. As it contains vital air in very large quantity, it is chiefly employed in medicine to obtain that air for respiration in diseases of debility, &c. With this view, the manganese is first powdered, then dried over the fire in a pipkin, and then put into the iron crucible to be placed in the fire. A tube continued from the crucible is conveyed to an inverted tub filled with water. As the heat extricates the vital air from the manganese, it passes along the tube to the tub, and forces the water out by the opening through which the tube enters. This

air will keep for ages if the tub be kept moist and air-tight. One pound of the mineral gives off twenty gallons of air.

MANGĪFERA INDĪCA. The systematic name of the mango tree. See *Mango*.

MANGO. The fruit of the *Mangifera indica* of Linnæus, which is cultivated all over Asia. When ripe, they are juicy, of a good flavour, and so fragrant as to perfume the air to a considerable distance. They are eaten either raw or preserved with sugar. Their taste is so luscious, that they soon pall the appetite. The unripe fruits are pickled in the milk of the cocoa nut that has stood until sour, with salt, capicum, and garlick.

MANGOSTANA. See *Mangosteen*.

MANGOSTEEN. A fruit about the size of an orange, which grows in great abundance on the tree called *Garcinia Mangostana* by Linnæus, in Java and the Molucca islands. According to the concurring testimonies of all travellers, it is the most exquisitely flavoured, and the most salubrious of all fruits, it being such a delicious mixture of the tart and sweet. The flesh is juicy, white, almost transparent, and of a more delicate and agreeable flavour than the richest grape. It is eaten in almost every disorder, and the dried bark is used medicinally in dysenteries and tenesmus, and a strong decoction of it is much esteemed as a gargle in ulcerated sore throats.

MANGOSTEEN BARK. See *Mangosteen*.

MANĪA, (*Mania*, *α*, *f.* *μανια*, from *μανομαι*, to rage). Raving or furious madness. A genus of disease in the class *neuroses* and order *vesania* of Cullen, characterized by a conception of false relations, and an erroneous judgment, arising from imaginary perceptions or recollections, exciting the passions, and producing unreasonable actions or emotions, with a hurry

of mind in pursuing a train of thought and in running from one train of thought to another; attended with incoherent and absurd speech, called raving, and violent impatience of either contradiction or restraint.

MANNA, (*Manna*, *a*, f. *μanna*, from *mana*, a gift, Syr. it being the food given by God to the children of Israel in the wilderness; or from *manna*, what is it? an exclamation occasioned by their wonder at its appearance). The condensed juice of the flowering ash, or, *Fraxinus ornus*, *foliis ovato-oblongis serratis petiolatis, floribus corollatis*. Hort. Kew. Class *Polygamia*. Order *Dioecia*; which is a native of the southern parts of Europe, particularly Sicily and Calabria. Many other trees and shrubs have likewise been observed to emit a sweet juice, which concretes upon exposure to the air, and may be considered of the manna kind, especially the *Fraxinus rotundifolia* and *excelsior*. In Sicily these three species of *fraxinus* are regularly cultivated for the purpose of procuring manna, and with this view are planted on the declivity of a hill with an eastern aspect. After ten years growth, the trees first begin to yield the manna, but they require to be much older before they afford it in any considerable quantity. Although the manna exudes spontaneously upon the trees, yet in order to obtain it more copiously, incisions are made through the bark by means of a sharp crooked instrument; and the season thought to be most favourable for instituting this process is a little before the dog-days commence, when the weather is dry and serene. Manna is generally distinguished into different kinds, viz. the manna in tear, the canulated and flaky manna, and the common brown or fat manna. All these varieties seem rather to depend upon their respective purity, and the circumstance in which they are obtained from the plant, than up-

on any essential difference of the drug. The best manna is in oblong pieces, or flakes, moderately dry, friable, very light, of a whitish or pale yellow colour, and in some degree transparent: the inferior kinds are moist, unctuous, and brown. Manna is well known as a gentle purgative, so mild in its operation, that it may be given with safety to children and pregnant women.

MANNA BRIGANTIACA. A species of manna brought from Briançon in Dauphiny.

MANTILE. The name of a bandage.

MAPPLE. See *Saccharum canadense*.

MARANTA GALANGA. The systematic name of the officinal galangal. See *Galanga*.

MARASMUS, (*Marasmus*, *i*, m. *μαρασμος*, from *μαραίνω*, to grow lean). Emaciation. A wasting away of the flesh.

MARANTA. Indian arrow root. A genus of the *Monogynia* order, belonging to the *Monandria* class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the eighth order, *Scitaminea*. The corolla is ringent and quinquefid, with two segments alternately patent. There are three species, the *Arundinacea*, *Galanga*, and *Comefa*, all of them herbaceous, perennial exotics of the Indies, kept here in hot-houses for curiosity; they have thick, knotty, creeping roots, crowned with long, broad, arundinaceous leaves, ending in points, and upright stalks half a yard high, terminated by bunches of monopetalous, ringent, five-parted flowers. They are propagated by parting the roots in spring, and planting them in pots of light rich earth, and then plunging them in the bark-bed. The root of the *Maranta Galanga* is used by the Indians to extract the virus communicated by their poisoned arrows, from whence it has obtained its name of arrow root. The *Maranta Arun-*

linacea, or starch plant, rises to two feet, has broad pointed leaves, small white flowers, and one seed; it is cultivated in gardens and provision grounds in the West-Indies; and the starch is obtained from it by the following process: The roots, when a year old, are dug up, well washed in water, and then beaten in a large deep wooden mortar, to a pulp; this is thrown into a large tub of clean water: the whole is then well stirred, and the fibrous part wrung out by the hands and thrown away. The milky liquor being passed through a hair sieve, or coarse cloth, is suffered to settle, and the clear water drained off. At the bottom of the vessel is a white mass, which is again mixed with clean water, and drained: lastly, the mass is dried on sheets in the sun, and is pure starch. A decoction of the fresh roots makes an excellent ptisan in acute diseases. See *Arrow root*.

MARATHROPHYLLUM, (*Marathrophyllum*, i, n. μαραθροφυλλον, from μαραθρον, fennel, and φυλλοι, a leaf; so named because its leaves resemble those of the common fennel). See *Peucedanum*.

MARATHRUM, (*Marathrum*, i, n. μαραθρον, from μαραινω, to wither; so called because its stalk and flowers wither in the autumn). See *Feniculum*.

MARATHRUM SYLVESTRE. See *Peucedanum*.

MARBLE. Powdered marble, which is a carbonate of lime, is used in pneumatic medicine, to give out carbonic acid gaz.

MARCASITE. See *Bismuth*.

MARCASSITA, (*Marcassita*, a, f. from *marcasite*, Germ.). See *Bismuth*.

MARCHANTIA POLYMORPHA. The systematic name of the liver-wort. See *Hepatica terrestris*.

MARCORES, (*Marcor*, ois, m. from *marceo*, to become lean). Uni-

versal emaciation. The first order in the class *cachexia* of Cullen's nosology.

MARESTAIL. See *Equisetum*.

MARGARITA, (*Margarita*, a, f. μαργαριτη, from *margalith*, Rab.). *Perla*. *Unio*. The pearl. A small calcareous concretion, of a bright transparent whiteness, found on the inside of the shell *Concha margaritifera* of Linnæus, or mother-of-pearl fish. Pearls were formerly exhibited as antacids.

MARGARITA. A tumour upon the eye resembling a pearl.

MARIGOLD, MARSH. *Caltha palustris* of Linnæus. The flower-buds of this very common plant may be pickled as a good substitute for capers.

MARIGOLD, SINGLE. See *Calendula*.

MARINE SALT. *Sal commune*. *Sal culinaris*. *Sal fontium*. *Sal gemma*. *Sal marinus*. *Sal fossile*. *Murias sode*. New Ch. Nom. Common culinary salt. This salt is more abundant in nature than any other. It is found in prodigious masses in the internal parts of the earth, in Calabria, in Hungary, in Muscovy, and more especially Weilienska, in Poland, near Mount Capax, where the mines are very large; and afford immense quantities of salt. It is also obtained by several artificial means from sea-water. See *Murias sode*.

MARJORAM, SWEET. See *Majorana*.

MARJORAM, WILD. See *Origanum*.

MARMALADE. The pulp of quinces, oranges, or any other fruit boiled into a consistence with honey.

MARROW, (*Medulla*, a, f.). The fat substance secreted by the small arteries of its proper membrane, and contained in the medullary cavities of the long cylindrical bones. Its use is not known.

MARROW, SPINAL. See *Medulla spinalis*.

MARRUBIUM, (*Marrubium*, i, n. from *mar rob*, a bitter juice, Heb.). *Marrubium album*. Common white horehound. *Marrubium vulgare*, *denticulus calcynis setaceis uncinatis* of Linnæus. Class *Didynamia*. Order *Gymnospermia*. The leaves of this indigenous plant have a moderately strong smell of the aromatic kind, but not agreeable, which by drying is improved, and in keeping for some months is in great part dissipated; their taste is very bitter, penetrating, diffusive, and durable in the mouth. That horehound possesses some share of medicinal power may be inferred from its sensible qualities, but its virtues do not appear to be clearly ascertained. It is a favorite remedy with the common people in coughs and asthmas.

MARRUBIUM ALBUM. See *Marubium*.

MARRUBIUM VULGARIE. The systematic name of the common horehound. See *Marrubium*.

MARS, (*Mars, tis, m.*) The alchemists gave this name to iron.

MARSEILLES HART WORT. See *Seseli massiliense*.

MARSHMALLOW. See *Althea*.

MARSHTREFOIL. See *Trefolium paludosum*.

MARSUPIALIS, (*Marsupialis*, sc. *musculus*; from *marsupium*, a purse, so named from its resemblance). See *Obturator internus*.

MARTAGON LILY. *Lilium martagon* of Linnæus, who informs us the root makes part of the daily food of the Siberians.

MARUM SYRIACUM, (*Marum*, i, n. *μαρον*; from *mar*, bitter, Heb.) *Majorana syriaca*. *Marum verum*. Marum germander, or Syrian herb mastich. This shrub is the *Teucrium marum* of Linnæus, *Teucrium foliis integerrimis ovatis acutis petiolatis, subtus tomentosis, floribus racemosis secundis*. Class *Didynamia*. Order *Gymnospermia*. It grows plentifully

in Greece, Ægypt, Crete, and Syria. The leaves and younger branches when recent, on being rubbed betwixt the fingers, emit a volatile aromatic smell, which readily excites sneezing; to the taste they are bitterish, accompanied with a sensation of heat and acrimony. Judging from these sensible qualities of the plant, it may be supposed to possess very active powers. It is recommended as a stimulant, aromatic, and deobstruent; and Linnæus, Rosenstein, and Bergius speak highly of its utility. At present, however, marum is chiefly used as an errhine, and is an ingredient in the *pulvis asari compositus* of the London Pharmacopœia.

MARUM VERUM. See *Marum syriacum*.

MARUM VULGARE. Common herb mastich. *Thymus mastichina* of Linnæus. A low shrubby plant, a native of Spain, which is employed as an errhine. It has a strong agreeable smell like mastich.

MASLACH. A medicine of the opiate kind, in use amongst the Turks.

MASSA, (*Massa*, *α*, f. *μαζα*; from *massa*, to blend together). A term generally applied to the compound out of which pills are to be formed.

MASSA CARNEA JACOBI SYLVII. See *Flexor longus digitorum pedis*.

MASSETER, (*Masseter*, *eris*, m. *μασσητης*; from *μασσαι*, to chew, because it assists in chewing). A muscle of the lower jaw, situated on the side of the face. It is a short thick muscle, which arises, by fleshy and tendinous fibres, from the lower edge of the malar process of the maxillary bone, the lower horizontal edge of the os malæ, and the lower edge of the zygomatic process of the temporal bone, as far backwarks as the eminence belonging to the

articulation of the lower jaw. From some little interruption in the fibres of this muscle, at their origin, some writers describe it as arising by two, and others by three distinct portions, or heads. The two layers of fibres of which it seems to be composed, cross each other as they descend, the external layer extending backwards, and the internal one slanting forwards. It is inserted into the basis of the coronoid process, and into all that part of the lower jaw which supports the coronoid and condyloid processes. Its use is to raise the lower jaw, and, by means of the above mentioned decussation, to move it a little forwards and backwards in the act of chewing.

MASOY CORTEX. See *Cortex massoy*.

MASTERWORT. See *Imperatoria*.

MASTICATION, (*Masticatio, onis*, f. from *maslico*, to chew). Chewing. A natural function. The mixing together and dividing of the particles of the food in the mouth, by the action of the jaws, tongue, lips, and cheeks. By means of this function the food is lacerated and mixed with the saliva and the mucus of the mouth and fauces, and thus made into a bolus of such a consistence as to be formed into a convenient size to be swallowed. See *Deglutition*.

MASTICATORIES, (*Masticatoria, se. medicamenta*; from *Mastico*, to chew). Such medicines as are intended for chewing.

MASTICHE, (*Mastiche, es*, f. *μαστιχα*; from *μασσω*, to express). *Mastix*. Mastich. The tree which affords this resin is the *Pistachia lentiscus*; *foliis abrupte pinnatis, foliis lanceolatis*, of Linnæus. Class *Dioecia*. Order *Pentandria*, a native of the south of Europe. In the island of Chios the officinal mastich is obtained most abundantly, and, according to Tournefort, by making transverse incisions in the bark of the tree, from

whence the mastich exudes in drops, which are suffered to run down to the ground, when, after sufficient time is allowed for their concretion, they are collected for use. Mastich is brought to us in small, yellowish, transparent, brittle tears or grains; it has a light agreeable smell, especially when rubbed or heated; on being chewed it first crumbles, soon after sticks together, and becomes soft and white, like wax, without impressing any considerable taste. It is considered to be a mild corroborant and adstringent; and as possessing a balsamic power it has been recommended in hæmoptysis, proceeding from ulceration, leucorrhœa, debility of the stomach, and in diarrhœas and internal ulcerations. Chewing this drug has likewise been said to have been of use in pains of the teeth and gums, and in some catarrhal complaints; it is, however, in the present day, seldom used either externally or internally. The wood abounds with the resinous principle, and a tincture may be obtained from it, which is esteemed in some countries in the cure of hæmorrhages, dysenteries, and gout.

MASTICH TREE. See *Lentiscus*.

MASTICH HERB, COMMON. See *Marum vulgare*.

MASTICH HERB, SYRIAN. See *Marum syriacum*.

MASTICH WOOD. See *Lentiscus*.

MASTIX, (*μαστιξ*). See *Mastiche*.

MASTODÛNĪA, (*Mastodynĭa, æ*, f. *μαστοδυνια*; from *μαστος*, a breast, and *οδυνη*, pain). Phlegmon of the breast of women. It is characterized by all the symptoms of acute inflammation, and mostly terminates in abscess.

MASTOID, (*Mastioideus*; *μαστοειδο*, a breast, and *ειδος*, resemblance). Those processes of bones are so termed that are shaped like the nipple of the breast.

MASTOIDEUS, (*μαστοειδαιος*; from *μαστοειδης*, the mastoid process). Inserted into, or belonging to the mastoid process. See *Sterno cleidomastoideus*.

MATALISTA RADIX. A root said to be imported from America, where it is given as a purgative, its action being rather milder than that of jalap.

MATER, (*Mater, ris, f. μητρε, a* mother). Two membranes of the brain had this epithet given to them

by the Arabians, who thought they gave origin to all other membranes of the body. See *Dura mater* and *pia mater*. Also a name of the herb mugwort, because of its virtue in disorders of the womb.

MATER DURA. See *Dura mater*.

MATER PIA. See *Pia mater*.

MATERIA MEDICA. Substances which are ordered for medicinal uses.

A Systematic Arrangement of the Vegetable MATERIA MEDICA, according to the LINNÆAN System.

CLASS I.

MONANDRIA.

Order Monogynia.

AMOMUM zingiber.

— cardamomum.

— granum paradisi.

Costus arabicus.

Maranta galanga.

Curcuma longa.

Kaempferia rotunda.

CL. II. DIANDRIA.

O. Monogynia.

Jasminum officinale.

Olea Europæa.

Veronica officinalis.

— beccabunga.

Gratiola officinalis.

Verbena officinalis.

Monarda fistulosa.

Rosmarinus officinalis.

Salvia officinalis.

— horminum.

— sclarea.

Collinsonia canadensis.

Trigynia.

Piper nigrum.

Piper longum.

— cubeba.

— betel.

CL. III. TRIANDRIA.

O. Monogynia.

Valeriana officinalis.

— phu.

— celtica.

Tamarindus indica.

Crocus sativus.

Iris florentina.

— tuberosa.

— Germanica.

— pseudacorus.

— foetidissima.

Gladiolus communis.

Cyperus longus.

— rotundus.

Digynia.

Arundo phragmitis.

Saccharum officinarum.

Phalaris canariensis.

Panicum italicum.

— dactylon.

— miliaceum.

Avena sativa.

Secale cereale.

Hordeum distichon.

Triticum hybernum.

Triticum Repens.

CL. IV. TETRANDRIA

O. Monogynia.

Globularia alypum.

Dipsacus fullonum.

Scabiosa succisa.

— arvensis.

Asperula odorata.

Galium verum.

— mollugo.

— aparine.

Rubia tinctorum.

Penæa farcocolla.

Plantago major.

— media.

— lanceolata.

— psyllium.

Fagara octandra.

Hediotis auricularia.

Sanguisorba officinalis.

Bankia abyssinica.

Trapa natans.

Dorstenia contrayerva.

Santalum album.

Camphorosma Monspeliensis.

Alchemilla vulgaris.

Digynia.

Cuscuta Europæa.

Luscuta epithymum.

Tetragynia.

lex aquifolium.

— *castane.*

L. V. PENTANDRIA.

O. Monogynia.

Lithospermum officinal.

Anchusa officinalis.

— *tinctoria.*

Synoglossum officinale.

Pulmonaria officinalis.

Symphytum officinale.

Orago officinalis.

Primula veris.

Soldanella alpina.

Cyclamen Europæum.

Menyanthes trifoliata.

Symphylia mummularia.

Anagallis arvensis.

Pigelia anthelmintica.

— *marilandica.*

Ophiorrhiza mungos.

Onosma echioides.

Plumbago Europæa.

Convolvulus scammonia.

— *turpethum.*

— *Jalapa.*

— *mechoacanna.*

— *Soldanella.*

Linchona officinalis.

— *carybæa.*

— *angustifolia.*

— *corymbifera.*

— *floribunda.*

— *montana.*

— *tecamez.*

Coffea Arabica.

— *occidentalis.*

Psychotria emetica.

Lonicera periclymenum.

— *symphoricarpos.*

— *diervilla.*

Verbascum thapsus.

— *nigrum.*

Datura stramonium.

Hyosciamus niger.

Hyosciamus albus.

Nicotiana tabacum.

Atropa mandagora.

— *belladonna.*

Physalis alkekengi.

Solanum dulcamara.

— *nigrum.*

Capficum annuum.

— *baccatum.*

Strychnos nux vomica.

— *colubrina?*

— *volubilis?*

— *atia amara?*

Coris Monspelliensis.

Cordia mixa.

Rhamnus catharticus.

— *frangula.*

— *zizyphus.*

Ceanothus Americanus.

Ribes rubrum.

— *nigrum.*

Hedera helix.

Vitis vinifera.

— *apyræna.*

Lagoecia cuminoides.

Allamanda cathartica.

Vinca minor.

Nerium antidysenteric.

Plumeria alba.

Echites syphilitica.

Dygynia.

Asclepias althematica.

— *vincetoxicum.*

Herniaria glabra.

Chenopodium bonus

henricus.

— *rubrum.*

— *botrys.*

— *ambrosioides.*

— *anthelminthicum.*

— *vulvaria.*

Beta vulgaris.

— *cicla.*

Salsola kali.

— *fativa.*

— *soda.*

Ulmus campestris.

Gentiana lutea.

— *asclepeadea.*

— *centaurium.*

Gentiana purpurea.

— *cruciata.*

— *amarella.*

Eryngium campestre.

Sanicula Europæa.

Bupleurum rotundifolium.

Tordylium officinale.

Daucus carota.

Conium maculatum.

Cachris odontalgica.

Athamanta annua.

— *oreoselinum.*

Peucedanum officinale.

Ferula asfa fœtida.

Laserpitium filer.

— *latifolium.*

Heracleum spondilium.

Ligusticum levisticum.

Angelica archangelica.

— *sylvestris.*

Sium ninsi.

— *nodiflorum.*

Sison amomum.

Ammi majus.

Bubon macedonicum.

— *galbanum.*

Cuminum cyminum.

Cœnanthe crocata.

Phellandrium aquaticum.

Cicuta virosa.

Æthusa meum.

Coriandrum fativum.

Scandix cerefolium.

Chærophyllyum sylvestre.

Imperatoria ostruthium.

Seseli tortuosum.

Pastinaca fativa.

— *opopanax.*

Anethum graveolens.

— *Fœniculum.*

Carum carui.

Pimpinella saxifraga.

— *magna.*

— *anisum.*

Apium petroselinum.

— *graveolens.*

Trigynia.

Semecarpus anacardium.

Rhus coriaria.
 — *typhinum.*
 — *vernix.*
Cassine peragua.
Sambucus ebulus.
 — *nigra.*
Tamarix gallica.
Alfene media.

Tetragynia.
Parnassia palustris.

Pentagynia.
Statice limonium.
Linum usitatissimum.
 — *catharticum.*
Drosera rotundifolia.

CL. VI. HEXANDRIA.
O. Monogynia.

Bromelia ananas.
Allium victorale.
 — *fativum.*
 — *porrum.*
 — *cepa.*
Lilium candidum.
Scilla maritima.
Asphodelus ramosus.
Asparagus officinalis.
Dracæna draco.
Convallaria majalis.
 — *polygonatum.*
Aloe perfoliata.
Bursera gummifera.
Acorus calamus.
Calamus rotang.
Achras sapota.
Berberis vulgaris.

Digynia.
Oryza fativa.

Trigynia.
Rumex crispus.
 — *sanguineus.*
 — *patientia.*
 — *acutus.*
 — *hydrolapathum.*
 — *scutatus.*
 — *alpinus.*
 — *acetosa.*

Colchicum autumnale.
 — *illyricum.*

Tetragynia.
Petivera alliacea.

CL. VII. HEPTANDRIA.
O. Monogynia.
Æsculus hypocaustanum

CL. VIII. OCTANDRIA.
O. Monogynia.

Tropæolum majus.
Amyris elemifera.
 — *gileadenfis.*
 — *opobalsamum.*
 — *zeylanica.*
 — *kataf.*
Lawsonia inermis.
Vaccinium myrtillus.
 — *vitis idæa.*
 — *oxycoccos.*
Daphne mezereum.
 — *thymelæa.*
 — *laureola.*
 — *gnidium.*

Trigynia.
Polygonum fagopyrum.
 — *bistorta.*
 — *hydropiper.*
 — *perficaria.*
 — *aviculare.*
Sapindus saponaria.

Tetragynia.
Paris quadrifolia.

CL. IX. ENNEANDRIA.
O. Monogynia.

Laurus cinnamomum.
 — *castia.*
 — *myrrha?*
 — *camphor.*
 — *culilawan.*
 — *nobilis.*
 — *sassafras.*
 — *pecurim.*
Anacardium occidentale.

Trigynia.
Rheum palmatum.

Rheum rhaponticum.
 — *undulatum.*

CL. X. DECANDRIA.
O. Monogynia.

Sophora heptaphylla.
Hymenæa courbaril.
Cassia fistula.
 — *fenna.*
Poinciana pulcherrima.
Cæsalpinia sappan.
 — *crista.*
Myroxylon peruiferum.
Guilandina moringa.
Guajacum officinale.
 — *sanctum.*
Dictamnus albus.
Ruta graveolens.
Toluifera balsamum.
Hæmatoxylum campe-
chianum.
Swietenia mahogani.
 — *febrifuga.*
Quassia amara.
 — *simaruba.*
 — *dioica?*
Ledum palustre.
Rhododendron chrysan-
thum.
 — *ferrugineum.*
Arbutus uva ursi.
Pyrola rotundifolia.
Styrax officinalis.
 — *Benzoin.*
Copaifera officinalis.

Digynia.
Saxifraga granulata.
 — *crassifolia.*
Saponaria officinalis.
Dianthus caryophyllus.

Pentagynia.
Sedum telephium.
 — *acre.*
Oxalis acetosella.
 — *cernua.*
 — *corniculata.*

Decogynia.
Phytolacca decandra.

Cl. XI. DODECANDRIA.

O. Monogynia.

Afarum Europæum.
 Canella alba?
 Portulaca oleracea.
 Lythrum salicaria.
 Garcinia mangostana.

Digynia.

Agrimonia eupatoria.

Trigynia.

Euphorbia officinarum.
 — canescens.
 — parviflora.
 — esula.
 — Lathyris.
 — palustris.

Dodecagynia.

Sempervivum tectorum.

Cl. XII. ICOSANDRIA.

O. Monogynia.

Cactus opuntia.
 Myrtus communis.
 — caryophyllata.
 — pimenta.
 Punica granatum.
 Amygdalus communis.
 — nana.
 — persica.
 Prunus avium.
 — cerasus.
 — domestica.
 — lauro-cerasus.
 — padus.
 — spinosa.

Trigynia.

Sorbus aucuparia.
 — domestica.

Pentagynia.

Mesembryanthemum
 crystallinum.
 Mespilus germanica.
 Pyrus malus.
 — cydonia.
 Spiræa filipendula.
 — ulmaria.

Polygynia.

Rosa alba.
 — canina.
 — centifolia.
 — damascena.
 — gallica.
 Rubus arcticus.
 — chamæmorus.
 — idæus.
 Fragaria vesca.
 Potentilla anserina.
 — reptans.
 Tormentilla erecta.
 Geum rivale.
 — urbanum.

CL. XIII. POLYANDRIA.

O. Monogynia.

Capparis spinosa.
 Chelidonium majus.
 Papaver rhœas.
 — somniferum.
 Cambogia gutta.
 Nymphæa alba.
 Bixa orellana.
 Tilia Europæa.
 Myristica officinalis.
 Thea bohea.
 — viridis.
 Caryophyllus aromaticus.
 Cistus creticus.

Digynia.

Pæonia officinalis.

Trigynia.

Delphinium consolida.
 — staphisagria.
 Aconitum anthora.
 — cammarum.
 — napellus.

Tetragynia.

Cimicifuga fœtida.

Pentagynia.

Aquilegia vulgaris.
 Nigella fativa.

Polygynia.

Illicium anisatum.
 Uvaria zeylanica.
 Liriodendron tulipifera.
 Anemone hepatica.
 — nemorosa.
 — pratensis.
 Clematis recta.
 — vitalba.
 Thalictrum flavum.
 Ranunculus abortivus.
 — acris.
 — alpinus.
 — arvensis.
 — bulbosus.
 — ficaria.
 — flammula.
 — illyricus.
 — lingua.
 — sceleratus.
 — thora.
 Helleborus fœtidus.
 — niger.
 — viridis.
 Wintera aromatica.
 — canella.
 Adonis verna.
 — appenina.

CL. XIV. DIDYNAMIA.

O. Gymnospermia.

Ajuga pyramidalis.
 Teucrium chamædrys.
 — chamæpitys.
 — creticum.
 — marum.
 — polium.
 — scordium.
 Satureja capitata.
 — hortensis.
 Hyssopus officinalis.
 Nepeta cataria.
 Lavandula spica.
 — stœchas.
 Mentha auricularis.
 — cervina.
 — crispa.
 — piperita.
 — pulegium.
 — sativa.
 — sylvestris.

Mentha viridis.
Glechoma hederacea.
Lamium album.
Betonica officinalis.
Stachys annua.
 — *recta.*
 — *sylvatica.*
Marrubium vulgare.
Leonurus cardiaca.
Origanum creticum.
 — *dictamnus.*
 — *majorana.*
 — *syriacum.*
 — *vulgare.*
Thymus serpyllum.
 — *vulgaris.*
Melissa calaminthus.
 — *officinalis.*
Dracocephalum Canariense.
 — *Moldavicum.*
Melittis melissophyllum.
Ocimum basilicum.
Prunella vulgaris.
Scutellaria galericulata.

Angiospermia.

Acanthus mollis.
Euphrasia officinalis.
Lathræa squammaria.
Pedicularis palustris.
Anthirrhinum linaria.
Scrophularia aquatica.
 — *nodosa.*
Digitalis purpurea.
Linnaea borealis.
Sesamum orientale.
Vitex agnus castus.
Avicennia tomentosa.
Bignonia ophthalmica.

CLASS XV.

TETRADYNAMIA.

O. Siliculosa.

Lepidium sativum.
Thlaspi arvense.
 — *burfa pastoris.*
Cochlearia armoracia.
 — *officinalis.*
Siliquosa.
Dentaria pentaphyllos.

Cardamine pratensis.
Sisymbrium nasturtium.
 — *sophia.*
 — *tenuifolium.*
Erysimum aliarum.
 — *barbarea.*
 — *officinale.*
Cheiranthus cheiri.
Brassica eruca.
 — *oleracea.*
 — *rapa.*
Sinapis alba.
 — *nigra.*
Raphanus sativus.
Crambe orientalis.

CLASS XVI.

MONADELPHIA.

Decandria.

Geranium moschatum.
 — *robertianum.*

Dodecandria.

Pentapetes muhucunda.

Polyandria.

Althæa officinalis.
Alcea rosea.
Malva alcea.
 — *rotundifolia.*
 — *sylvestris.*
Gossypium herbaceum.
Hibiscus abelmoschus.

CLASS XVII.

DIADELPHIA.

Hexandria.

Fumaria bulbosa.
 — *officinalis.*

Ostendria.

Polygala amara.
 — *senega.*
 — *vulgaris.*

Decandria.

Pterocarpus draco.
 — *santalinus.*
Spartium scoparium.
Genista canariensis?
 — *tinctoria.*

Ononis spinosa.
 — *arvensis.*
Lupinus albus.
Phaseolus vulgaris.
Dolichos pruriens?
 — *urens?*
 — *soja.*
Vicia faba.
Glycyrrhiza glabra.
 — *echinata.*
Cytisus laburnum.
Ervum ervilia.
 — *lens.*
Pisum sativum.
Geoffroya inermis.
 — *Surinamensis.*
Indigofera tinctoria.
Galega officinalis.
Astragalus exscapus.
 — *gummifer.*
 — *tragacantha.*
Trifolium melilotus officinalis.
 — *repens.*
Trigonella Monspeliensis.
 — *fœnum græcum.*

CLASS XVIII.

POLYADELPHIA.

Pentandria.

Theobroma cacao.

Icosandria.

Citrus medica.
 — *aurantium.*

Polyandria.

Melaleuca leucadendron.
Hypericum bacciferum.
 — *guttiferum?*
 — *perforatum.*

CLASS XIX.

SYNGENESIA.

Polygamia equalis.

Tragopogon pratensis.
Scorzonera Hispanica.
 — *humilis.*

Lactuca sativa.
 — scariola.
 — virofa.
Sonchus oleraceus.
Leontodon taraxacum.
Hieracium pilosella.
Cichorium intybus.
 — endivia.
Arctium lappa.
Serratula amara.
Carduus marianus.
Onopordum acanthium.
Cynara scolymus.
Carlina acaulis.
Carthamus tinctorius.
Spilanthus acmella.
Eupatorium cannabinum.
Santolina chamæcyparissus.
Polygamia superflua.
Tanacetum vulgare.
 — balsamita.
Artemisia abrotanum.
 — absinthium.
 — campestris.
 — dracunculus.
 — glacialis.
 — maritima.
 — pontica.
 — rupestris.
 — fontonica.
 — vulgaris.
Gnaphalium arenarium.
 — dioicum.
Erigeron acre.
Tussilago farfara.
 — petasites.
Senecio vulgaris.
Solidago virga aurea.
Inula helenium.
 — dysenterica.
Arnica montana.
Doronicum latifolium.
 — pardalianches.
Bellis perennis.
Chrysanthemum leucanthemum.
Matricaria chamomilla.
 — parthenium.
Anthemis cotula.

Anthemis nobilis.
 — pyrethrum.
Achillea ageratum.
 — atrata.
 — millefolium.
 — moschata.
 — ptarmica.
Sigesbeckia orientalis.

Polygamia frustranea.
Centaurea behen.
 — benedicta.
 — calcitrapa.
 — cyaneus.

Polygamia necessaria.
Calendula officinalis.

Monogynia.
Lobelia syphilitica.
Lobelia longiflora.
 — tupa.
Viola canina.
 — ipecacuanha.
 — odorata.
 — tricolor.

Cl. XX. GYNANDRIA.

Diandria.
Orchis bifolia.
 — mascula.
 — militaris.
 — morio.
Satyrion hircinum.
Epidendrum vanilla.

Hexandria.
Aristolochia anguicida.
 — clematidis.
 — longa.
 — rotunda.
 — odoratissima.
 — serpentaria.
 — trilobata.

Dodecandria.
Cytinus hypocistis.

Polyandria.
Arum maculatum.

Zostera marina.

Cl. XXI. MONÆCIA.

Monandria.

Cynomorium coccineum.

Triandria.

Carex arenaria.
Phyllanthus emblica.

Tetandria.

Betula alba.
 — alnus.
Buxus sempervirens.
Urtica dioica.
 — pilulifera.
 — urens.
Morus nigra.

Pentandria.

Xanthium strumarium.

Polyandria.

Poterium sanguisorba.
Quercus robur.
 — cerris.
 — fuber.
Juglans regia.
Fagus castanea.
 — sylvatica.
Corylus avellana.
Liquidambar styraciflua.

Monadelphica.

Pinus abies.
 — balsamea.
 — canadensis.
 — cembra.
 — larix.
 — picea.
 — pinea.
 — sylvestris.
 — munglos.
Stillingia sylvatica.
Cupressus sempervirens.
Thuja occidentalis.
 — articulata.
Croton cascarilla.

M A

Croton lacciferum,
— tigilium.
— tinctorium.
Jatropha curcas,
— elastica.
— manihot.
Ricinus communis.

Syngenesia.

Momordica elaterium.
Cucurbita lagenaria.
— citrullus.
— pepo.
Cumumis colocynthis.
— melo.
— fativus.
Bryonia alba.

CL. XXII. DICECIA.

Diandria.

Salix alba.
— caprea.
— fragilis.
— pentandria.
— vitulina.

Triandria.

Excœcaria agallecha.

Tetrandria.

Viscum album.
Myrica gale.
Brucea ferruginea, s.
antidyfenterica.

Pentandria.

Pistacia vera.
— terebinthus.
— chio.
— lentiscus.
Spinacea oleracea.
Cannabis fativa.
Humulus lupulus.
Fevillea trilobata.

Hexandria.

Smilax sarsaparilla.
— china.

Ostendria.

Populus nigra.

Populus balsamifera.
Rhodiola rosea.

Enneandria.

Mercurialis annua.

Decaandria.

Carica papaya.

Dodecandria.

Menispermum cocculus.

Monodelphia.

Juniperus sabina.
— communis.
— Lycea?
Cissampelos pareira.
— caapeba.

Syngenesia.

Ruscus aculeatus.
— hypoglossum.

Gynandria.

Clusia eluteria?

CLASS XXIII.

POLYGAMIA.

Monœcia.

Veratrum album,
— nigrum.
— sabadilla?
Andropogon schoenanthus.
— nardus.
Parietaria officinalis.
Ophioxylum serpentinum.
Mimosa cathechu.
— nilotica.
— fenegal.

Diœcia.

Fraxinus excelsior.
— ornus.
— rotundifolia.
Panax quinquefolium.

Triœcia.

Ceratonia filiqua.
Ficus carica.

M A

Ficus indica.
— religiosa.

CLASS XXIV.

CRYPTOGAMIA.

Filices.

Equisetum arvense.
Osmunda regalis.
Pteris aquilina.
Asplenium ceterach.
— ruta muraria.
— scolopendria.
— trichomanoides.
Polypodium vulgare.
— filix mas.
— fragans.
Adiantum capillus veneris.
— pedatum.

Musci.

Lycopodium clavatum,
— selago.
Polytrichum commune,

Algæ.

Lichen apthofus.
— caninus.
— cocciferus.
— islandicus.
— plicatus.
— pulmonarius.
— roccella.
Conferva rivularis.
— helminthocorton,
Fucus vesiculosus.

Fungi.

Agaricus muscarius.
Boletus laricinus.
— igniarius.
— suaveolens.
Peziza auricula.
Lycoperdon bovista.
— tuber.

CL. XXV. PALMÆ.

Cocos butyracea.
— nucifera.
Phoenix dactylifera.
Sagrus farinaria.

A Systematical Arrangement of the Animal MATERIA MEDICA, according to the LINNÆAN System.

CLASS I.	Lacerta scincus.	Cyneps rosæ.
MAMMALIA.	— agilis.	Chrysis ignita.
Bruta.	— iguana.	Apis mellifera.
Trichecus manatus.		Formica rufa.
	Serpentes.	
Fera.	Coluber vipera.	Aptera.
Viverra zibetha.	— blerus.	Cancer astacus.
		— gamarus.
Gliris.	IV. PISCES.	— macrurus.
Castor Fiber.	Ghontropterygii.	— pagurus.
	Accipenser sturio,	Oniscus asellus.
Pecora.	alixque species.	
Moschus moschiferus.		
Cervus alces.	Abdominales.	VI. VERMES.
— dama.	Efox lucius.	
— elaphus.		Intestina.
— tarandus.	V. INSECTA.	Lumbricus terrestris.
Capra domestica.	Coleoptera.	Hirudo medicinalis.
Ovis aries.	Meloë majalis.	— sanguisuga.
Bos taurus.	— proscarabæus.	
	Lytta vesicatoria.	Molusca.
Belluæ.	Curculio antidontalgi-	Sepia officinalis.
Equus asinus.	cus.	Limax maximus terres-
Sus scrofa.	— bacchi.	tris.
	— jaceæ.	
Ceti.	Carabus chrysocephalus.	Testacea.
Phyfeter macrocephalus,	— ferrugineous.	Ostrea edulis.
alixque species.	Chrysomela populi.	— maxima.
	— septempunctata.	Helix pomatia.
II. AVES.		
Gallinæ.	Hymiptera.	Lichophyta.
Phasianus gallus.	Coccus cacti.	Madrepora oculata.
	— lacca.	
III. AMPHIBIA.	— ilicis.	Zoophyta.
Reptilia.	Hymenoptera.	Corallina officinalis.
Rana esculenta.	Cyneps cerris.	Isis nobilis.
— bufo.		Spongia officinalis.

A Systematical Arrangement of the Mineral MATERIA MEDICA, and of the Chemical Preparations.

ACIDA.	Acidum benzoicum.	Acidum citricum.
ACIDUM acetum.	— boracicum.	— muriaticum.
— acetosum.	— carbonicum.	— — oxygenatum.

M A

Acidum nitricum.
 — nitrosum.
 — oxalicum.
 — phosphoricum.
 — succinicum.
 — sulfuricum.
 — tartarosum.

ALCALIA.

Ammoniaca.
 Potassa.
 Soda.

TERRÆ.

Alumina.
 Baryta.
 Calx.
 Magnesia.

METALLA.

Argentum.
 Arsenicum.
 Aurum.
 Cuprum.
 Ferrum.
 Hydrargyrum.
 Manganesium.
 Plumbum.
 Stannum.
 Stibium s. antimonium.
 Wismuthum.
 Zincum.

SALES NEUTRI.

Acetis ammoniacæ.
 Carbonas ammoniacæ.
 Citras ammoniacæ.
 Murias ammoniacæ.
 Nitras ammoniacæ.
 Succinas ammoniacæ.
 Sulfas ammoniacæ.
 Tartris ammoniacæ.

Acetis potassæ.
 Carbonas potassæ.
 Citras potassæ.
 Murias potassæ.
 Murias hyperoxygenatus potassæ.
 Nitras potassæ.
 Oxalas potassæ acidulus.

Sulfas potassæ.
 Tartris potassæ.
 — — acidulus.
 Acetis sodæ.
 Boras sodæ alcalescens
 s. Borax.
 Carbonas sodæ.
 Murias sodæ.
 Nitras sodæ.
 Phosphas sodæ.
 Sulfas sodæ.
 Tartris sodæ.

SALES TERREI.

Carbonas aluminæ.
 Sulfas aluminæ acidulus
 cum potassa s. Alumen.

Carbonas barytæ.
 Murias barytæ.
 Sulfas barytæ.

Carbonas calcis.
 Citras calcis.
 Murias calcis.
 Phosphas calcis.
 Carbonas magnesiæ.
 Sulfas magnesiæ.

. OXYDA METALLICA.

Oxydum arsenici album.
 — Cupri viride.
 — Ferri nigrum.
 — — luteum.
 — — rubrum.
 — Hydrargyri nigrum.
 — — album.
 — — luteum.
 — — rubrum.
 — Manganefii nigrum.
 — Plumbi semivitr.
 — — album.
 — — rubrum.
 — Stanni.
 — Stibii album.
 — — griseum.
 — — semivitreum.
 — — sulfuratum.
 — — præcipitatum.
 — Wismuthi.

M A

Oxydum Zinci album.
 — — sublimatum.

SALES METALLICI.

Nitras argenti.
 — — fufus.
 Acetis cupri.
 Sulfas cupri.
 — — ammoniacalis.
 Acetis ferri.
 Malas ferri.
 Murias ferri ammoniacalis.
 Sulfas ferri.
 Tartris potassæ acidulus
 ferratus.

Acetis hydrargyri.
 Murias hydrargyri.
 — — oxygenatus.
 Nitras hydrargyri.
 Sulfas hydrargyri.
 Tartris hydrargyri.

Acetis plumbi.

Murias stibii hyperoxygenatus.
 Phosphas calcis stibiatus.
 Tartris potassæ acidulus
 stibiatus.

Acetis zinci.
 Sulfas zinci.

SULFURETA.

a. Salina.

Sulfuretum ammoniacæ.
 — potassæ.
 — sodæ.

b. Terreæ.

Sulfuretum calcis.

c. Metallica.

Sulfuretum hydrargyri
 nigrum.
 — — rubrum.
 Sulfuretum hydrargyri
 stibiatum rubrum.

M A

Sulfuretum stibiatum ni-
grum.
— stibii nativum s. ni-
grum.
Hydro-sulfuretum stibii
rubrum.
— — luteum.

SAPONES.

Sapo amygdalinus.
Sapo ammoniacalis seu
Linimentum ammo-
niacale.
Saponuli.
Sapones acidi.

M A

INFLAMMABILIÆ.

Sulphur.
Phosphorus.
Petroleum.
Succinum.
Carbo.
Alkohol.
Acida alkoholifata.
Æther.

GAZA s. FLUIDA ELASTICA.

Gaz azotum.

— acidum carbonicum.

— hydrogenium.

Gaz hydrogenium car-
bonatum.

— — sulphuratum.

Gaz oxygenium.

Ær s. Gaz atmosphæ-
ricum.

AQUA ET AQUOSA.

Aqua frigida.

— gelida.

— tepida.

— calida.

Aqua destillata simplex.

Aquæ destillatæ odori-
feræ aut aromatizatæ.

Aqua picea.

— calcis.

— marina.

Aquæ minerales.

Aquæ acidulæ.

— — ferruginosæ.

— — salinæ.

— — sulphuræ.

— — alkalizatæ.

AUXILLA EXTERNA.

Nix aut glacies.

Balnea. }
Semicupia. } Gelida,
Pediluvia. } Frigida,
Fotus. } Tepida,
Fervida.

Balnea medicata.

Aspergio aquæ frigidæ.

Embrocationes.

Thermæ minerales.

— simplices.

— salinæ.

Thermæ alcalinæ.

— sulfuratæ.

Lotiones.

Injectiones.

Enemata.

Frictiones siccæ.

— oleosæ.

— medicatæ.

Electricitas.

Galvanismus.

Arteriotomia.

Venæsectio.

Cucurbitæ scarificatæ.

Sanguisugæ.

Fonticulus.

Setaceum.

Vesicatorum.

Epispasticum.

Cauticum.

Moxa.

Ferrum candens.

MATLOCK WATER is found to contain a small quantity of a neutral salt, probably muriat of soda, and about as much of an earthy salt, which is chiefly calcareous. No traces of iron are discoverable by any test, nor does there appear to be any excess of carbonic acid, as in the

Bristol Hotwell It may be employed in all those cases where a pure diluent drink is advisable; but it is principally used as a tepid bath, or at least one that comes to the extreme limits of a cold bath.

MATRICARIA, (*Matricaria*, *æ*, f. from *matrix*, the womb, so called from its uses in disorders of the womb). *Parthenium*. Fever few. Mother's wort. The leaves and flowers of this plant, *Matricaria parthenium*; *foliis compositis, planis; foliolis ovatis, incis*; *pedunculis ramosis* of Linnæus, have a strong, not agreeable smell, and a moderately bitter taste, both which they communicate, by warm infusion, to water and rectified spirit. The watery infusions, inspissated, leave an extract of considerable bitterness, and which discovers also a saline matter, both to the taste, and in a more sensible manner by throwing up to the surface small crystalline efflorescences in keeping. The peculiar flavour of the *matricaria* exhales, in the evaporation, and impregnates the distilled water, on which also a quantity of essential oil is found floating. The quantity of spiritous extract, according to Cartheuser's experiments, is only about one sixth the weight of the dry leaves, whereas the watery extract amounts to near one half. This plant is evidently the *Parthenium* of Dioscorides, since whose time it has been very generally employed for medical purposes. In natural affinity it ranks with *cammomile* and *tansey*, and its sensible qualities shew it to be nearly allied to them in its medicinal character. Bergius states its virtues to be tonic, stomachic, resolvent, and emmenagogue. It has been given successfully as a vermifuge, and for the cure of intermittents; but its use is most celebrated in female disorders, especially in hysteria; and hence it is supposed to have derived the name *matricaria*. Its smell, taste, and analy-

sis prove it to be a medicine of considerable activity; we may therefore say with Murray; *Rarius hodie prescribitur, quam debetur*.

MATRICARIA CAMMOMILLA. The systematic name of the common fever few. See *Chamæmelum vulgare*.

MATRICARIA PARTHENIUM. The systematic name of the fever few. See *Matricaria*.

MATRIX, (*Matrix*, *cis*, f. *μῆτηρ*). The womb. See *Uterus*.

MATURATION, (*Maturatio*, *onis*, f. from *maturo*, to make ripe). A term in surgery, signifying that process which succeeds inflammation, by which pus is collected in an abscess.

MAUDLIN. See *Ageratum*.

MAXILLA, (*Maxilla*, *æ*, f. from *μασσαι*, to chew). The jaw.

MAXILLA INFERIOR. *Os maxillare inferius*. *Mandibula*. The maxilla inferior, or lower jaw, which, in its figure, may be compared to a horse-shoe, is at first composed of two distinct bones; but these, soon after birth, unite together at the middle of the chin, so as to form only one bone. The superior edge of this bone has, like the upper jaw, a process, called the *alveolar* process. This, as well as that of the upper jaw, to which it is in other respects a good deal similar, is likewise furnished with cavities for the reception of the teeth. The posterior part of the bone on each side, rises perpendicularly into two processes, one of which is called the *coronoid*, and the other the *condyloid* process. The first of these is the highest: it is thin and pointed; and the temporal muscle, which is attached to it, serves to elevate the jaw. The condyloid process is narrower, thicker, and shorter than the other, terminating in an oblong, rounded head, which is formed for a moveable articulation with the cranium, and

is received into the fore part of the fossa described in the temporal bone. In this joint there is a moveable cartilage, which being more closely connected to the condyle than to the cavity, may be considered as belonging to the former. This moveable cartilage is connected with both the articulating surface of the temporal bone and the condyle of the jaw, by distinct ligaments arising from its edges all round. These attachments of the cartilage are strengthened, and the whole articulation secured, by an external ligament, which is common to both, and which is fixed to the temporal bone, and to the neck of the condyle. On the inner surface of the ligament, which attaches the cartilage to the temporal bone, and backwards in the cavity, is placed what is commonly called the gland of the joint; at least the ligament is there found to be much more vascular than at any other part. At the bottom of each coronoid process, on its inner part, is a foramen or canal, which extends under the roots of all the teeth, and terminates at the outer surface of the bone near the chin. Each of these foramina affords a passage to an artery, vein, and nerve, which send off branches to the several teeth.

This bone is capable of a great many motions. The condyles, by sliding from the cavity towards the eminences on each side, bring the jaw horizontally forwards, as in the action of biting; or the condyles only may be brought forwards, while the rest of the jaw is tilted backwards, as is the case when the mouth is open. The condyles may also slide alternately backwards and forwards from the cavity to the eminence, and *vice versa*; so that while one condyle advances, the other moves backwards, turning the body of the jaw from side to side, as in grinding the teeth. The great use of the cartilages seems

to be that of securing the articulation, by adapting themselves to the different inequalities in these several motions of the jaw, and to prevent any injuries from friction. This last circumstance is of great importance where there is so much motion, and accordingly this cartilage is found in the different tribes of carnivorous animals, where there is no eminence and cavity, nor other apparatus for grinding.

The alveolar processes are formed of an external and internal plate, united together by thin bony partitions, which divide the processes at the fore part of the jaw into as many sockets as there are teeth. But, at the posterior part, where the teeth have more than one root, each root has a distinct cell. These processes in both jaws, begin to be formed with the teeth, accompany them in their growth, and disappear when the teeth fall. So that the loss of the one seems constantly to be attended with the loss of the other.

MAXILLA SUPERIOR. *Os maxillare superius.* The superior maxillary bones constitute the most considerable portion of the upper jaw, are two in number, and generally remain distinct through life. Their figure is exceedingly irregular, and not easily to be described. On each of these bones is observed several eminences. One of these is at the upper and fore part of the bone, and, from its making part of the nose, is called the *nasal* process. Internally, in the inferior portion of this process, is a fossa, which, with the os unguis, forms a passage for the lachrymal duct. Into this nasal process likewise is inserted the short round tendon of the *musculus orbicularis palpebrarum*. Backwards and outwards, from the root of the nasal process, the bone helps to form the lower side of the orbit, and this part

is therefore called the *orbital* process. Behind this orbital process the bone forms a considerable tuberosity, and at the upper part of this tuberosity is a channel, which is almost a complete hole. In this channel passes a branch of the fifth pair of nerves, which, together with a small artery, is transmitted to the face through the external orbital foramen, which opens immediately under the orbit. Where the bone on each side is joined to the *os malæ*, and helps to form the cheeks, is observed what is called the *malar* process. The lower and anterior parts of the bone make a kind of circular sweep, in which are the *alveoli* or sockets for the teeth; this is called the *alveolar* process. This alveolar process has posteriorly a considerable tuberosity on its internal surface. Above this alveolar process, and just behind the fore teeth, is an irregular hole, called the *foramen incisivum*, which separating into two, and sometimes more holes, serves to transmit small arteries and veins, and a minute branch of the fifth pair of nerves to the nostrils. There are two horizontal lamellæ behind the alveolar process, which, uniting together, form part of the roof of the mouth, and divide it from the nose. This partition being seated somewhat higher than the lower edge of the alveolar process, gives the roof of the mouth a considerable hollowness. Where the *ossa maxillaria* are united to each other, they project somewhat forwards, leaving between them a furrow, which receives the inferior portion of the *septum nasi*. Each of these bones is hollow, and forms a considerable sinus under its orbital part. This sinus, which is usually, though improperly, called *antrum Highmorianum*, is lined with the pituitary membrane. It answers the same purposes as the other sinuses of the nose, and communicates

with the nostrils by an opening, which appears to be a large one in the skeleton, but which in the recent subject is much smaller. In the foetus, instead of these sinuses, an oblong depression only is observed at each side of the nostrils, nor is the tuberosity of the alveolar process then formed. On the side of the palate in young subjects a kind of fissure may be noticed, which seems to separate the portion of the bone which contains the *dentes incisores* from that which contains the *dentes canini*. This fissure is sometimes apparent till the sixth year, but after that period it in general wholly disappears.

The *ossa maxillaria* not only serve to form the cheeks, but likewise the palate, nose, and orbits; and, besides their union with each other, they are connected with the greatest part of the bones of the face and cranium, viz. with the *ossa nasi*, *ossa malarum*, *ossa unguis*, *ossa palati*, *os frontis*, *os sphenoides*, and *os ethmoides*.

MAXILLARY ARTERIES. These are branches of the external carotid. The *external maxillary* is the fourth branch of the carotid; it proceeds anteriorly, and gives off the facial or mental, the coronary of the lips, and the angular artery. The *internal maxillary* is the next branch of the carotid; it gives off the *sphæno-maxillar*, the inferior alveolar, and the spinous artery.

MAXILLARY GLANDS. The glands so called are conglomerate, and are situated under the angles of the lower jaw. The excretory ducts of these glands are called *Wartho-nian*, after their discoverer.

MAXILLARY NERVES. The superior and inferior maxillary nerves are branches of the fifth pair or trigemini. The former is divided into the *sphæno-palatine*, posterior alveolar, and the infra-orbital nerve. The latter is divided into two branches,

the internal lingual, and one more properly called the inferior maxillary.

MAYLILY. See *Lilium convallium*.

MAYS, INDIAN. See *Zea mays*.

MAYWEED. See *Cotula fetida*.

MEADOW CROWFOOT. See *Ranunculus pratensis*.

MEADOW, QUEEN OF. See *Ulmaria*.

MEADOW SAFFRON. See *Colchicum*.

MEADOW SAXIFRAGE. See *Saxifraga vulgaris*.

MEADOW SWEET. See *Ulmaria*.

MEADOW THISTLE, ROUND LEAVED. The leaves of this plant, *Cnicus oleraceus* of Linnæus, are boiled, in the northern parts of Europe, and eaten as we do cabbage.

MEASLES. See *Rubeola*.

MEATUS AUDITORIÛSEXTERNUS. See *Ear*.

MEATUS AUDITORIÛS INTERNUS. The internal auditory passage is a small bony canal, beginning internally by a longitudinal orifice at the posterior surface of the petrous portion of the temporal bone, running towards the vestibulum and cochlea, and there being divided into two less cavities by an eminence. The superior and smaller of these is the orifice of the aquæduct of Fallopius, which receives the portio dura of the auditory nerve; the other inferior and larger cavity is perforated by many small holes, through which the portio mollis of the auditory nerve passes into the labyrinth.

MEATUS URINARIÛS, (*Meatus, ur, m.*). In women this is situated in the vagina, immediately below the symphysis of the pubis, and behind the nymphæ. In men it is at the end of the glans penis.

MECCA BALSAMUM. See *Balsam of Gilead*.

MECHOACAN. See *Mechoacana*.

MÉCHOACĀNNA, (*Mechoacanna, &*, f. from *Mechoacan*, a province in Mexico, whence it is brought). *Jalappa alba*. *Rhabarbarum album*. Mechoacan. The root of a species of convolvulus brought from Mexico. It possesses aperient properties, and was long used as the common purge of this country, but is now wholly superseded by jalap.)

MÉCHOACĀNNA NIGRA. See *Jalapium*.

MECŪNĪUM, (*Meconium, i, n.*). The green excrementitious substance that is found in the large intestines of the fœtus.

MEDIAN NERVE. The second branch of the brachial plexus.

MEDIAN VEINS. The situation of the veins of the arms is extremely different in most individuals. When a branch proceeds near the bend of the arm, inwardly from the basilic vein, it is termed the *basilic median*; and when a vein is given off from the cephalic in the like manner, it is termed the *cephalic median*. When these two veins are present, they mostly unite just below the bend of the arm, and the common trunk proceeds to the cephalic vein.

MEDIASTĪNUM, (*Mediastinum, i, n. quasi in medio stare*). The membranous septum, formed by the duplicature of the pleura, that divides the cavity of the chest into two parts. It is divided into an anterior and posterior portion.

MEDICINE. Any substance that is exhibited with a view to cure or allay the violence of a disease. It is also very frequently made use of to express the healing art, when it comprehends anatomy, physiology, and pathology. The following is the most approved classification of the various articles of the materia medica, according to their known qualities:

I. ACRID MEDICINES.

1. *Aromatic acrids.*

ACORUS calamus.
 Andropogon nardus.
 Angelica archangelica.
 — sylvestris.
 Aristolochia serpentaria.
 — trilobata.
 Arnica montana.
 Asclepias vincetoxicum.
 Athamanta cretensis.
 — oreoselinum.
 Capsicum annuum.
 — baccatum.
 Carlina acaulis.
 Carum carvi.
 Caryophyllus aromaticus.
 Centaurea behen.
 Cistus creticus.
 Coriandrum sativum.
 Croton cascarilla.
 Cuminum cyminum.
 Fagara pterota.
 Ferula assa foetida.
 Imperatoria ostruthium.
 Juniperus sabina.
 Laurus camphora.
 — cassia.
 — nobilis.
 — sassaffras.
 Ligusticum levisticum.
 Origanum creticum.
 — dictamnus.
 Phellandrium aquaticum.
 Pimpinella saxifraga.
 Seseli tortuosum.
 b. Balsamic.
 c. Resins.

2. *Fixed acrids.*

a. Achillea ptarmica.
 Aconitum anthora.
 — cammarum.
 — napellus.

Aloëxylum verum.
 Anacardium occidentale.
 Anagallis arvensis.
 Anemone nemorosa.
 — pratensis.
 Anthemis pyrethrum.
 Artemisia fantonica.
 Asclepias asthmatica.
 Atropa belladonna.
 — mandragora.
 Avicennia tomentosa.
 Boletus larinus.
 Bryonia alba.
 — dioica.
 Cachrys odontalgica.
 Ceanothus Americanus.
 Clematis recta.
 — vitalba.
 Conium maculatum.
 Cicuta virofa.
 Convolvulus jalappa.
 — scammonia.
 — sepium.
 — soldanella.
 — turpethum.
 Croton tiglium.
 Cuscuta Europæa.
 Cyclamen Europæum.
 Daphne gnidium.
 — laureola.
 — mezereum.
 — thymelæa.
 Datura stramonium.
 Delphinium staphysagria.
 Digitalis purpurea.
 Drosera rotundifolia.
 Eupatorium cannabinum.

Euphorbia canescens.

— esula.
 — officinarum.
 — lathyrus.
 — palustris.

Gambogia gutta.
 Gummi resina ammon.
 — — bdellium.
 — — galbanum.
 — — sagapenum.
 Jatropha curcas.
 — manihot.
 Inula dysenterica.
 Lactuca scariola.
 — virofa.
 Momordica elaterium.
 Nerium antidysenteric.
 Nicotiana tabacum.
 Onopordium acanthium.
 Polygala senega.
 Penæa farcocolla.
 Phytolacca decandra.
 Psephotria emetica.
 Callicocca ipecacuanha.
 Pulsatilla nigricans.
 Plumbago Europæa.
 Rhus vernix.
 — toxicodendron.
 Ranunculus abortivus.
 — acris.
 — alpinus.
 — arvensis.
 — bulbosus.
 — flammula.
 — illyricus.
 — lingua.
 — thora.
 Sambucus ebulus.
 Strychnos colubrina.
 — nux vomica.
 — volubilis.
 Viola ipecacuanha.
 Vitex agnus castus.

3. *Volatile acrids.*

Allium cepa.
 — sativum.
 — scorodoprasum.
 — victorialis.

Arum maculatum.
 Asarum Europæum.
 Brassica eruca.
 — rapa.
 Cardamine pratensis.
 Cochlearia armoracia.
 — officinalis.
 Colchicum illiricum.
 — autumnale.
 Convallaria majalis.
 Crambe orientalis.
 Dentaria pentaphyllos.
 Erigeron acre.
 Erysimum alliaria.
 — barbarea.
 — officinale.
 Iris florentina.
 — fœtida.
 — germanica.

Iris pseudacorus.
 — tuberosa.
 Lepidium iberis.
 — sativum.
 Petivera alliacea.
 Raphanus fativus.
 Saxifraga granulata.
 Scilla maritima.
 Sedum acre.
 Sempervivum tectorum.
 Sinapis alba.
 — nigra.
 Symbrium nasturtium.
 — sophia.
 — Tenuifolium.
 Thlaspi arvense.

4. *Animal acrids.*
 Carabus chrysocephalus.

Carabus ferrugineus.
 Chrysis ignita.
 Chrysomela populi.
 — sanguinolenta.
 Coccinella bipunctata.
 — septempunctata.
 Coccus cacti.
 — ilicis.
 Curculio antiodontalgicus.
 — bacchi.
 — jaccæ.
 Formica rufa.
 Lytta vesicatoria.
 Lumbricus terrestris.
 Meloë majalis.
 — proscarabæus.
 Oniscus asellus.

II. ADSTRINGENTS.

1. *Adstringents properly so called.*

Æsculus hypocastanum.
 Agrimonia eupatoria.
 Alchemilla vulgaris.
 Arbutus uva ursi.
 Asplenium ceterach.
 — scolopendrium.
 — trichomanoides.
 Calamus rotang.
 Capparis spinosa.
 Cinchona officinalis,
 ejusque species.
 Cortex pocgerebæ.
 Cupressus sempervirens.
 Cynomorium coccin.
 Cytinus hypocistis.
 Datisca cannabina.
 Dracæno draco.
 Equisetum arvense.
 — hyemale.
 Fragaria vesca.
 Fraxinus excelsior.
 Galium aparine.
 — verum.
 Garcinia mangostana.
 Geranium Robertianum.
 Geum rivale.

Geum urbanum.
 Hæmatoxylum campechianum.
 Hedera helix.
 Ilex aquifolium.
 Juglans regia.
 Kino.
 Lawsonia inermis.
 Lichen cocciferus.
 — plicatus.
 Lonicera symphoricarpos.
 Lycoperdon bovista.
 Lyfimachia nummularia.
 Lythrum salicaria.
 Mespilus germanicus.
 Mimosa catechu.
 — nilotica (succus).
 Morus nigra.
 Myrtus communis.
 — caryophyllata.
 Osmunda regalis.
 Peziza auricula.
 Phyllanthus emblica.
 Plantago major.
 — media.
 — lanceolata.

Polygonum bistorta.
 Potentilla reptans.
 Poterium sanguiforba.
 Prunella vulgaris.
 Prunus spinosa.
 Pterocarpus draco.
 Punica granatum.
 Pyrola rotundifolia.
 Pyrus communis.
 — cydonia.
 Quassia simaruba.
 Quercus cerris.
 — robur.
 — suber.
 Rheum rhaponticum.
 Rhodiola rosea.
 Rhododendron chrysanthum.
 Rhus coriaria.
 — typhinum.
 Rosa alba.
 — canina.
 — centifolia.
 — damascena.
 — gallica.
 Rubia tinctorum.
 Rumex acetosa.
 — acutus.

ME

Rumex alpinus.
 — crispus.
 — hydrolapathum.
 — patientia.
 — sanguineus.
 — scutatus.
 Rufcus aculeatus.
 — hypoglossum.
 Salix alba.
 — amygdalina.
 — caprea.
 — fragilis.
 — pentandria.
 — vitulina.
 Sanguisorba officinalis.
 Sanicula Europæa.
 Sorbus aucuparia.
 — domestica.
 Spiræa filipendula.
 — ulmaria.
 Stachis annua.
 — recta.
 Statice limonium.
 Swietenia febrifuga.
 — mahogany.

Tamarix gallica.
 Thea bohea.
 — viridis.
 Tormentilla erecta.
 Ulmus campestris.
 Vaccinium myrtillus.
 Verbena officinalis.
 Viscum album.

2. *Bitter adstringents.*
 Vide *Bitter Styptics.*

3. *Animal adstringents.*
 Coccus lacca.
 Cynips quercus.
 — rosæ.

4. *Metallic and other adstringents.*
 a. Oxydum arsenici.
 — cupri.
 — ferri.
 — plumbi.
 — zinci.
 — wismuthi.

ME

b. Acetis ferri.
 — zinci.
 c. Sulfas cupri.
 — ferri.
 — zinci.
 d. Tartris ferri.
 e. Vinum rubrum.
 Alcohol.
 f. Acida.
 Acidum acetosum.
 — gallicum.
 — sulfuricum dilut.
 — muriaticum oxygenatum.
 g. Alumen.
 h. Aquæ minerales ferruginosæ.
 Sedimentum earundem.
 i. Aqua frigida.
 Glacies.
 Balnea frigida.
 Fetus frigidi.
 Embrocationes frigida.
 Affusio frigida.

III. ALEXIPHARMACS.

I. AGAINST VEGETABLE POISONS.

1. *Against narcotic poisons.*
 a. Acidum citri.
 Acida mineralia aqua diluta.
 Acidum muriatic. oxygenatum.
 Murias hyperoxygenatus potassæ.
 Coffeæ infusum saturatum.
 b. Emetica.
 c. *Externally:*
 Emetica epigastro frictione adplicata.
 Enemata irritantia.

2. Against acrid poisons.

a. Emetica.
 b. Diluentia.
 Aqua tepida.
 c. Mucilaginosæ.
 d. Oleosæ.
 Lac.
 Ova.
 e. Acida.
 f. Alkalia.

3. Against poisonous fungi.

a. Emetica.
 b. Cathartica.
 c. Haustus aquæ gelidæ.
 d. Ether.

II. AGAINST ANIMAL POISONS.

1. *Against the bite of poisonous serpents.*
 a. Aristolochia anguicida.
 — serpentaria.
 Ophioxylum serpentinum.
 Polygala senega.
 Strychnos colubrina.
 — nux vomica.
 Fraxinus excelsior (succus foliorum).
 Atropa belladonna.
 Gentiana lutea?
 b. Carbonas ammoniacæ.
 c. Oxygenantia?

1. *Externally;*

Excisio.

Sectio.

Aduftio.

Oxygenantia?

Causticum.

Lotio alkalina.

Oleum olivarum.

Saccharum.

2. *Against the bite of rabid animals.**Internally:*

Hydrargyri præparata

ad ptyalismum?

Litta vesicatoria.

Meloë majalis.

— proscarabæus.

Oxygenantia?

Alkalina?

Externally:

Excisio.

Aduftio.

Oxygenantia?

Murias stibii oxygenatus.

Potassa.

Vesicans.

Inspiratio gazis, acidicarbonici, azoti, vel hydrogëni?

3. *Against the sting of insects.*

Aduftio.

Excisio.

Ammoniaca.

Acidum acetosum.

Oleum olivarum.

a. *Vegetables.*

Antirrhinum linaria.

Arctium lappa.

Carex arenaria.

Carlina acaulis.

Ceanothus Americanus.

Cissampelos pareira.

Daphne mezereum.

Eupatorium cannabin.

Oleum camphoratum.

Alkohol camphoratum.

Acetis plumbi liquidus.

4. *Against animal poisons taken into the stomach.*

a. Emetica.

b. Succus citri.

Acetum.

Acidum nitricum dilut.

— muriaticum oxygenatum.

Murias hyperoxygenatus potassæ.

c. Involventia.

III. AGAINST MINERAL POISONS.

1. *Against mercurial, antimonial, arsenical oxyds and salts.*

a. Decoctum cinchonæ, quercus, aliarumque plantarum principio adstringente fœtarum.

b. Opium.

c. Oleosa et mucilaginosa.

Lac-butyrum.

Oleum ricini.

Enemata oleosa.

d. Emetica.

e. Cathartica.

f. Sales alkalina.

Aquæ min. alkalina.

g. Sulfureta alkalina.

Thermæ sulphuræ.

IV. ALTERANTS.

Galium aparine.

Guajacum officinale.

Inula helenium.

Juglans regia.

Juniperus communis.

Ledum palustre.

Lepidium iberis.

Lichen caninus.

Phellandrium aquatic.

IV. ANTIMEPHITIC ALEXIPHARMICS.

1. *Against putrid vapors.**Externally:*

Vapor acidi acetici.

— — acetosi.

— — muriatici.

— — — oxygenati.

— ætheris acetosi.

Gaz oxygenium inflatum.

Internally:

Acidum nitricum.

— muriaticum oxygenatum.

Murias hyperoxygenatus potassæ.

Alkohol.

Vinum.

2. *Against acid vapors.*

Odor ammoniacæ aut succinatis ammoniacæ.

Internally:

Antacida.

3. *Against the vapor of hydrogen, azotic, or carbonic gases.*

a. Respiratio aut inflatio aeris oxygenio abundantis.

b. Odor ammoniacæ.

c. Frictiones corporis calidæ.

Prunus padus.

Rhododendron chrysanthum.

Rubia tinctorum.

Scrophularia nodosa.

Sium nodiflorum.

Smilax China.

— sarsaparilla.

Solanum dulcamara.

ME

Ulmus campestris.
Viola tricolor.
Xanthium Strumarium.
Zostera marina.
 b. *Animals*.
Coluber vipera.
— blerus.
Lacerta agilis.
— iguana.
Diæta ex cancris, ostreis,
 ranis, testudinibus.

 c. *Minerals*.
Carbonas ammoniacæ.

Carbonas potassæ.
— sodæ.
Sulfureta alkalina.
Arsenici præparata.
Hydrargyri præparata.
Stibii præparata.
Murias barytæ.
— calcis.
Sales neutri.
Sulphur.
d. Antiscorbutica.
e. Antisyphilitica.
f. Deobstruentia.
g. Oxygenantia.

ME

h. Deoxygenantia.
i. Aqua marina.
k. Balneum marinum.
Balnea calida.
— fervida.
Balneum vaporis.
l. Aquæ min. acidulæ.
— — alkalinæ.
— — ferruginosæ.
— — salinæ.
Thermæ simplices.
— alkalinæ.
— sulphuræ.

V. BITTERS.

 a. *Pure bitters*.
Aloë perfoliata, spicata,
 etc.
Bilis taurina.
Calendula officinalis.
Carduus marianus.
Centaurea benedicta.
— calcitrappa.
Chærophyllum sylvest.
Cichorium intybus.
Columbo radix.
Cucumis colocynthis.
Fumaria bulbosa.
— officinalis.
Gentiana amarella.
— asclepiadea.
— centaurium.
— cruciata.
— lutea.
— purpurea.
Globularia alypum.
Hieracium pilosella.
Humulus lupulus.
Leonurus cardiaca.
Lupinus albus.
Menyanthes trifoliata.
Myrica gale.
Ophiorrhiza mungos.
Ophioxylum serpenti-
 num.
Polygala amara.
Physalis alkekengi.
Quassia amara.

Sapindus saponaria.
Serratula amara.
Sophora heptaphylla.

 b. *Styptic bitters*.
Achras sapota.
Ajuga pyramidalis.
Brucea ferruginea s. an-
 tidysenterica.
Capparis spinosa.
Cinchona angustifolia.
— carybæa.
— corymbifera.
— floribunda.
— officinalis.
— Tecamez.
Cortex Chinæ flavus.
— — ruber.
— — Surinamensis.
Croton cascarilla.
Cupressus sempervirens.
Ilex aquifolium.
— cassine.
Lichen islandicus.
— pulmonarius.
Polypodium filix mas.
— vulgare.
Quassia simaruba.
Rhamnus frangula.
Rheum palmatum,
— rhaponticum.

Rheum undulatum.
Rhodendron chrysanthum.
Swietania mahogani.
— febrifuga.

 c. *Aromatic bitters*.
Achillea millefolium.
— ageratum.
— atrata.
— moschata.
Anthemis cotula.
— nobilis.
Citrus aurantium.
— medica.
Costus arabicus.
Aristolochia clematidis.
— longa.
— rotunda.
— odoratissima.
— serpentaria.
— trilobata.
Artemisia abrotanum.
— absinthium.
— campestris.
— dracunculus.
— maritima.
— rupestris.
— vulgaris.
Hyssopus officinalis.
Matricaria chamomilla

ME

Matricaria parthenium.
 Hedera helix.
 Mentha auricularis.
 — crispa.
 Santalum album.
 Santolino chamæcyparissus.
 Spilanthus acmella.
 Sigesbeckia orientalis.
 Tanacetum balsamita.
 — vulgare.
 Teucrium capitatum.
 — chamædrys.

Teucrium chamæpitys.
 — creticum.
 — marum.
 — polium.
 — scordium.

d. *Acrid bitters.*

Allamanda cathartica.
 Aloëxylum verum.
 Anagryis foetida.
 Artemisia fantonica.
 Coris Monspelliensis.
 Cucumis colocynthis.

ME

Momordica elaterium.
 Nerium antidysenteric.
 Polygala senega.
 Strychnos colubrina.
 — nux vomica.
 — volubilis.
 Cassine peragua.
 Gratiola officinalis.
 Laferpitium latifolium.
 Chiledonium majus.
 Eupatorium cannabin.
 Scutellaria galericulata.
 Menispermum coceulus.

VI. ANALEPTICS.

a. Vinum.
 Alkohol.
 Æther.
 — alkoholifatus.
 Bromelia ananas.
 Choccolada.
 Epidendrum vanilla.
 Laurus cinnamomum.

Panax quinquefolium.
 Sium nissi.
 b. Odorifera grata.
 Acetum.
 Æther acetosus.
 c. Aromatica.
 d. Cardiaca.
 e. Nervina.

f. Nutrientia eupepta.
 g. Fructus acido dulces,
 eorumque præparata.
 h. Saccarum, et
 saccharina.
 i. Syrupus aceti rubri
 idæi.

ANODYNES, vide *SEDATIVES*.

VII. ANTACIDS,

a. *Earths* :
 Calx.
 Aqua calcis.
 Conchæ aut testæ calcinataæ,
 Magnesia.
 Carbonas magnesiæ.
 Carbonas calcis.
 Cancrærum lapides.
 — chelæ.
 Ostrearum conchæ.
 Ovorum testæ.
 Creta.
 Marmor album.
 Corallia alba.
 — rubra.
 Os sepia officinalis.
 b. *Alkalis* :
 Ammoniacæ.

Potassa.
 Soda.
 Carbonas ammoniacæ.
 — potassæ.
 — sodæ.
 Borax.
 Sapo.
 Salsolæ species.
 Spongia offic. usta.
 Xanthium strumarium.
 Zostera marina.
 Balnea cum potassa
 aut soda.
 Thermæ alkalinaæ.
 c. Amara.
 Aloë.

Cinchona cum aqua
 calcis.
 Rheum.
 d. Ferri præparata.
 Aquæ min. ferruginosæ.
 e. Antizymica.
 Acidum sulphuricum.
 f. Acria volatilia.
 g. Diæta animalis, præcipue ex piscibus,
 avibus, ferris.
 h. Vinum generos. Hungaricum, Hispanicum.
 i. Abstinencia ab acerbis;
 centibus; vinis acidis;
 dulis; acidis.

VIII. ANTHELMINTICS.

a. *Vegetables*.

Allium cepa.
 — sativum.
 Aloe perfoliata.
 Aloexylum verum.
 Amygdalus amara.
 — persica.
 Artemisia santonica.
 Bankia Abyssinica.
 Bryonia alba.
 — dioica.
 Cambogia gutta.
 Chenopodium ambrosioides.
 — anthelminthicum.
 Conserva s. fucus helminthochorton.
 Convolvulus jalappa.
 Cortex angelinæ.
 Cucumis colocynthis.
 Cyclamen Europæum.
 Daucus carota?
 Delphinium staphysagria.
 Dictamnus albus.
 Dolichos?
 Ferula assa fœtida.
 Geoffroya inermis.
 — Surinamensis.
 Gratiola officinalis.

Helleborus niger.
 Hypericum perforatum.
 Inula helenium.
 Juglans regia.
 Juniperus sabina.
 Kaempferia rotunda.
 Labradia pruriens.
 — urens.
 Laurus camphora.
 Lichen aphthosus.
 Marrubium vulgare.
 Menyanthes trifoliata.
 Nepeta cataria.
 Nigella sativa.
 Polypodium filix mas.
 Pteris aquilina.
 Punica granatum.
 Rhamnus frangula.
 Rheum palmatum.
 Ricinus communis.
 Ruta graveolens.
 Santolina chamæcyparissus.
 Saponaria officinalis.
 Scrophularia nodosa.
 Senecio vulgaris.
 Sifymbrium sopheria.
 Spigelia anthelmia.
 — Marilandica.

Strychnos colubrina.
 — nux vomica.
 — volubilis.
 Tanacetum vulgare.
 Teucrium scordium.
 Valeriana celtica.
 — officinalis.
 — phu.
 Veratrum album.
 — nigrum.
 — sabadilla.

b. *Minerals*.

1. Murias hydrargyri.
 Sulfuretum hydrargyri nigrum.
 2. Sulfas ferri.
 Aquæ min. ferruginosæ.
 3. Stannum rasum, aut semi-oxydatum.

c. *Externally*:

Frictiones ventris cum anthelminthicis.
 Enemata cum anthelminthicis.
 — cum muriatæ sodæ.
 Concussio electrica.

ANTICACHECTICS, vide ALTERANTS.

ANTIDOTES, vide ALEXIPHARMICS.

IX. ANTISCORBUTICS.

a. *Acrids*.

Allium cepa.
 — sativum.
 — scordoprasum.
 — victorialis.
 Brassica eruca.
 — rapa.
 Cardamine pratensis.
 Cochlearia amoracia.
 — officinalis.
 Crambe orientalis.
 Dentaria pentaphyllos.

Erigeron acre.
 Erysimum alliaria.
 — barbarea.
 — officinale.
 Galium aparine.
 Lepidium iberis.
 — sativum.
 Petivera alliacea.
 Raphanus sativus.
 Saxifraga granulata.
 Scilla maritima.
 Sinapis alba.

Sinapis nigra.
 Symsbrium nasturtium.
 — tenuifolium.
 Thlaspi arvense.

b. *Acids and acescentis*.

Acidum citricum.
 — oxalicum.
 — tartarosum.
 Succus citri.
 Fructus acid.
 Omphacium,

ME

Brassica oleracea fermentata.
Oxalis acetosella.
Rumex acetosa.
Cerevisia fermentans.
Vinum Campaniæ fermentans.
— Rhenanum, Mosellanum, etc.

Turiones pini.
Aqua picea.
Diæta vegetabilis.

c. *Sweets, and acid sweets.*
Saccharum.
Mel.

ME

Fructus horræi.
Decoctum malti.

d. *Bitters.*
Menyanthes trifoliata.
Cinchona officinalis, etc.

e. *Oxygenants.*

X. ANTISEPTICS.

a. Arnica montana.
Camphora.
Cinchona.
Daucus carota.
Fraxinus excelsior.
Geum urbanum.
Ruta graveolens.
Teucrium scordium.
b. Acida mineralia.
— vegetabilia.
Plantæ acidulæ.
Oxalis acetosella.
Rumex acetosa.

Fructus acidi et acidodulces.
Berberis vulgaris.
Vaccinium myrtillus.
Citrus medica.
— aurantium, etc.
c. Dulcia.
Fructus dulces.
Mel.
Oxymel.
Saccharum.
Infusum malti.
d. Liquida fermentata.

Vinum.
Cerevisia.
Alkohol.
e. Oxygenantia.
f. Amara.
g. Acria volatilia.
h. Balsamica et resinosa.
i. Aromatica.
k. Adstringentia.
l. Sales neutri.
m. Diæta acidula vegetabilis.

XI. ANTISPASMODICS.

a. *Vegetables.*
1. Anagyris foetida.
Anthemis cotula.
— nobilis.
Chenopodium vulvaria.
Citrus aurantium.
Cuminum cyminum.
Cymicifuga foetida.
Cardamine pratensis.
Convallaria majalis.
Eryngium foetidum.
Galium mollugo.
— verum.
Hyosciamus niger.
Iris foetida.
Matricaria chamomilla.
— parthenium.
Malaleuca leucadendron.
Pæonia officinalis.
Papaver somniferum.
Paris quadrifolia

Prunus laurocerasus.
Radix cassumaniar.
Ruta graveolens.
Tilia Europæa.
Teucrium marum.
Valeriana celtica.
— officinalis.
— phu.
Viscum album?
2. Gummi-resinæ foetidæ.
Ferula assa foetida.
Bubon galbanum.
Sagapenum.
3. Camphora.
Opium.
Crocus.

b. *Animals.*
Ambra grisea.
Castoreum.

Moschus.
Zibethum.
Olea empyreumatica.
Oleum animale dipelii.
— cornu cervi volatile.
c. *Minerals.*
1. Æther acetosus.
— muriaticus.
— nitricus.
— sulfuricus.
Æther alkoholifatus.
— — camphoratus.
Acida mineralia alkoholifata.
2. Oleum petrolei.
— succini.
3. Acidum sulfuricum.
4. Carbonas ammoniacæ.
5. Ferri præparata varia.
Aquæ minerales ferruginosæ.

ME

6. Oxydum zinci.
— wismuthi.
Sulfas zinci.
d. Refrigerantia.
e. Emetica.
f. Cathartica.
g. Anthelminthica.
h. Deobstruentia.
i. Roborantia.
k. *Externally*:
1. Odorifera foetida.
Alfa foetida.

- Castoreum.
Olea empyreumatica.
Fumus plumarum aut
offium accensorum.
2. Acetum concentrat.
Æther acetosus.
3. Venæsectio.
4. Oleum camphoratum
cum opio.
Linimentum ex opio et
æthere.
5. Balnea calida.

ME

- Semicupia.
Pediluvia.
Vapor aquæ genitali-
bus admissus.
Fotus emollientes.
6. Frictiones aromaticæ.
7. Enemata varia.
8. Injectiones ex anti-
spasmodicis et emol-
lientibus.
9. Balnea frigida.
10. Vesicantia.

XII. ANTISYPHILITICS.

- a. *Vegetables*.
Agave Americana.
Arundo phragmitis.
Astragalus exscapus.
Bubon Macedonicum.
Buxus sempervirens.
Ceanothus Americanus.
Clematis recta.
Coris Monspelliensis.
Daphne Mezereum.
— laureola.
Echitis syphilitica.
Euphorbia canescens.
— parvula.
Geum rivale.
Gratiola officinalis.
Guajacum officinale.
— sanctum.

- Juglans regia.
Laurus sassafras.
Lobelia syphilitica.
— longiflora.
— tupa.
Lonicera Diervilla.
Plumeria alba.
Prunus padus.
Ranunculus abortivus.
Serratula amara.
Stillingia sylvatica.

- b. *Animals*.
Lacerta agilis.
— Iguana.

- c. *Minerals*.
Hydrargyri oxyda.

- Hydrargyri sales varii.
Carbonas ammoniacæ.
— potassæ.
— sodæ.

d. *Oxygenants*?

- e. *Externally*.
Oxydum hydrargyri alb.
— — rubrum.
Murias hydrargyri.
Unguentum hydrargyri.
Balnea cum muriate oxy-
genato hydrargyri.
Frictiones cum hydrar-
gyro.
Enemata —
Fumigationes —

XIII. APHRODISIACS.

- a. Cineraria fibrica.
Eryngium campestre.
Fraxinus excelsior.
Gladiolus communis.
Lycoperdon tuber.
Orchis morio, aliarumque
species.

- b. *Aromatics*.
Caryophyllus aromaticus.
Epidendrum vanilla.
Laurus cinnamomum.

- Panax quinquefolium.
Satureja hortensis.

- c. *Animals*.
1. Ambra grisea.
Castoreum.
Coccus cacti.
— ilicis.
Lacerta iguana.
— scincus.
Lytta vesicatoria.
Moschus.

- Zibethum.
2. Carnes juniorum ani-
malium.
Gelatinæ.
Ostreæ.
Ova.
Pisces.
d. Quies mentis et cor-
poris.
e. *Externally*.
1. Scrotum corrugantia.

Alchemilla vulgaris
 Anthemis pyrethrum.
 Cachris odontalgica.
 Hedera helix.
 Vinca minor.

2. Alkohol.
 Æther alkoholifatus.
 Vinum.
 Acetum.
 3. Vesicantia.

4. Frictiones variæ.
 Uñctiones aromaticæ.
 Flagellatio.
 Urticatio.

XIV. AROMATICS.

a. Acorus calamus.
 Amomum cardamomum.
 — zingiber.
 Angelica Archangelica.
 — sylvestris.
 Aristolochia longa.
 — odoratissima.
 — rotunda.
 — serpentaria.
 — trilobata.
 Arnica montana.
 Artemisia abrotanum.
 — rupestris.
 — vulgaris.
 Caryophyllus aromaticus.
 Cistus creticus.
 Citrus aurantium.
 — medica.
 Cyperus longus.
 — odoratus.
 — rotundus.
 Doronicum latifolium.
 — pardalianches.
 Dracocephalum Canariense.
 Fagara pterota.
 Gnaphalium arenarium.
 — dioicum.
 Kaempferia rotunda.
 Laurus cassia.

Laurus cinnamomum.
 — culilawan.
 — nobilis.
 — pecurim.
 — saffrafras.
 Lavandula spica.
 — stoechas.
 Melissa calamintha.
 — officinalis.
 Melittis melissophyllum.
 Mentha auricularis.
 — cervina.
 — crispa.
 — piperita.
 — pulegium.
 — sativa.
 — Sylvestris.
 — viridis.
 Maranta galanga.
 Marrubium vulgare.
 Melaleuca leucadendron.
 Monarda fistulosa.
 Myristica moschata.
 Myrtus caryophyllata.
 — communis.
 — pimenta.
 Ocymum basilicum.
 Origanum creticum.
 — dictamnus.
 — majorana.

Origanum syriaticum.
 — vulgare.
 Pimpinella anisum.
 — magna.
 Rosmarinus officinalis.
 Santalum album.
 Santolina chamæcyparissus.
 Satureja capitata.
 — hortensis.
 Salvia officinalis.
 Tenacetum balsamita.
 — vulgare.
 Valeriana officinalis.
 Wintera aromatica.
 — canella.
 Teucrium chamædrys.
 — chamæpitys.
 — marum.
 Thymus serpyllum.
 — vulgaris.
 b. Aromatica acria.
 Vide *Aromatic acids*.
 c. Aromatica amara.
 Vide *Aromatic bitters*.
 d. Aromatica resinosa.
 Vide *Resinous Stimulants*.
 e. Carminativa.

XV. BALSAMICS.

Amyris elemifera.
 — zeylonica.
 Balsamum de mecca?

Gummi resina bdellium.
 Liquidambar styraciflua.
 Myroxylum peruvianum.

Styrax Benzoin.
 — officinalis.
 Toluifera balsamum.

XVI. CORDIALS.

- | | | |
|---------------------------|---------------------|----------------------------|
| a. Andropogon nardus. | e. Roborantia. | a. Aër purus. |
| Aristolochia serpentaria. | f. Stimulantia. | Respiratio gazis oxygenii. |
| Laurus cinnamomum. | g. Analeptica. | b. Enemata aromatica. |
| Panax quinquefolium. | Vinum generosum. | — nutrientia. |
| Sium ninsi. | Alkohol. | — alkoholifata. |
| Teucrium marum. | Cerevisia generosa. | c. Balnea aromatica. |
| b. Aromatica. | h. Opium. | — alkoholifata. |
| c. Nutrientia. | i. Oxygenantia. | d. Frictiones corporis. |
| Diæta lenta. | k. Externally : | |
| d. Oxygenantia. | | |

XVII. CARMINATIVES.

- | | | |
|---------------------------|----------------------------|--------------------------------|
| Æthusa meum. | Juniperus communis. | b. Acrid aromatics. |
| Ammi copticum ? | Lagoecia cuminoides. | c. Bitter aromatics. |
| — majus. | Laserpitium latifolium. | d. Frictiones abdominis |
| Amomum cardamomum. | — filer. | simplices vel aromatics. |
| — granum paradisi. | Ligusticum levisticum. | e. Exercitium. |
| — zingiber. | Melaleuca leucadendron. | f. Diæta eupepta. |
| Anethum graveolens. | Panax quinquefolium. | g. Alkohol et alkoholifata. |
| — fœniculum. | Pastinaca opopanax. | Vinum generosum. |
| Andropogon schœnanthus. | Pimpinella anisum. | h. Æther. |
| Apium graveolens. | — magna. | — alkoholifatus. |
| — petroselinum. | — saxifraga. | i. Acidum sulfuricum. |
| Bubon Macedonicum. | Santolina chamæcyparissus. | — — alkoholifatum. |
| Carum carvi. | Semen adiowaen. | Acidum nitricum alkoholifatum. |
| Chenopodium ambrosioides. | Scrophularia aquatica. | k. Alkalia. |
| — botrys. | — nodosa. | l. Magnesia. |
| Cistus creticus. | Sison ammi. | m. Mild cathartics. |
| Coriandrum sativum. | — amomum. | n. Ferri præparata. |
| Cuminum cyminum. | Sium ninsi. | |
| Ferula asæ fœtida. | Tordylium officinale. | |
| Illicium anisatum. | Wintera aromatica. | |
| | — canella. | |

XVIII. CATHARTICS.

I. *The more mild.*

- | | | |
|--------------------|---------------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| a. Cassia alata. | Spinacia oleracea. | Manna. |
| — fistula. | Thalictrum flavum. | Oleum seminum ricini communis. |
| — fenna. | Fructus acido-dulces crudi vel cocti. | b. Infusum coffeæ. |
| Cichorium endivia. | | |
| Prunus domestica. | | |

M E

- c. Aquæ frigidæ haustus
omni mane aut
vesperi.
- d. Emetica refracta dorsi.
- e. *Minerals* :
Sulphur.
Magnesia.
Carbonas magnesiæ.
Sulfas magnesiæ.
— potassæ.

- Sulfas sodæ.
- Tartris potassæ.
— sodæ.
- Phosphas sodæ, alii-
que sales neutri.
- Aquæ minerales sa-
linæ.
- f. Frictio abdominis cum
catharticis acriori-
bus.

M E

- g. Enemata varia.
- h. Aspergio ventris nudi
e longinquo aqua
frigida.
Frictio ventris.
- i. Lotio manuum in so-
lutione muriatis oxy-
ganati stibii aquosa.

II. *Drastics.*

- Allamanda cathartica.
- Aloë perfoliata.
— spicata.
- Agaricus muscarius.
- Anagyris scetida.
- Afarum Europæum.
- Boletus laricinus.
- Bryonia alba.
— dioica.
- Buxus sempervirens.
- Cambogia gutta.
- Carthamus tinctorius.
- Cassia fenna.
- Cassine peragua.
- Colchicum autumnale.
- Convallaria majalis.
- Convolvulus jalappa.
— sepium.
— scammonia.

- Convolvulus soldanella.
— turpethum.
- Croton tiglium.
- Cucumis colocynthis.
- Cyclamen Europæum.
- Delphinium staphysa-
gria.
- Digitalis purpurea.
- Euphorbiæ species.
- Gratiola officinalis.
- Guttæfera vera.
- Helleborus niger.
- Iridis species.
- Linum catharticum.
- Lycopodium selago.
- Mercurialis annua.
- Momordica elaterium.
- Nicotiana tabacum.

- Pencea sarcocolla ?
- Phyllanthus emblica.
- Polygala senega.
- Rhamnus catharticus.
— frangula.
- Rheum palmatum.
— rhaponticum.
— undulatum.
- Sambucus ebulus.
- Veratrum album.
— nigrum.
- Viola tricolor.
- b. Sales neutri.
- c. Enemata acriora.
- Fumus aut decoctum
nicotianæ tabaci.
- Decoctum mercurialis
annuæ.

CEPHALICS, vide *NERVINES*.

XIX. CORROSIVES.

- a. Allium cepa.
— sativum.
- Aloëxylum verum.
- Anacardium occidentale.
- Anemone nemorosa.
— pratensis.
- Arum maculatum.
- Bryonia alba.
- Capficum annuum.
- Clematis recta.
- Daphnes species.
- Drosera rotundifolia.
- Euphorbiæ species.

- Juniperus sabina.
- Nicotiana tabacum.
- Phytolacca decandra.
- Plumbago Europæa.
- Polygonum hydropiper.
- Ranunculi species.
- Ruta graveolens.
- Semecarpus anacardium.
- Sinapis alba.
— nigra.
- Lytta vesicatoria.
- b. *Acria varia.*
- c. *Mineralia.*

- Caustica stricte sic dic-
ta.
- Ammoniaca.
- Potassa.
- Soda.
- Calx.
- Alumen fusum.
- Acidum muriaticum.
— nitricum.
— sulphuricum.
- Murias oxygenatus hy-
dragryri.
- — stibii.

ME

Nitras argenti.
Sulfas cupri.
Oxydum arsenici.

Oxydum cupri.
— ferri rubrum.
— hydrargyri rubrum.

ME

Ferrum candens.
Moxa.

XX. DEBILITANTS.

a. Diæta tenuis, vegetabilis.
Acida vegetabilia diluta.
Aquosa tepida.
b. Refrigerantia.
c. Deoxygenantia.
d. Narcotica.
e. Nauseantia.
Scilla maritima.
Digitalis purpurea, etc.
f. Cathartica repetita, et salium neutrorum usus diutius continuatus.
g. Plumbi præparata.
h. Respiratio aeris gaze

azoto, hydrogenio aut acido carbonico abundantis.
Respiratio ætheris sulfurici.
Halitus putridi aut mephitici.
Seclusio in stabulis, aut loco humido aere non perflato.
i. Affectus animi tristes.
k. Abusus veneris.
— liquorum fermentatorum.
— opii, aliorumque narcoticorum.
Labor nimius.

Vita otiosa sedentaria.
Defectus exercitii solitii.
l. Balnea frigida diutius adplicata.
Balneorum tepidorum abusus.
m. Calor atmosphæræ magnus.
Ventus australis, præcipue ex desertis Africæ.
n. Evacuationes sanguineæ.
— gelatinosæ vel mucilaginosæ.
Fonticuli.

XXI. DEMULCENTS.

a. *Gelatinous.*
Gelatina cornu cervi.
— vitulina, etc.
Ichthyocolla accipenserum.
Ova.
Helix pomatia.
Limax maximus.
b. *Mucilaginous.*

c. *Oiley.*
Olea veget. fixa.
Adipes et olea animalia.
d. *Sweet.*
Saccharum.
Mel.
Glycyrriza glabra.
— echinata.

Ficus carica.
Rhamnus zyzzyphus.
c. *Externally.*
Cataplasmata.
Fotus.
Frictiones oleosæ.
— mucilaginosæ.
Balnea calida.
Vapor aquæ.

XXII. DEOBSTRUENTS.

Chærophyllo sylvest.
Chelidonium majus.
Cichorium intybus.
Cicuta virosa.
Cimicifuga foetida?
Conium maculatum.
Cucumis colocyntidis.
Curcuma longa?

Cuscuta epithymum.
— Europæa.
Ferula assa foetida.
Gummi-resina ammon.
— sagapenum.
Fucus vesiculosus.
Fumaria bulbosa.
— officinalis.
Gypsophilla struthium.

Helleborus foetidus.
— niger.
— viridis.
Iridis species.
Leontodon taraxacum.
Menyanthes trifoliata.
Nicotiana tabacum.
Panicum dactylum.
Polygala senega.

Prunus laurocerasus.
Rheum palmatum.
Sapindus saponaria.
Saponaria officinalis.
Scandix cerefolium.
Triticum repens.
b. Mel.
c. Vitellus ovi.
d. Amara.

e. Stomachica.
f. Alkalia.
g. Sales neutri.
h. — terrestres.
i. Præparata ferri.
— hydrargyri.
— stibii.
k. Thermæ alkalinæ.
— sulphuræ.

l. Aquæ minerales fer-
ruginosæ.
— — salinæ.
— — acidulæ.
m. Frictiones simplices,
et aromatizatæ.
n. Embrocatio.
o. Enemata varia.
p. Exercitium.

XXIII. DEOXYGENANTS.

1. Alkalia.	acido carbonico abun-	Decoctum corticum viri-
2. Sulfureta alkalina.	dantis.	dium nucum juglandis.
Sulfuretum ammoniacæ.	5. Seclusio in loco an-	— quercus, etc.
— potassæ.	gusto ubi aer atmos-	7. Diæta animalis.
3. Aquæ min. sulfuræ.	phæricus non satis re-	8. Quies corporis.
— — alkalinæ.	novatur.	9. Prunus laurocerasus ?
4. Respiratio aeris azo-	6. Adstringentia.	Digitalis purpurea ?
to, hydrogenio, aut	Decoctum cinchonæ.	

DIAPHORETICS, vide *SUDORIFICS*.

XXIV. DIURETICS.

a. Anemone pratensis.	Equisetum hyemale.	Parietaria officinalis.
Antirrhinum linaria.	Eryngium campestre.	Physalis alkekengi.
Apium petroselinum.	— fœtidum.	Polygala senega.
Arum maculatum.	Eupatorium cannabi-	Polygonum hydropiper.
Afarum Europæum.	num.	Pimpinella saxifraga.
Asclepias vincetoxicum.	Fragaria vesca.	Radix caligualæ.
Asparagus officinalis.	Fraxinus excelsior.	— timac.
Carthamus tinctorius.	Genista tinctoria.	Rhamnus catharticus.
Cissampelos pareira.	Helleborus niger.	— frangula.
Clematis recta.	— viridis.	Ranunculus ficaria.
— vitalba.	Iris florentina.	Ribes nigrum.
Conium maculatum.	— fœtida.	Rubia tinctorum.
Copaifera officinalis.	— germanica.	Ruta graveolens.
Croton tiglium.	— pseud-acorus.	Sambucus ebulus.
Colchicum Illyricum.	— tuberosa.	— nigra.
— autumnale.	Juniperus communis.	Saxifraga granulata.
Crysanthemum leucan-	— sabina.	Scandix cerefolium.
themum.	Lactuca scariola.	Scilla maritima.
Cucumis colocynthis.	— virofa.	Solanum dulcamara.
Curcuma longa.	Linnæa borealis.	Solidago virga aurea.
Cynara scolymus.	Nicotiana tabacum.	Spartium scoparium.
Digitalis purpurea.	Ononis arvensis.	Spilanthus acmella.
Equisetum arvense.	— spinosa.	Stychnos nux vomica.

ME

Toluifera balsamum.
Triticum repens.
Tropæolum majus.
Viola odorata.
— tricolor.
b. Acida vegetabilia.
c. — mineralia.
d. Æther sulfuricus.
Acidum muriaticum alcoholisatum.
— nitric. alcoholisat.
e. Alkalia.

f. Sales neutri, refracta dosi.
Acetis potassæ.
— sodæ.
Tartris potassæ acidulus.
— potassæ.
— sodæ.
g. Sales terrestres.
Murias et acetis calcis.
— — — barytæ.
h. Amara.
i. Acrida volatilia.

ME

k. Resinosa.
l. Balsamica.
m. Cathartica acriora.
n. Frictio ventris cum scilla maritima.
— — cum oleo.
o. Frigus corporis superficiei adplicatum.
p. Lytta vesicatoria sub varia forma.
q. Oniscus asellus.

ECCOPROTICS, vide *CATHARTICS*.
EMMENAGOGUES, vide *MENAGOGUES*.

XXV. EMETICS.

a. Allium cepa.
Asarum Europæum.
Betonica officinalis.
Cochlearia armoracia.
Colchicum autumnale.
— Illyricum.
Croton tiglium.
Digitalis purpurea.
Erigeron acre.
Gratiola officinalis.
Helleborus niger.
Momordica elaterium.
Nicotiana tabacum.
Ptycotria emetica.
Ranunculus flammula.
— lingua.
Sambucus ebulus.
Scilla maritima.

Sinapis alba.
— nigra.
Strychnos colubrina.
— nux vomica.
— volubilis.
Veratrum album.
— nigrum.
Viola canina.
— ipecacuanha.
— odorata.
b. Amara.
c. Cathartica acrida.
d. *Metallic*.
Oxydum hydrargyri luteum.
Tartris potassæ acidulus stibiatus.

Stibii præparata varia.
Sulfas zinci.
e. Aqua destillata ranunculi flammulæ aut linguæ.
Aqua calida.
f. Applicatio nicotianæ tabaci regioni epigastricæ.
Frictio epigastrii cum emeticis mediante saliva.
Enema ex decocto tabaci.
g. Irritatio faucium mechanica.
h. Motus vertiginosus.

XXVI. EMOLLIENTS.

a. Gelatinosa.
b. Mucilaginosæ.
c. Oleosæ.
d. Aqua calida.

Balnea calida.
Thermæ.
Vapor aquæ.
— aceti.

Embrocatio.
Cataplasmata.
Fotus.

EPISPATICS, vide *CORROSIVES*.

XXVII. ERRHINES.

a. Achillea ptarmica.	Guajacum officinale.	Sinapis nigra.
Afarum Europæum.	Iridis species.	Teucrium marum.
Beta vulgaris?	Nicotiana tabacum.	Veratrum album.
Betonica officinalis?	Nigella fativa.	— nigrum.
Calendula officinalis.	Origanum majorana.	b. Acidum benzoicum.
Convallaria majalis.	Primula veris.	Ammoniaca.
Euphorbia offic. (gummi-resina).	Salvia sclarea.	Succinus ammoniacæ.
	Sinapis alba.	Sulfas hydrargyri.

EXCITANTS, vide *CARDIACS & NERVINES*.

XXVIII. EXPECTORANTS.

a. Arum maculatum.	Nicotiana tabacum.	Carbonas ammoniacæ.
Asclepias asthmatica.	Peucedanum officinale.	Citras ammoniacæ.
Cassine paragua.	Polygala amara.	c. Demulcentia.
Erysimum officinale.	— senega.	d. Balsamica et resinosa.
Gummi-resina ammon.	Polypodium vulgare.	Acidum benzoicum.
Glecoma hederacea.	Rubia tinctorum.	Sulphur.
Glycyrrhiza glabra.	Scilla maritima.	Petroleum.
Hedera helix.	Styrax benzoin.	Oleum succini.
Hyssopus officinalis.	Thuya occidentalis.	f. Vapor aquæ.
Ilex cassine.	Tussilago farfara.	— aceti.
Inula helenium.	— petasites.	Fumus balsamicorum.
Iridis species.	Veronica officinalis.	g. Vesicantia.
Marrubium vulgare.	b. Emetica (refracta dosi)	h. Opium (pro re nata).
Melissa calamintha.	Hydro-sulfur stibii.	

XXIX. GALACTOPHORA.

a. Anethum fœniculum.	Pimpinella anisum.	Lac.
— graveolens.	Scandix cerefolium.	Cerevisia generosa.
Carum carvi.	b. Diæta nutriens.	Potus aquæ frequens.
Ligusticum levisticum.	Gelatinosa.	c. Suctio.
Nigella fativa.	Farinacea.	

HYPNOTICS, vide *SEDATIVES*.

INVOLVENTS, vide *DEMULCENTS*.

LACTIFERA, vide *GALACTOPHORA*.

XXX. MENAGOGUES.

Aloë perfoliata.	Adonis verna.	Aristolochia clematitis.
Artemisia abrotanum.	Anagris foetida.	— longa.
Afarum Europæum.	Andropogon schœnanthus.	— rotunda.
Adonis appenina.		Asphodelus ramosus?

Bromelia ananas.
 Bryonia alba.
 — dioica.
 Costus arabicus.
 Crocus sativus.
 Cucumis colocynthis.
 Curcuma longa?
 Cytiscus laburnum.
 Cyclamen Europæum.
 Helleborus fœtidus.
 — niger.
 Juniperus sabina.
 Lycopodium selago.
 Maranta galanga.
 Momordica elaterium.
 Nepata cataria.
 Nigella fativa.
 Onosma echinoides?

Origanum creticum.
 — dictamnus.
 Pastinaca opopanax.
 Pimpinella saxifraga.
 Rubia tinctorum.
 Ranunculus sceleratus.
 Ruta graveolens.
 Satureja hortensis.
 Spilanthus acmella.
 Strychnos nux vomica.
 Tanacetum vulgare.
 Teucrii species.
 Thymus sepyllum.
 — vulgaris.
 Veratrum album.
 — nigrum.
 b. Aromatica.

M E
 c. Cathartica acriora.
 d. Stimulantia.
 e. Gummi resinæ fœtidæ.
 f. Castoreum.
 g. Hydrargyri oxyda et
 sales varii.
 h. Ferri præparata.
 Aquæ minerales ferru-
 ginosæ.
 i. Thermæ variæ.
 Balnea calida.
 Semicupia.
 Pediluvia.
 Vapor aquæ.
 k. Frictiones.
 l. Phlebotomia.
 m. Electricitas.

XXXI. MUCILAGINOSA.

a. Alcea rosea.
 Althæa officinalis.
 Astragalus gummifer.
 — tragacantha.
 Anchusa officinalis.
 Aquilegia vulgaris.
 Asphodelus ramosus.
 Avena fativa.
 Cactus opuntia.
 Cannabis sativa.
 Ceratonia siliqua.
 Cissampelos caapeba.
 Convallaria polygonat.
 Cordia mixa.
 Fucus helminthocort.
 Guilandina moringa.
 Hordeum distichon.
 — vulgare.
 Leucoidum vernum, etc.
 Lichen Islandicus.
 Lilium candidum.

Linum usitatissimum.
 Malva alcea.
 — rotundifolia.
 — sylvestris.
 Mimosa Nilotica.
 — senegal.
 Ocimum basilicum.
 Cœnanthe crocata.
 Orchis Morio, etc.
 Oryza sativa.
 Plantago psyllium.
 Pyrus cydonia (semen).
 Prunus cerasus (gummi).
 Pentapetes muhucunda?
 Populus nigra.
 Scorzonera Hispanica.
 Symphytum officinale.
 Trigonella Fœnum græ-
 cum.
 Tussilago farfara.
 Verbascum thapsus.

Verbascum nigrum.
 Viscum album.
 b. Farina avenæ.
 — hordei.
 — panici.
 — phalaris.
 — sagu.
 — secalis.
 — tritici.
 c. Dulcia.
 Daucus carota.
 Ficus carica.
 Phoenix dactylifera.
 Rhamnus jujuba.
 — zyzypus.
 Saccharum officinarum.
 Mel.
 d. Gelatinosa.
 Gelatina cornu cervi, etc.
 Ichthyocola.

XXXII. NARCOTICS.

a. Amygdalus amara.
 — persica.
 Anethum graveolens.
 Atropa belladonna.

Atropa mandragora.
 Cicuta virosa.
 Colchicum autumnale.
 — illyricum.

Conium maculatum.
 Convallaria majalis.
 Crocus sativus.
 Cynoglossum officinale.

ME

Datura stramonium.
Humulus lupulus.
Hyoscyamus albus.
 — *niger.*
Jasminum officinale.
Lactuca scariola.
 — *virgata.*
Ledum palustre.
Laurus camphora.
Mercurialis annua.
Myrica gale.

Myristica moschata.
Nicotiana tabacum.
Nymphæa alba.
 — *lutea.*
Pæonia officinalis.
Paris quadrifolia.
Papaver rhœas.
 — *somniferum.*
Prunus avium.
 — *laurocerasus.*
Sambucus ebulus.

ME

Solanum nigrum.
Stachys sylvatica.
Strychnos nux vomica.
 — *volubilis?*
Thea Bohea.
 — *viridis.*
 b. *Vinum et liquores fermentati (majori dosi).*
Alkohol.
Opium (majori dosi).

XXXIII. NERVINES.

a. *Ammi copticum?*
Cassumaniar (radix).
Camphorosma Monspeliensis.
Chenopodium ambrosioides.
Cheyranthus cheiri.
Citrus aurantium.
Coffea Arabica.
 — *occidentalis.*
Dictamnus albus.
Dracocephalum canariense.
 — *Moldavicum.*
Epidendrum vanilla.
Geranium moschatum.
Gnaphalium arenarium.
Hymenæa courbaril.
Jubabæ (cortex).
Kikekunemalo (gummi-resina).

Laurus, camphora.
Lavandula spica.
 — *stoechas.*
Melaleuca leucadendron.
Melissa officinalis.
Monarda fistulosa.
Nepeta cataria.
Polypodium fragrans.
Rosmarinus officinalis.
Salvia officinalis.
 — *sclarea.*
Satureja capitata.
 — *hortensis.*
Teucrium marum.
 — *Syriacum.*
Thymus serpyllum.
 — *vulgaris.*
Valeriana officinalis.
 — *phu.*
 b. *Balsamica.*

c. *Animals.*
Fiber castor.
Moschus moschiferus.
Viverra zibethum.
Ambra grisea.
 d. *Vinum.*
Alkohol.
 e. *Æther.*
 — *alkoholisatus.*
 — *camphoratus.*
 f. *Opium.*
 g. *Externally.*
Odorifera grata.
 — *fœtida.*
Oleum animale.
Vesicantia.
Unguenta varia.
Opium et opiata.
Balnea calida.

XXXIV. OLEOSA.

a. *Amygdalus communis.*
 — *nana.*
 — *perfica.*
Brassica rapa.
Cannabis fativa.
Cocos butyracea.
 — *nucifera.*
Corylus avellana.
Cucumis melo.
 — *fativus.*

Cucurbita citrullus.
 — *lagenaria.*
 — *pepo.*
Guilandina moringa.
Linum usitatissimum.
Olea Europæa.
Papaver somniferum.
Pistacia vera.
Sesamum orientale.
Semecarpus anacardium.

Theombroma cacao.
 b. *Animals.*
Adeps.
Adipocera Phyleterum.
Axuugia suilla.
Butyrum.
Cera.
Lac.
Sevum ovillum.
Vitellus ovorum.

XXXV. OXYGENANTS.

a. Acidum nitricum.
— muriaticum oxyge-
natum.

Murias hyperoxygena-
tus potassæ.
b. Exercitium.

c. Respiratio aëris ma-
jori quantitate oxy-
genii mixti.
d. Thermae minerales.

PAREGORICS, vide *SEDATIVES*.

PTARMICS, vide *ERRHINES*.

PURGATIVES, vide *CATHARTICS*.

XXXVI. REFRIGERANTS.

1. Cassia fistula.
Lactuca sativa.
Mefembryanthemum
crystallinum.

Nymphæa alba.
— lutea.

Oxalis acetosella.
Parietaria officinalis.
Portulacca oleracea.

Rumex acetosa.
— scutatus.

Tamarindus Indica.

2. Eructus acido-dulces.

Morus nigra.

Prunus avium.

— cerasus.

Pyrus communis.

— malus.

Ribes nigrum.

— rubrum.

Rubus arcticus.

— chamæmorus.

— idæus.

Sambucus nigra.

Vaccinium vitis idæa.

Vitis apyrena.
— vinifera.

3. Lac ebutyratum.
Serum lactis.

4. Acids.

Omphacium.

Vinum pomaceum.

Vinum Campaniæ, aqua
dilutum.

Aquæ minerales acidulæ.

Acidum acetosum.

Oxycratum.

Oxymel.

Syrupus aceti.

Acidum citricum dilu-
tum.

Limonada.

Acidum tartarosum.

— muriaticum alkoho-
lisatum dilutum.

5. Neutral salts.

Nitras potassæ.

— sodæ.

Acetis potassæ.
— sodæ.

Tartris sodæ.
— potassæ.

— — acidulus.

6. Diæta levis.

7. Potus aquæ frigide
copiosus.

8. Externally.

Balnea tepida.

— frigida.

Glacies.

Nix.

Fotus frigidi.

Pulvis nitratis potassæ
aqua frequenter hu-
mectatus.

Murias ammoniacæ.

Acetum aqua dilutum.

Aëris accessus liber.

RELAXANTS, vide *EMOLLIENTS*, *OLEOSA* & *MUCILAGINOSA*.

XXXVII. RESOLVENTS.

1. Acria.

2. Adstringentia.

3. Corrosiva.

4. Emollientia.

5. Refrigerantia.

6. Sedativa.

7. Stimulantia.

8. Evacuantia chirurgica.

9. Varia :

Linimentum saponi-
ceum.

Linimentum ammoni-
acale.

Linimentum ex Petroleo
et alkohole.

— ex gummi-resina am-
mon. et aceto scilliti-
co.

Unguentum hydrargyri.

Vinum.

Alkohol.

Cerevisia generosa.

Acetum.

Camphora.

Murias ammoniacæ.

Plumbi præparata varia.

Fotus frigidus.

Fotus calidi varii.

Embrocationes variæ.

Cataplasmata varia.

Frictiones variæ.

Cucurbitæ.

Emetica.

Cathartica acriora.

Sudorifica.

Calor.

Vapor aquæ, aceti, etc.

XXXVIII. ROBORANTS.

1. Ventriculū et systema gastricum roborantia, vide *Stomachics*.
2. Systema arteriosum roborantia, vide *Cordials*.
3. Systema nervosum roborantia, vide *Nervines*, *Analeptics*, *Antispasmodics*.

Hinc pro re nata.

- a. Amara stomachica.
- b. Aromatica cardiaca.
- c. Odorifera nervina.
1. Ferri præparata.
- Aquæ minerales fer-
ruginosæ.

e. Oxygenantia.

f. Adstringentia.

g. *Externally*.

Frictiones.

Exercitium.

Constrictio, seu

Ligaturamembrorum.

Balnea frigida.

— alkoholifata.

— aromatica.

Fotus ex vino, alkohole.

Linimenta varia aroma-
tica.

XXXIX. SEDATIVES.

a. Narcotica.

Opium.

Hyosciamus.

b. Vinum.

Alkohol.

Æther.

Æther alkoholifatus.

c. Camphora.

Æther camphoratus.

— alkoholifatus cam-
phoratus.Acetum camphora-
tum.

d. Olea fixa.

e. Mucilaginosa.

Gelatinosa.

f. Refrigerantia.

g. Antispasmodica.

h. *Externally*.

Æther.

Oxyda et sales plumbi.

Frictiones oleosæ.

Alkohol camphoratum.

Oleum camphoratum.

Unguentum opiatum.

Emplastrum opiatum.

Enemata.

Fotus.

Cataplasmata.

Thermæ.

Balnea calida.

Vapor aquæ.

— aceti.

XL. SIALAGOGES.

a. *Internally*:

Hydrargyri præparata.

Smilax China?

Alurias. hyperoxygena-
tus potassæ?b. *Externally*:

Amomum zingiber.

Angelica Archangelica.

Anthemis pyrethrum.

Cathris odontalgica.

Caryophyllus aromaticus.

Cochlearia armoracia.

Imperatoria ostruthium.

Iridis species.

Nicotiana Tabacum.

Nigella fativa.

Sinapis alba.

— nigra.

Polygala senega.

Gargarisma ex scilla.

— ex muriate ammo-
niacæ.STHENICS, vide *ROBORANTS*, *STIMULANTS*, *CARDIACS*,
and *NERVINES*.

XLI. STIMULANTS.

a. *Aromatics*:

Ammi copticum?

Amomum zingiber.

— cardamomum.

Aristolochia clematitis.

— longa.

— rotunda.

— odoratissima.

— serpentaria.

Aristolochia trilobata.

Angelica Archangelica.

Arnica montana.

Artemisia abrotanum.

— campestris.

— dracunculus.

— glacialis.

— rupestris.

— vulgaris.

Capficum annum.

Carlina acaulis.

Costus Arabicus.

Croton cascarilla.

Doronicum latifolium.

— pardalianches.

Dorstenia contrayerva.

Ilex cassine.

Illicium anisatum.

Imperatoria ostruthium. Gummi-refina galda.
 Inula Helenium. — guajaci.
 Kaempferia rotunda. — juniperi.
 Laurus cassia. — hederæ.
 — cinnamomum. — kikekunemalo.
 — culilawan. — look.
 — nobilis. — myrrha.
 — pecurim. — Olibanum s. Thus.
 Lavandula spica. — opopanacis.
 — stoechas. — Rakasira.
 Ligusticum levisticum. — sagapenum.
 Maranta galanga. c. *Resins*.
 Malaleuca leucadendron. Æthusa meum.
 Melissa calamintha. Amomum granum pa-
 — officinalis. radisi.
 Mentha crispa. Amyris kataf?
 — pulegium. Angelica Archangelica.
 Myrtus pimenta. — sylvestris.
 Origanum creticum. Balsamea Meccanensis?
 — dictamnus. Copaifera officinalis.
 Semen adiowaen. Caryophyllus aromaticus.
 — ajavæ. Cistus creticus.
 Piper cubeba. Genista Canariensis.
 — longum. Guajacum officinale.
 — nigrum. Juniperus communis.
 Rosmarinus officinalis. — sabina.
 Salvia sclarea. Laurus myrrha?
 Tanacetum balsamita. — sassafias.
 — vulgare. Pimpinella saxifraga.
 Teucrium chamædrys. Pinus abies.
 — chamæpitys. — balsamea.
 — creticum. — Canadensis.
 — marum. — cembra.
 — polium. — larix.
 Thymus serpyllum. — mungos.
 — vulgaris. — picea.
 Wintera aromatica. — sylvestris.
 — canella. Pistacia chio.
 b. *Gum-resins*. — lentiscus.
 Gummi-refina ammon. — terebinthus.
 — assa foetida. Polygala senega.
 — bdellium. Santalum album.
 — caranna. Thuja articulata.
 — galbana. d. *Balsamica*.

e. Carminatava.
 f. Cardiaca.
 g. Nervina.
 Opium.
 Vinum.
 Alkohol.
 Æther.
 — alkoholifatus.
 b. Oxygenantia.
 i. Ferri præparata.
 Aquæ min. ferruginosæ.
 k. *Externally*.
 Respiratio aut inflatio
 gazis oxygenii.
 Acria.
 Errhina.
 Epispastica.
 Vesicantia.
 Enemata acria.
 Acidum aceticum.
 Æther acetosus.
 — sulphuricus.
 — nitricus.
 Ammoniaca.
 Succinas ammoniacæ.
 Olea empreumatica.
 Fumus plumarum au
 ossium accensorum.
 Castoreum.
 Moschus.
 l. Balnea fervida.
 — aromatica.
 — alkoholifata.
 — frigida, gelida.
 Thermæ simplices.
 — sulphuræ.
 — alkalina.
 m. Frictiones simplices.
 — aromatica.
 Urticationes.
 Exercitia varia.
 n. Calor externus.
 o. Lumen solare.
 p. Electricitas.

XLII. STOMACHICS.

Amomum zingiber. Dorstenia contrayerva. Fumaria bulbosa.
 Angelica Archangelica. Dracocephalum Cana- — officinalis.
 Caryophyllus aromaticus. riense. Geum urbanum.
 Cinchonæ species variæ. Fagara pterota. Lauri species variæ.

Iaranta galanga.
Melissa calamintha.
Melittis melissophyllum.
Mentha species.
Menyanthes trifoliata.
Monarda fistulosa.
Myristica moschata.
Myrtis caryophyllata.
 — pimenta.
Polygala amara.
Quassia amara.
Radix cassumaniar.
 — chynlen.
 — columbo.
Rosmarinus officinalis.
Satureja hortenensis.
 — capitata.
Scrophularia aquatica.
Strychnos colubrina.
 — nux vomica.
Thymus serpyllum.
 — vulgaris.

b. *Amara varia.*
 c. *Amara adstri.*
 d. *Adstringentia.*
 e. *Aromatica.*
 f. *Carminativa.*
 g. *Stimulantia.*
 h. *Antacida.*
 i. *Vinum.*
 Alkohol.
 k. *Ferrum.*

STYPTICS, vide *ADSTRINGENTS.*

XLIII. SUDORIFICS.

1. *Agaricus muscarius.*
Aristolochia serpentaria.
Buxus sempervirens.
Calendula officinalis.
Carex arenaria.
Carlina acaulis.
Crocus sativus.
Dorstenia contrayerva.
Genista Canariensis.
Guajacum officinale.
Laurus sassafras.
Ledum palustre.
Papaver somniferum.
Psycotria emetica.
Rhododendrum chrysanthum.
Ruta graveolens.
Salvia officinalis.
Sambucus nigra.
Spiræa ulmaria.
Strychnos nux vomica.
 — volubilis.
Teucrium scordium.
Thuja occidentalis.
 b. *Infusa aromat. calida.*
 Serum lactis vinosum.
 c. *Aqua calida.*
 d. *Aqua frigida hausta.*

e. *Balnea calida.*
Thermæ variæ.
Balneum vaporis.
Balnea terræ.
 f. *Sibii præparata.*
Stibium cum opio.
Psycotria emetica
 cum opio.
 g. *Ammoniaca.*
Acetis ammoniacæ.
Carbonas ammoniacæ.
Murias ammoniacæ.
 h. *Vestimenta et stragula*
calida.

TONICS, vide *ROBORANTS.*
 VESICANTS, vide *CORROSIVES.*

XLIV. EVACUANTIA CHIRURGICA.

1. *Venæsectio.*
Arteriotome.
Hirudines.
Cucurbitæ scarificatæ.
 2. *Vesicantia.*
Fonticulus.
Setaceum.
Moxa.

LXV. VARIOUS

Balnea frigida.
 — calida.
 — fervida.
Thermæ variæ.
Frictiones corporis simplices et medicatæ.
Balnea terræ, etc.
Expositio partis affectæ
radiis solaribus, reli-
quo corpore tecto.
Caustica.
Ferrum candens.
Moxa.
Embrocationes variæ.
Exercitia gymnastica.
Electricitas.
Galvanismus.
Musica.

MEDINENSIS VENA, (*Medinensis*, *nensis* of Linnæus. The muscular
 so called because it is frequent at Me- hair-worm. A very singular animal,
 dina). *Dracunculus.* *Gordius medi-* which, in some countries, inhabits

the cellular membrane between the skin and muscles.

MEDITULLIUM, (*Meditullium*, i. n. from *medius*, the middle). See *Diploë*.

MEDLAR. See *Mespilus*.

MEDULLA, (*Medulla*, æ, f. *quasi in medio ossis*). The marrow. See *Marrow*. The pith or pulp of vegetables.

MEDULLA OBLONGATA. The medullary substance of the same use as the cerebrum, that lies within the cranium, upon the basillary process of the occipital bone. It is formed by the connection of the crura cerebri and crura cerebelli, and terminates in the spinal marrow. It has several eminences, viz. pons varolii, corpora pyramidalia, and corpora olivaria.

MEDULLA SPINALIS. The spinal marrow. A continuation of the medulla oblongata, which descends into the specus vertebralis from the foramen magnum occipitale, to the third vertebra of the loins, where it terminates in a number of nerves, which, from their resemblance, are called *cauda equina*. The spinal marrow is composed, like the brain, of a cortical and medullary substance: the former is placed internally. It is covered by a continuation of the dura mater, pia mater, and tunica arachnoidea. The use of the spinal marrow is to give off, through the lateral or intervertebral foramina, thirty pairs of nerves, called cervical, dorsal, lumbar, and sacral nerves.

MEDULLARY, (*Medullaris*, from *medulla*, marrow). Like unto marrow.

MEDULLARY SUBSTANCE. The white and internal substance of the brain is so called.

MEIBOMIUS'S GLANDS. The small glands which are situated between the conjunctive membrane of

the eye and the cartilage of the eyelid, first described by Meibomius.

MEL, (*Mel*, lis, n.) See *Honey*.

MEL ACETATUM. This preparation of honey and vinegar possesses aperient and expectorating virtues, and is given, with these intentions, in the cure of humoral asthma, and other diseases of the chest.

MEL ROSÆ. An admirable preparation for the base of various gargles and collutories. It may also be employed with advantage, mixed with extract of bark or other medicines, to children who have a natural disgust to medicines.

MEL SCILLÆ. Aperient, expectorant, and detergent virtues, are attributed to the honey of squills.

MELÆNA, (*Melæna*, æ, f. *μελανα*, from *μελας*, black). The black vomit. Black bile.

MELALEUCA LEUCADENDRON. The systematic name of the plant which affords the cajeput oil. See *Cajeput oil*.

MELAMPODIUM, (*Melampodium*, i. n. *μελαμποδιον*, from *Melampus*, the shepherd who first used it). Black hellebore. See *Helleborus niger*.

MELANCHOLIA, (*Melancholia*, æ, f. *μελαγχολια*, from *μελας*, black, and *χολη*, bile; because the ancients supposed that it proceeded from a redundancy of black bile). Melancholy madness. A disease in the class *neuroses* and order *vesania* of Cullen, characterized by erroneous judgment, but not merely respecting health, from imaginary perceptions or recollection influencing the conduct, and depressing the mind with ill-grounded fears; not combined with either pyrexia or comatose affections; often appearing without dyspepsia, yet attended with costiveness, chiefly in persons of rigid fibres and torpid insensibility.

MELANOPIPER, (*Melanopiper*, eris,

n. *μελαιοπιπερίς*, from *μελας*, black, and *πιπερίς*, pepper). Black pepper. See *Piper nigrum*.

MELAS, (*Melas*, *anos*, m. from *μελας*, black). *Vitiligo nigra*. *Morphaea nigra*. *Lepa maculosa nigra*. A disease that appears upon the skin in black or brown spots, which very frequently penetrate deep, even to the bone, and do not give any pain or uneasiness. It is a disease very frequent in, and endemial to, Arabia, where it is supposed to be produced by a peculiar miasma.

MELASMA, (*Melasma*, *ātis*, n. *μελασμος*, from *μελας*, black). *Melasma*. A disease that appears not unfrequently upon the tibia of aged persons, in form of a livid black spot, which, in a day or two, degenerates into a very foul ulcer.

MELASSES. See *Treacle*.

MILLEFOLIUM, (*Millefolium*, i, n. from *mille*, a thousand, and *folium*, a leaf, so named from its numerous leaves). See *Melissa*.

MELICERIS, (*Meliceris*, i, f. *μελικηρίς*, from *μελι*, honey, and *κερος*, wax). An encysted tumour, whose contents resemble honey in consistence and appearance.

MELILOT. See *Melilotus*.

MELILOTUS, (*Melilotus*, i, f. *μελιλωτός*, from *μελι*, honey, and *λωτός*, the lotus, so called from its smell, being like that of honey). *Locus sylvestris*. *Trifolium odoratum*. Melilot. This plant, *Trifolium melilotus officinalis* of Linnæus, has been said to be resolvent, emollient, anodyne, and to participate of the virtues of chamomile. Its taste is unpleasant, subacid, subsaline, but not bitter; when fresh it has scarcely any smell; in drying it acquires a pretty strong one of the aromatic kind, but not agreeable. The principal use of melilot has been in glysters, fomentations, and other external applications.

MELISSA, (*Melissa*, e, f. from *μελισσα*, a bee, because bees gather honey from it).

Citraro. *Citraria*. *Melissophyllum*. *Melifolium*. *Mellitis*. *Cedronella*. *Apiastrum*. *Melissa citrina*. Balm. *Melissa officinalis* of Linnæus. A native of the southern parts of Europe, but very common in our gardens. In its recent state it has a roughish aromatic taste, and a pleasant smell of the lemon kind. It was formerly much esteemed in nervous diseases, and very generally recommended in melancholic and hypochondriacal affections; but in modern practice it is only employed when prepared as tea, as a grateful diluent drink in fevers, &c.

MELISSA CALAMINTHA. The systematic name of the field catmint. See *Calamintha*.

MELISSA CITRINA. See *Melissa*.

MELISSA GRANDIFLORA. The systematic name of the mountain calamint. See *Calamintha magno flore*.

MELISSA OFFICINALIS. The systematic name of balm. See *Melissa*.

MELISSA TURCICA. See *Moldavica*.

MELITIS MELISSOPHYLLUM. The systematic name of the mountain balm. See *Melissophyllum*.

MELO, (*Melo*, *onis*, m. from *μελον*, an apple, which it resembles in shape). The common melon. Musk melon. *Cucumis melo* of Linnæus. This fruit, when ripe, has a delicious refrigerating taste, but must be eaten moderately, with pepper or some aromatic, as all this class of fruits are obnoxious to the stomach, producing spasms and colic. The seeds possess mucilaginous qualities.

MELOE VESICATORIUS. The systematic name of the Spanish fly. See *Cantharides*.

MELON, COMMON. See *Melo*.

MELON, MUSK. See *Melo*.

MELON, WATER. See *Citrullus*.

MELOTHRIA PENDULA. The systematic name of the small creeping

cucumber plant. The inhabitants of the West Indies pickle the berries of this plant, and use them as we do capers.

MELYSSOPHYLLUM, (*Melysophyllum*, i, n. *μελισσοφυλλοι*, from *μελισσα*, balm, and *φυλλοι*, a leaf). Mountain balm or nettle. This elegant plant, *Melittis melissophyllum* of Linnæus, is seldom used in the present day, it is said to be of service in uterine obstructions and calculous diseases.

MEMBRANA HYALOIDEA. *Membrana arachnoidea*. The transparent membrane which includes the vitreous humour of the eye.

MEMBRANA PUPILLARIS. A very delicate membrane of a thin and vascular texture, and an ash colour, arising from the internal margin of the iris, and totally covering the pupil in a fœtus of six months.

MEMBRANA RUYSCHIANA. The celebrated anatomist Ruysch discovered that the choroid membrane of the eye was composed of two laminæ. He gave the name of *membrana ruysehiana* to the internal lamina, leaving the old name of *choroides* to the external.

MEMBRANA TYMPANI. The membrane covering the cavity of the tympanum, and separating it from the *meatus auditorius externus*. It is of an oval form, convex below the middle, towards the hollow of the tympanum, and concave towards the *meatus auditorius*, and convex above the middle towards the *meatus*, and concave towards the hollow of the tympanum. According to the observations of anatomists, it consists of six laminæ; the first and most external is a production of the epidermis, the second is a production of the skin lining the auditory passage: the third is cellular membrane, in which the vessels form an elegant net-work; the fourth is shining, thin, and transparent, arising from the periosteum of the *meatus*; the fifth is cellular mem-

brane, with a plexus of vessels like the third; and the sixth lamina, which is the innermost, comes from the periosteum of the cavity of the tympanum. This membrane, thus composed of several laminæ, has lately been discovered to possess muscular fibres.

MEMBRANALOGIA, (*Membranologia*, a, f. from *membrana*, a membrane; and *λογος*, a discourse). Membranology. The doctrine of the common integuments and membranes.

MEMBRANE, (*Membrana*, a, f.). A thin expanded substance, composed of cellular texture, whose elastic fibres are so arranged and woven together, as to allow of great pliability. The membranes of the body are various, as the skin, peritoneum, pleura, dura mater, &c. &c.

MENAGOGUES. See *Emmenagogues*.

MENINX, (*Meninx*, ngis, f. *μηνις*, from *μενω*, to remain). The Greek term for the membranes enveloping the brain. See *Dura mater* and *Pia mater*.

MENINX DURA. See *Dura mater*.

MENISPERMUM COCCULUS. The systematic name of the plant whose berries are well known by the name of *Cocculus indus*. Indian berries, or Indian cockles. Whilst green, they are used by the Indians to catch fish, which they have the power of intoxicating and killing. In the same manner they catch birds, making the berry into a paste, forming it into small seeds, and putting these in places where they frequent.

MENORRHAGIA, (*Menorrhagia*, a, f. *μειορραγια*, from *μηνια*, the menses, and *ῥηγνυμι*, to break out). An immoderate flow of the menses. A genus of disease in the class *pyrexia* and order *hemorrhagia* of Cullen. Species, 1. *Menorrhagia rubra*, proper; from women neither with child nor in childbirth. 2. *Menorrhagia alba*, serous; the *fluor albus*; the

Leucorrhœa. 3. *Menorrhagia vitiorum*, from some local disease. 4. *Menorrhagia lochialis*, from women after delivery. See *Lochia*.

MENSES. See *Catamenia*.

MENSTRUATION. From the uterus of every healthy woman who is not pregnant, or who does not give suck, there is a discharge of blood, at certain periods, from the time of puberty to the approach of old age; and, from the periods or returns of this discharge, it is called *Menstruation*. There are several exceptions to this definition. It is said that some women never menstruate; some menstruate while they continue to give suck; and others are said to menstruate during pregnancy: some are said to menstruate in early infancy, and others in old age; but such discharges, Dr. Denman is of opinion may, with more propriety, be called morbid, or symptomatic: but the definition is generally true.

At whatever time of life this discharge comes on, a woman is said to be at puberty: though of this it is a consequence, and not a cause. The early or late appearance of the menses may depend upon the climate, the constitution, the delicacy or hardness of living, and upon the manners of those with whom young women converse. In Greece and other hot countries girls begin to menstruate at eight, nine, and ten years of age; but, advancing to the northern climes, there is a gradual protraction of the time till we come to Lapland, where women do not menstruate till they arrive at maturer age, and then in small quantities, at long intervals, and sometimes only in the summer. But, if they do not menstruate according to the genius of the country, it is said they suffer equal inconveniences as in warmer climates, where the quantity discharged is much greater, and the periods shorter. In this country, girls begin to

menstruate from the fourteenth to the eighteenth year of their age; and sometimes at a later period, without any signs of the disease; but if they are luxuriously educated, sleeping upon down beds, and sitting in hot rooms, menstruation usually commences at a more early period.

Many changes in the constitution and appearance of women are produced at the time of their first beginning to menstruate. Their complexion is improved, their countenance is more expressive and animated, their attitudes graceful, and their conversation more intelligent and agreeable; the tone of their voice becomes more harmonious, their whole frame, but particularly their breasts, are expanded and enlarged, and their minds are no longer engaged in childish pursuits and amusements.

Some girls begin to menstruate without any preceding indisposition; but there are generally appearances or symptoms which indicate the change that is about to take place. These are usually more severe at the first than in the succeeding periods: and they are similar to those produced by uterine irritation from other causes, as pains in the back and inferior extremities, complaints of the viscera, with various hysteric and nervous affections. These commence with the first disposition to menstruate, and continue till the discharge comes on, when they abate or disappear, returning, however, with considerable violence in some women, at every period during life. The quantity of blood discharged at each evacuation, depends upon the climate, constitution, and manner of living; but it varies in different women in the same climate, or in the same woman at different periods; in this country it amounts to about five or six ounces.

There is also a great difference in the time required for the completion of each period of menstruation. In

some women the discharge returns precisely to a day or an hour, and in others there is a variation of several days without inconvenience. In some it is finished in a few hours, and in others it continues from one to ten days, but the intermediate time, from three to six days, is the most usual.

There has been an opinion, probably derived from the Jewish legislator, afterwards adopted by the Arabian physicians, and credited in other countries, that the menstruous blood possessed some peculiar malignant properties. The severe regulations which have been made in some countries for the conduct of women at the time of menstruation, the expression used, Isaiah, chap. xxx. and Ezekiel, the disposal of the blood discharged, or of any thing contaminated with it, the complaints of women attributed to its retention, and the effects enumerated by grave writers, indicate the most dreadful apprehensions of its baneful influence. Under peculiar circumstances of health, or states of the uterus, or in hot climates, if the evacuation be slowly made, the menstruous blood may become more acrimonious or offensive than the common mass, or any other secretion from it: but in this country and age, no malignity is suspected, the menstruous woman mixes in society as at all other times, and there is no reason for thinking otherwise, than that this discharge is of the most inoffensive nature.

At the approach of old age women cease to menstruate; but the time of cessation is commonly regulated by the original early or late appearances of the menses. With those who began to menstruate at ten or twelve years of age, the discharge will often cease before they arrive at forty; but if the first appearance was protracted to sixteen or eighteen years of age, independently of disease, such women may continue

to menstruate till they have passed the fiftieth, or even approach the sixtieth year of their age. But the most frequent time of the cessation of the menses, in this country, is between the forty-fourth and forty-eighth year; after which women never bear children. By this constitutional regulation of the menses, the propagation of the species is in every country confined to the most vigorous part of life: and had it been otherwise, children might have become parents, and old women might have had children, when they were unable to supply them with proper or sufficient nourishment. See *Catamenia*.

MENSTRUUM, (*Menstruum*, i. n.) Solvent. All liquors are so called, which are used as dissolvents, or to extract the virtues or ingredients by infusion, decoction, &c. The principal *menstrua*, made use of in *Pharmacy*, are water, vinous spirits, oils, acid, and alkaline liquors. Water is the *menstruum* of all salts, of vegetable gums, and of animal jellies. Of the first it dissolves only a determinate quantity, though of one kind of salt more than of another; and being thus saturated, leaves any additional quantity of the same salt untouched. It is never saturated with the two latter, but unites readily with any proportion of them, forming with different quantities, liquors of different consistencies. It takes up likewise, when assisted by trituration, the vegetable gummy resins, as ammoniacum and myrrh; the solutions of which, though imperfect, that is, not transparent, but turbid and of a milky hue, are nevertheless applicable to valuable purposes in medicine. Rectified spirit of wine is the *menstruum* of the essential oils and resins of vegetables; of the pure distilled oils of animals, and of soaps, though it does

not act upon the expressed oil and fixed alkaline salt, of which soap is composed. Hence, if soap contains any superfluous quantity of either the oil or salt, it may, by means of this *menstruum*, be excellently purified therefrom. It dissolves, by the assistance of heat, volatile alkaline salts; and more readily the neutral ones, composed either of fixed alkali and the acetous acid, as the sal diureticus, or of volatile alkali and the nitrous acid. Oils dissolve vegetable resins and balsams, wax, animal fats, mineral bitumens, sulphur, and certain metallic substances, particularly lead. The expressed oils are, for most of these bodies, more powerful *menstrua* than those obtained by distillation; as the former are more capable of sustaining without injury a strong heat, which is in most cases necessary to enable them to act. All acids dissolve alkaline salts, alkaline earths, and metallic substances. The different acids differ greatly in their action, upon these last: one dissolving some particular metals; and another, others. The vegetable acids dissolve a considerable quantity of zinc, iron, copper, and tin; and extract so much from the metallic part of antimony as to become powerfully emetic: they likewise dissolve lead, if previously calcined by fire; but more copiously if corroded by their steam. The marine acid dissolves zinc, iron, and copper; and though it scarce acts on any other metallic substance in the common way of making solutions, may nevertheless be artfully combined with them all except gold. The corrosive sublimate and antimonial caustic of the shops, are combinations of it with mercury and the metallic part of antimony, effected by applying the acid in the form of fume, to the subjects at the same time strongly heated. The nitrous acid is the

common *menstruum* of all metallic substances, except gold and the antimonial semi-metal, which are soluble only in a mixture of the nitrous and marine. The vitriolic acid easily dissolves zinc, iron, and copper; and may be made to corrode, or imperfectly dissolve most of the other metals. Alkaline lixivia dissolve oils, resinous substances, and sulphur. Their power is greatly promoted by the addition of quicklime, instances of which occur in the preparation of soap and in the common caustic. Thus assisted, they reduce the flesh, bones, and other solid parts of animals, into a gelatinous matter. Solutions made in water and spirit of wine, possess the virtue of the body dissolved; whilst oils generally sheathe its activity, and acids and alkalies vary its quality. Hence watery and spirituous liquors are the proper *menstrua* of the native virtues of vegetable and animal matters. Most of the foregoing solutions are easily effected, by pouring the *menstruum* on the body to be dissolved, and suffering them to stand together for some time, exposed to a suitable warmth. A strong heat is generally requisite to enable oils and alkaline liquors to perform their office; nor will acids act on some metallic bodies without its assistance. The action of watery and spirituous *menstrua* is likewise expedited by a moderate heat, though the quantity which they afterwards keep dissolved, is not, as some suppose, by this means increased. All that heat occasions these to take up more than they would do in a longer time in the cold, will, when the heat ceases, subside again. The action of acids on the bodies which they dissolve, is generally accompanied with heat, effervescence, and a copious discharge of fumes. The fumes which arise during the dissolution of some metals in the vitriolic acid, prove inflam-

mable: hence in the preparation of the artificial vitriols of iron and zinc, the operator ought to be careful, especially where the solution is made in a narrow-mouthed vessel, lest, by the imprudent approach of a candle, the exhaling vapour be set on fire. There is another species of solution in which the moisture of air is the *menstruum*. Fixed alkaline salts and those of the neutral kind, composed of alkaline salts and the vegetable acids, or of alkaline earths, and any acid except the vitriolic, and some metallic salts on being exposed for some time to a moist air, gradually attract its humidity, and at length become liquid. Some substances, not dissoluble by water in its grosser form, as the butter of antimony, are easily liquified by this slow action of the aerial moisture. This process is termed *Deliquation*. The cause of solution assigned by some naturalists, namely, the admission of the fine particles of one body into the pores of another, whose figure fits them for their reception, is not just or adequate, but hypothetical and ill-presumed; since it is found that some bodies will dissolve their own quantity of others, as water does of Epsom salt, alcohol of essential oils, mercury of metals, one metal of another, &c. whereas the sum of the pores or vacuities of every body, must be necessarily less than the body itself, and consequently those pores cannot receive a quantity of matter equal to the body wherein they reside.

How a *menstruum* can suspend bodies much heavier than itself, which very often happens, may be conceived by considering, that the parts of no fluids can be so easily separated, but they will a little resist or retard the descent of any heavy bodies through them: and that this resistance is, *cæteris paribus*, still proportionable to the surface of the

descending bodies. But the surface of bodies do by no means increase or decrease in the same proportion as their solidities do: for the solidity increases as the cube, but the surface only as the square of the diameter; wherefore it is plain, very small bodies will have much larger surfaces, in proportion to their solid contents, than larger bodies will, and consequently, when grown exceeding small, may easily be buoyed up in the liquor.

MENTAGRA, (*Mentagra*, *a*, f. from *mentum*, the chin, and *αγρο*, a prey). An eruption about the chin, forming a tenacious crust, like that on scald heads.

MENTASTRUM, (*Mentastrum*, *i*, n. dim. of *mentha*, mint). The red water mint. See *Mentha aquatica*.

MENTHA AQUATICA. *Mentastrum*. Water mint. This plant is frequent in moist meadows, marshes, and on the banks of rivers. It is less agreeable than the spearmint, and in taste bitterer and more pungent. It may be used with the same intentions as the spearmint, to which, however, it is much inferior.

MENTHA CATARIA. See *Nepeta*.

MENTHA CERVINA. The systematic name of the hart's pennyroyal. See *Pulegium cervinum*.

MENTHA CRISPA. This species of mentha has a strong and fragrant smell, its taste is warm, aromatic, and slightly bitter. In flatulencies of the primæ viæ, hypochondriacal, and hysterical affections, it is given with advantage.

MENTHA PIPERITA. The systematic name of the peppermint. See *Mentha piperitis*.

MENTHA PIPERITIS, (*Mentha*, *a*, f. from *Minthe*, the harlot who was changed into this herb). Peppermint. *Mentha piperita* of Linnæus. *Mentha floribus capitatis, foliis ovatis petiolatis, flaminibus corolla bre-*

viaribus. Class *Didynamia*. Order *Gymnospermia*. The spontaneous growth of this plant is said to be peculiar to Britain. It has a more penetrating smell than any of the other mints; a strong pungent taste, glowing like pepper, sinking as it were into the tongue, and followed by a sense of coolness. The stomatic, antispasmodic, and carminative properties of peppermint, render it useful in flatulent cholics, hysterical affections, retchings, and other dyspeptic symptoms, acting as a cordial, and often producing an immediate relief. Its officinal preparations are an essential oil, a simple water, and a spirit.

MENTHA PULEGIUM. The systematic name of the pennyroyal. See *Pulegium*.

MENTHA SARACENICA. See *Balsamita mas*.

MENTHA SATIVA. Spearmint. *Mentha viridis* of Linnæus. *Mentha spicis oblongis, foliis lanceolatis nudis serratis sessilibus, staminibus corolla longioribus*. Class *Didynamia*. Order *Gymnospermia*. This plant grows wild in many parts of England. It is not so warm to the taste as peppermint, but has a more agreeable flavour, and is therefore preferred for culinary purposes. Its medicinal qualities are similar to those of peppermint; but the different preparations of the former, though more pleasant, are, perhaps, less efficacious. The officinal preparations of spearmint are an essential oil, a conserve, a simple water, and a spirit.

MENTHA VIRIDIS. The systematic name of the spearmint. See *Mentha sativa*.

MENTI LEVATOR, (*Mentum*, i, n.). See *Levator labii inferioris*.

MENYANTHES TRIFOLIATA. The systematic name of the buckbean. See *Trifolium paludosum*.

MEPHITIS, (*Mephitis*, *idis*, f.

mephitis; from *mephubith*, a blast, Syr.). A poisonous exhalation. See *Contagion*.

MERCURIALIS, (*Mercurialis*, is, f. from *Mercurius*, its inventor). French mercury. *Mercurialis annua* of Linnæus. The leaves of this plant have no remarkable smell, and very little taste. It is ranked among the emollient oleraceous herbs, and is said to be gently aperient. Their principal use has been in glysters.

MERCURIALIS ANNUA. The systematic name of the French mercury. See *Mercurialis*.

MERCURIALIS MONTANA. Dog's mercury. See *Cynocrambe*.

MERCURIALIS PERENNIS. The systematic name of dog's mercury. See *Cynocrambe*.

MERCURIUS, (*Mercurius*, i, m. the chemical name of quicksilver, from its activity). See *Hydrargyrum*.

MERCURIUS ACETATUS. See *Hydrargyrum acetatus*.

MERCURIUS CALCINATUS. See *Hydrargyrum calcinatus*.

MERCURIUS CORROSIVUS. See *Hydrargyrum muriatus*.

MERCURIUS CORROSIVUS RUBER. See *Hydrargyrum nitratus ruber*.

MERCURIUS CORROSIVUS SUBLIMATUS. See *Hydrargyrum muriatus*.

MERCURIUS EMETICUS FLAVUS. See *Hydrargyrum vitriolatus*.

MERCURIUS PRÆCIPITATUS ALBUS. See *Calx hydrargyri alba*.

MERCURIUS PRÆCIPITATUS DULCIS. See *Hydrargyrum muriatus mitis*.

MERCURIUS PRÆCIPITATUS RUBER. See *Hydrargyrum nitratus ruber*.

MERCURY. Quicksilver. *Hydrargyrum*. See *Hydrargyrum*.

MERCURY, DOG'S. See *Cynocrambe*.

MERCURY, ENGLISH. See *Allgood*, and *Bonus benricus*.

MERCURY, FRENCH. See *Mercurialis*.

MEROCĒLE, (*Merocèle, es, f. μοροκήλη*; from *μερος*, the thigh, and *κήλη*, a tumour). A femoral hernia. See *Hernia*.

MESEMBRYANTHĒMUM CRYSTALLĪNUM. The juice of this plant in a dose of four spoonfuls every two hours, it is asserted, has removed an obstinate spasmodic affection of the neck of the bladder, which would not yield to other remedies.

MESENTERIC. Meseraic. Belonging to the mesentery. See *Mesentery*.

MESENTERIC ARTERIES. Two branches of the aorta in the abdomen are so called. The superior mesenteric is the second branch; it is distributed upon the mesentery, and gives off the superior or right colic artery. The inferior mesenteric is the fifth branch of the aorta; it sends off the internal hæmorrhoidal.

MESENTERIC GLANDS. These are conglobate, and are situated here and there in the cellular membrane of the mesentery. The chyle from the intestines passes through these glands to the thoracic duct.

MESENTERIC PLEXUS OF NERVES. The superior, middle, and lower mesenteric plexuses of nerves are formed by the branches of the great intercostal nerves.

MESENTERIC VEINS. They all run into one trunk, that evacuates its blood into the vena portæ. See *Vena portæ*.

MESENTERĪTIS, (*Mesenteritis, idis, f. μεσεντερικ*, from *μεσεντεριον*, the mesentery). An inflammation of the mesentery. A species of peritonitis of Cullen.

MESENTERY. (*Mesenterium, i, n. μεσεντεριον*; from *μεσος*, the middle, and *εντεροι*, an intestine). The membranaceous viscus in the cavity of the abdomen, attached to the vertebræ

of the loins, and to which the intestines adhere. It is formed of a duplicature of the peritoneum, and contains within it, adipose membrane, lacteals, lymphatics, lacteal glands, mesenteric arteries, veins, and nerves. Its use is to sustain the intestines in such a manner that they possess both mobility and firmness; to support and conduct with safety the blood-vessels, lacteals, and nerves; to fix the glands, and give an external coat to the intestines.

MESERAIC. The same as mesenteric. See *Mesenteric*.

MESOCOLON, (*Mesocolon, i, n. μεσocolον*; from *μεσος*, the middle, and *κολον*, the colon). The portion of the mesentery to which the colon is attached. The mesentery and mesocolon are the most important of all the productions of the peritonæum. In the pelvis, the peritonæum spreads itself shortly before the rectum. But where that intestine becomes loose, and forms the semilunar curve, the peritonæum there rises considerably from the middle iliac vessels, and region of the psoas muscle, double, and with a figure adapted for receiving the hollow colon. But above, on the left side, the colon is connected with almost no intermediate loose production to the peritonæum, spread upon the psoas muscle, as high as the spleen, where this part of the peritonæum, which gave a coat to the colon, being extended under the spleen, receives and sustains that viscus in a hollow superior recess.

Afterwards the peritonæum, from the left kidney, from the interval between the kidneys, from the large vessels, and from the right kidney, emerges forwards under the pancreas, and forms the broad and sufficiently long continuous production, called the transverse mesocolon, which like a partition divides the upper part of the abdomen, containing the stomach, liver, spleen, and pancreas, from the

lower part. The lower plate of this transverse production is continued singly from the right mesocolon to the left, and serves as an external coat to a pretty large portion of the liver, and descending part of the duodenum. But the upper plate, less simple in the course, departs from the lumbar peritonæum at the kidney, and region of the vena cava, farther to the right than the duodenum, to which it gives an external membrane, not quite to the valve of the pylorus; and beyond this intestine, and beyond the colon, it is joined with the lower plate, so that a large part of the duodenum lies within the cavity of the mesocolon. Afterwards, in the region of the liver, the mesocolon is inflected, and descending over the kidney of the same side much shorter, it includes the right of the colon, as far as the intestinum cæcum, which rests upon the iliac muscle and the appendix, which is provided with a peculiar long curved mesentery. There the mesocolon terminates, almost at the bifurcation of the aorta.

The whole of the mesocolon and of the mesentery is hollow, so that the air may be forced in between its two laminæ, in such a manner as to expand them into a bag. At the place where it sustains the colon, and also from part of the intestinum rectum, the mesocolon, continuous with the outer membrane of the intestine, forms itself into small slender bags resembling the omentum, for the most part in pairs, with their loose extremities thicker and bifid, and capable of admitting air blown in between the plates of the mesocolon.

MESORECTUM, (*Mesorectum*, i. n. from *μεσος*, the middle, and *rectum*, the straight gut). The portion of peritonæum which connects the rectum to the pelvis.

MESPILUS, (*Mespilus*, i. f. *μεσπιλος*, *οτι εν τω μεσα πιλος*, because it has a cap or crown in the middle of it).

The medlar. This fruit, and also its seeds have been used medicinally. The tree which bears them is the *Mespilus germanica* of Linnæus. The immature fruit is serviceable in checking diarrhœas; and the seeds were formerly esteemed in allaying the pain attendant on nephritic diseases.

MESPILUS GERMANICA. The systematic name of the medlar tree. See *Mespilus*.

METACARPAL BONES. The five longitudinal bones that are situated between the wrist and the fingers; they are distinguished into the metacarpal bone of the thumb, fore-finger, &c.

METACARPUS, (*Metacarpus*, i. m. *μετακαρπος*, from *μετα*, after, and *καρπος*, the wrist). That part of the hand between the wrist and fingers.

METALS. Metals principally differ from all other bodies on account of their perfect opacity, and consequent metallic splendour, their density, and specific gravity. In their purest metallic state they possess neither taste nor smell.

Metals are found in the bowels of the earth, either native, that is, almost pure; or in the state of oxide, that is, under the external form of earth; or combined with sulphur, as ores; or, lastly, in combination with acids, constituting metallic spars, &c. They occur in their various states, either separately or in combination with other metals.

They are remarkable for the property, peculiar to themselves, of being dilated by repeated or continued pressure. This property is termed ductility; but, as ductility is regulated by different laws, according to the nature of the pressure applied, it became necessary to divide it into two kinds, viz. into malleability, when metals, under the hammer or by flattening mills, are formed into thin plates; and into tenacity, when drawn out into wire.

As all metals are not ductile, the

presence or absence of this property caused them to be divided into two classes, the limits of which are, however, very indefinite. Of the eighteen metals with which we are acquainted, eight are considered as ductile, or entire metals; and ten as brittle, or semimetals. If we consider them according to their malleability, they appear in the following order, gold, silver, platina, copper, iron, tin, and lead: but, according to their tenacity, thus, platina, gold, iron, copper, silver, tin, and lead. To these may be added mercury; but the degree of its malleability and tenacity is not yet accurately known. The semimetals are, zinc, bismuth, nickel, antimony, cobalt, manganese, arsenic, tungsten, molybdena, and uranite.

All metals and semimetals become fluid at a certain temperature. Mercury exists in that state under the common temperature of the atmosphere; but the rest require a greater degree of heat; and some metals do not melt unless the heat be intense. Several fuse before they become red hot, such as mercury, lead, tin, bismuth, zinc. Some fuse at a greater or less degree of ignition, as the remaining metals. The least fusible metals are platina, tungsten, molybdena, and uranite, which are fused only by the aid of oxygen gas, or large burning lenses.

All metals, when melted in earthen or glass vessels, have a convex surface; and if the masses be but small, they form globules, which is owing to their great cohesion, and their inferior attraction to the vessel. All fused metals, when slowly cooled, assume a determinate form, and crystallize in various shapes.

Metals become volatile by fusion, and pass off in a gaseous state. Some undergo this change even by a moderate heat, as mercury, bismuth, antimony, arsenic, &c. Most metals

require, however, an intense heat for that purpose, for instance, gold, silver, and platina.

But of far greater importance is the change to which metals are liable when fused in a higher or lower temperature, in contact with oxygen gas or atmospheric air. They are thus deprived of their cohesion, metallic splendour, and ductility, and assume the external appearance of earths. In this state they are termed calces of metals, or metallic oxides. If a determinate quantity of lead, tin, or mercury, be heated for some time in a pneumatic vessel, carefully closed, containing oxygen gas, we perceive that the oxygen gas is considerably diminished, and that the metal is either entirely or in part reduced to the state of calx. During this change the weight of the metal increases, and the augmentation is precisely equal to the weight of the oxygen gas lost.

If mercury, thus calcined or oxydized, be distilled in a retort adapted to the pneumatic apparatus, we shall obtain a considerable quantity of oxygen gas, and the calx of mercury will resume its metallic form. The loss of weight, which the calx of mercury thus sustains, is equal to the weight of the oxygen gas obtained.

But, if the calx of lead or tin be heated in a pneumatic vessel filled with inflammable air, the air decreases, drops of water are formed, and the calx returns to its former metallic state.

From the experiments recited, and from a great number of others which may be consulted in chemical works, it is evident that during the calcination of metals, the metal simply combines with oxygen: and that oxides or calces of metals, in consequence of the loss of such oxygen, regain their metallic splendour; this operation is termed reduction of metals. All metals, however, have

not the same degree of affinity for oxygen: there are but few that part with it *per se*, by the mere increase of temperature; the greater number require the addition of a third body, which has a greater affinity for oxygen than the metal itself: for instance, nitrogen gas, carbon, &c. in which case we obtain either carbonic acid or water. Metals capable of being reduced *per se*, are termed noble; these are gold, silver, platinum, and mercury; others are termed base.

All metals may be likewise oxidated by acids, but all acids do not act upon metals in general, nor in the same manner. But during every combination of this kind, the acid is decomposed; its oxygen, combining with the metal, forms a metallic oxide, and its basis being disengaged, remains either in the mixture, or is dissipated in the state of gas. The metallic oxide thus produced, is either immediately dissolved in the remaining acid, and thus converted into a metallic salt, or is precipitated. In the former case, we say that the acid has dissolved the metal; in the latter, that it has only corroded it. In a few rare cases, the metal is oxidated merely by the oxygen of the water mixed with the acid, and then dissolved by the acid itself. Hydrogen gas is, in this case, disengaged.

Metals can never, therefore, be combined with acids, unless they be greyiously oxidated, and consequently, when dissolved, they are always oxides. Yet most acids do not act upon metals but when in a metallic state, and produce no effect upon those which have been previously calcined by other means. The cause of this rests probably either in the degree of oxidation, or upon its protraction.

When the union of a metallic oxide and an acid is dissolved by a third body, which has a nearer affinity with the latter, the metallic oxide in solution falls to the bottom of the vessel, and is termed a precipitate of the metal. But, if the decomposition be effected by double affinity, so that the oxide of the metal is deprived of its oxygen, the metal is then precipitated in a metallic form. When the solvent is a neutral salt, the acid of such salt combines with the metal, and produces a new metallic salt.

Metals may be combined with each other in different proportions. The compounds thus arising are termed alloys, which are governed by the general laws of chemical compositions; nor do they possess the properties of their component metals, since they differ in specific gravity, ductility, and chiefly in the degree of heat requisite for their fusion.

METAMORPHŌPSIA, (*Metamorphosia*, *a*, *f*. μεταμορφωσις; from μεταμορφωσις, a change, and οψις, sight). *Visus defiguratus*. Disfigured vision. It is a defect in vision, by which persons perceive objects changed in their figures. The species are; 1. *Metamorphosia acuta*, when objects appear much larger than their size. 2. *Metamorphosia diminuta*, when objects appear diminished in size, arising from the same causes as the former. 3. *Metamorphosia mutans*, objects seem to be in motion; to the vertiginous and intoxicated persons, every thing seems to stagger. 4. *Metamorphosia tortuosa seu flexuosa*, when objects appear tortuous or bending. 5. *Metamorphosia inversa*, when all objects appear inverted. 6. *Metamorphosia imaginaria*, is the vision of a thing not present, as may be observed in the delirious and in maniacs. 7.

Metamorphopsia from a remaining impression : it happens to those who very attentively examine objects, particularly in a great light, some time after to perceive the impression.

METASTÄSIS, (*Metastasis*, is, f. μεταστασις; from μεταστειναι, to change, to translate). The removal of a disease from one place to another.

METATARSAL BONES. The five longitudinal bones between the tarsus and toes; they are distinguished into the metatarsal bone of the great toe, fore toe, &c.

METATARSUS, (*Metatarsus*, i, m. μεταταρσιος; from μετα, after, and ταρσος, the tarsus). That part of the foot between the tarsus and toes.

METELLA NUX. See *Nux vomica*.

METRĪTIS, (*Metritis*, īdis, f. μετρίτις; from μήτρα, the womb). Inflammation of the uterus. See *Hysteritis*.

METROPTÖSIS, (*Metroptosis*, is, f. μετροπτώσις, from μήτρα, the uterus, and πίπτω, to fall down). *Prolapsus uteri*. The descent of the uterus through the vagina.

MEU. See *Meum athamanticum*.

MEUM ATHAMANTĪCUM, (*Meum*, i, n. μῆνι, or μένον; from μένω, less, so called, according to Minshew, from its diminutive size). *Meu*. Spiguel. Baldmoney. The root of this plant, *Æthusa meum*, is recommended as a carminative, stomachic, and for attenuating viscid humours, and appears to be nearly of the same nature as lovage, differing in its smell being rather more agreeable, somewhat like that of parsnips, but stronger, and being in its taste less sweet, and more warm or acrid.

MEXICO SEED. See *Ricinus*.

MEXICO TEA. See *Botrys mexicana*.

MEZEREON. See *Mezereum*.

MEZERĒUM, (*Mesereum*, i, n. μεζαρῆον; a word of some barbarous

dialect). *Mezereon*. Spurge-olive. Widow-wail. This plant, *Daphne mezereum* of Linnæus. *Daphne floribus sessilibus ternis caulinis, foliis lanceolatis deciduis*. Class *Octandria*. Order *Monogynia*, is extremely acrid, especially when fresh, and if retained in the mouth, excites great and long continued heat and inflammation, particularly of the mouth and fauces: the berries also have the same effects, and when swallowed, prove a powerful corrosive poison, not only to man, but to dogs, wolves, and foxes. The bark of the root is the part employed medicinally in the *decodum sarsaparillæ compositum*, to assist mercury in resolving nodes and other obstinate symptoms of syphilis. The antisyphilitic virtues of mezereum, however, have been by many writers very justly doubted. The result of my own experience (says the celebrated Mr. Pearson of the Lock Hospital), by no means accords with the representation given of this root by former writers. From all that I have been able to collect, in the course of many years observation, I feel myself authorized to assert unequivocally, that the mezereum has not the power of curing the venereal disease in any one stage, or under any one form. If a decoction of this root should ever reduce a venereal node, where no mercury has been previously given, yet the patient will by no means be exempted from the necessity of employing mercury, for as long a space of time, and in as large a quantity, as if no mezereum had been taken. With respect to the power it is said to possess, of alleviating the pain, and diminishing the bulk of membranous nodes, nothing peculiar and appropriate can be ascribed to the mezereum on these accounts, since we obtain the same good effects from sarsaparilla, guaicum, volatile alkali, blistering plasters, &c. Neverthe-

less, venereal nodes which have subsided under the use of any of these articles of the materia medica, will appear again, and often with additional symptoms, if a full and efficacious course of mercury be not submitted to. It has indeed been acknowledged, that mezereum always alleviates the pain occasioned by a venereal node, and generally reduces it, where the periosteum only is affected; and that it seldom fails of removing those enlargements of the periosteum which have not yielded during the administration of mercury.

That some instances of success, in cases like these, may have fallen to the share of those who made the assertion, it would not become me to deny; but I have met with few such agreeable evidences of the efficacy of this medicine. I have given the mezereum in the form of a simple decoction, and also as an ingredient in compound decoctions of the woods, in many cases, where no mercury had been previously employed, but never with advantage to a single patient. I have also tried it in numerous instances, after the completion of a course of mercury; yet, with the exception of two cases, where the thickened state of the periosteum was removed during the exhibition of it, I never saw the least benefit derived from taking this medicine. In a few cases of anomalous pains, which I supposed were derived from irregularities during a mercurial course, the mezereum was of service, after I had tried the common decoction of the woods without success; but even in this description of cases I have always found it a very uncertain remedy.

I have made trial of this vegetable in a great number of scrofulous cases, where the membranes covering the bones were in a diseased state, and I am not sure that one single patient

obtained any evident and material benefit from it.

The late Dr. Cullen, whose reports may justly claim attention from all medical men, when treating of the mezereum, in his materia medica, says, "I have frequently employed it in several cutaneous affections, and sometimes with success." It were to have been wished, that the professor of medicine had specified what those diseases of the skin were, in which the mezerium was sometimes employed with success; for, if I except an instance or two of lepra, in which the decoction of this plant conferred a temporary benefit, I have very seldom found it possessed of medicinal virtue, either in syphilis, or in the sequelæ of that disease, in scrofula, or in cutaneous affections. Indeed the mezereum is of so acrimonious a nature, often producing heat and other disagreeable sensations in the fauces, and on many occasions, disordering the primæ viæ, that I do not often subject my patients to the certain inconveniences which are connected with the primary effects of this medicine, as they are rarely compensated by any other important and useful qualities.

MIASMA, (*Miasma*, *ἄτις*, n. *μῑασμα*; from *μῑαίνω*, to infect). See *Contagion*.

MICROCOSMIC BEZOAR. See *Calculus*.

MILFOIL COMMON. See *Millefolium*.

MILIARIA, (*Miliaria*, *α*, f. from *milium*, millet: so called because the small pustules or vesicles upon the skin resemble millet-seed). Miliary fever. A genus of disease in the class *pyrexia* and order *exanthemata* of Cullen; characterized by synchus; cold stage considerable: hot stage attended with anxiety and frequent sighing; perspiration of a strong and peculiar smell; eruption, preceded by a sense of pricking, first

on the neck and breast, of small red pimples, which in two days become white pustules, desquamate, and are succeeded by fresh pimples. For the eruption similar to miliaria, but unattended with fever. See *Sudamina*.

MILITÄRIS HERBA. See *Millefolium*.

MILIUM, (*Milium*, i, n.). *Grutrum*. A very white and hard tubercle, in size and colour resembling a millet-seed. Its seat is immediately under the cuticle, so that when pressed it escapes, the contents appearing of an atheromatous nature.

MILIUM SOLIS. See *Lithospermum*.

MILK, (*Lac*, tis, n.). A fluid secreted by peculiar glands, and designed to nourish young animals in the early part of their life. It is of an opaque white colour, a mild saccharine taste, and a slightly aromatic smell. It is separated immediately from the blood in the breasts or udders of female animals. Man, quadrupeds, and cetaceous animals are the only creatures which afford milk. All other animals are destitute of the organs which secrete this fluid. Milk differs greatly in the several animals.

MILK, HUMAN. The white, sweetish fluid, secreted by the glandular fabric of the breasts of women. The *secretory organ* is constituted by the great conglomerate glands, situated in the fat of both breasts, above the musculus pectoralis major. From each acinus composing a mammary gland, there arises a radicle of a *lactiferous* or *galactiferous* duct. All these canals gradually converging, are terminated without anastomosis in the papillæ of the breasts by many orifices, which upon pressure pour forth milk. The smell of fresh-drawn milk is peculiar, animal, fatuous, and not disagreeable. Its taste sweetish, soft, bland, agreeable.

The specific gravity is greater than water, but lighter than blood; hence it swims on it. Its colour is white and opaque. In consistence it is oily and aqueous. A drop put on the nail flows slowly down, if the milk be good.

Time of Secretion: The milk most frequently begins to be secreted in the last months of pregnancy; but on the third day after delivery, a serous milk called *Colostrum* is separated; and at length pure milk is secreted very copiously into the breasts, that from its abundance, often spontaneously drops from the nipples.

If the secretion of milk be daily promoted by suckling an infant, it often continues many years, unless a fresh pregnancy supervene. The quantity usually secreted within twenty-four hours, by nurses, is various, according as the nourishment may be more or less chylous. It appears that not more than two pounds of milk are obtained from five or six pounds of meat. But there have been known nurses, who have given from their breasts two, or even more than three pounds, in addition to that which their child has sucked. That the origin of the milk is derived from chyle carried with the blood of the mammary arteries into the glandular fabric of the breasts, is evident from its more copious secretion a little after meals; its diminished secretion from fasting; from the smell and taste of food or medicines in the secreted milk; and lastly, from its spontaneous *accescence*; for humours perfectly animal become putrid.

The following are the *Properties* of animal and human milk:

Milk separates spontaneously into *cream*, *cheese*, and *serum of milk*; and that sooner in a warm situation than in a cold one. In a greater temperature than that of the air it *accesces* and

coagulates, but more easily and quicker by the addition of acid salts, or coagulating plants. *Lime-water* coagulates milk imperfectly. It is not coagulated by *caustic alkali*, for it dissolves its caseous part. With *aërated alkali* the caseous and cremoraceous parts of milk are changed into a liquid soap, which separates in the form of white flakes: such milk, by boiling, is changed into a yellow and then into a brown colour. Milk distilled to dryness, gives out an insipid water, and leaves a whitish brown extract, called the *extract of milk*; which dissolved in water makes a milk of less value. Milk fresh drawn and often agitated in a warm place, by degrees goes into the vinous fermentation, so that alcohol may be drawn over by distillation, which is called *spirit of milk*. It succeeds quicker if yeast be added to the milk. Mares milk, as it contains the greatest quantity of the sugar of milk, is best calculated for vinous fermentation.

The *Principles* of milk, or its integral parts, are, 1. The *Aroma*, or odorous volatile principle, which flies off from fresh drawn milk in the form of visible vapour. 2. *Water*, which constitutes the greatest part of milk. From one pound, eleven ounces of water may be extracted by distillation. This water, with the sugar of milk, forms the *serum of the milk*. 3. *Bland oil*, which from its lightness swims on the surface of milk after standing, and forms the *cream of milk*. 4. *Cheese*, separated by coagulating milk, falls to the bottom of the vessel, and is the animal gluten. 5. *Sugar*, obtained from the serum of milk by evaporation. It unites the caseous and butyraceous part with the water of the milk. 6. Some *neutral salts*, as the sal digestivus and muriated calx, which are accidental, not being found at all times, nor in every milk. These

principles of milk differ widely in respect to quantity and quality, according to the diversity of the animals.

The *Aroma* of the milk is of so different an odour, that persons accustomed to the smell, and those whose olfactory nerves are very sensible, can easily distinguish whether milk be that of the cow, goat, mare, ass, or human. The same may be said of the serum of the milk, which is properly the seat of the aroma. The *cream* of milk is thicker and more copious in the milk of the sheep and goat, than in that of the ass, mare, or human milk. The *butter* of goats and cows is easily separated from the milk, and will not again unite itself with the butter-milk. Sheep's butter is soft and not of the consistence of that obtained from the cow and goat. Asses, mares, and human butter can only be separated in the form of cream; which cream, by the assistance of heat, is with great ease again united to the milk from which it was separated. The *Cheese* of cows and goats milk is solid and elastic, that from asses and mares soft, and that from sheep's milk almost as soft as gluten. It is never separated spontaneously from the milk of a woman, but only by art, and is wholly fluid. The *Serum* abounds most in human, asses, and mares milk. The milk of the cow and goat contains less, and that of the sheep least of all. The *Sugar* of milk is in the greatest quantity in the mares and asses, and somewhat less in the human milk.

The *milk of a woman* differs: 1. in respect of food. The milk of a woman who suckles, living upon vegetable-animal food, never acides nor coagulates spontaneously, although exposed for many weeks to the heat of a furnace. But it evaporates gradually in an open vessel, and the last drop continues thin, sweet, and

bland. The reason appears to be, that the caseous and cremoraceous parts cohere together by means of the sugar, more intimately than in the milk of animals, and do not so easily separate; hence its acescence is prevented. It does *acesce*, if mixed or boiled with vinegar, juice of lemons, cremor tartar, spirit of vitriol, or with the human stomach. It is *coagulated* with the acid of salt or nitre, and by the acid gastric juice of the infant; for infants often vomit up the coagulated milk of the nurse. The milk of a sucking woman who lives upon vegetable food only, like cows milk, easily and of its own accord *acesces*, and is acted upon by all coagulating substances like the milk of animals. 2. In respect of *the time of digestion*. During the first hours of digestion the chyle is crude, and the milk less subacted; but towards the twelfth hour after eating, the chyle is changed into blood, and then the milk becomes yellowish and nauseous, and is spit out by the infant. Hence the best time for giving suck is about the fourth or fifth hour after meals. 3. In respect of *the time after delivery*. The milk secreted immediately after delivery is serous, purges the bowels of the infant, and is called *Colostrum*. But in the following days it becomes thicker and more pure, and the longer a nurse suckles, the thicker the milk is secreted; thus new-born infants cannot retain the milk of a nurse who has given suck for a twelvemonth, on account of its spissitude. 4. In respect of *food or medicines*. Thus if a nurse eat garlic, the milk becomes highly impregnated with its odour, and is disagreeable. If she indulge too freely in the use of wine or beer, the infant becomes ill. From giving a purging medicine to a nurse, the child also is purged; and lastly, children affected with tormina of the bowels, arising

from acids, are often cured by giving the nurse animal food. 5. In respect of *the affections of the mind*. There are frequent examples of infants being seized with convulsions from sucking mothers irritated by anger. An infant of one year old, while he sucked milk from his enraged mother, on a sudden was seized with a fatal hæmorrhage and died. Infants at the breast in a short time pine away, if the nurse be afflicted with grievous care; and there are also infants who after every coition of the mother, or even if she menstruate, are taken ill.

The *Use* of the mothers milk is, 1. It affords the native *aliment* to the new-born infant, in which respect milk differs little from chyle. Those children are the strongest who are nourished the longest by the mother's milk. 2. The *colostrum* should not be rejected; for it relaxes the bowels, which in new-born infants ought to be open, to clear their intestines of the *meconium*. 3. *Lactation* defends the mother from a dangerous reflux of the milk into the blood, whence lacteal metastasis and leucorrhæa are so frequent in lying-in women who do not give suck. The motion of the milk also being hastened through the breast by the sucking of the child, prevents the very common induration of the breast, which arises in consequence of the milk being stagnated. 4. *Men* may live upon milk, unless they have been accustomed to the drinking of wine. For all nations, the Japanese alone excepted, use milk, and many live upon it alone. Lastly, for many diseases, especially the gout, scurvy, dysentery, and phthical tabes of the different viscera, a *milk diet* is reckoned amongst the most efficacious remedies.

MILK-TEETH. See *Teeth*.

MILK-THISTLE. The leaves of this plant, when young, surpass

When boiled, the finest cabbage, and possesses diuretic qualities. See also *Carduus maria*.

MILK-VETCH. See *Tragacantha*.

MILK-WORT. See *Polygala*.

MILK-WORT, RATTLE SNAKE ROOT. See *Seneka*.

MILLET SEED. The fruit of the *Panicum miliaceum* of Linnæus. They are esteemed as a nutritious article of diet, and are often made into puddings in this country.

MILLET SEED, INDIAN. The fruit of the *Panicum italicum* of Linnæus. It is much esteemed in Italy, being a constant ingredient in their soups, and made into a variety of forms for the table.

MILLEFOLIUM, (*Millefolium*, i, n. from *mille*, a thousand, and *folium*, a leaf, named from its numerous leaves). *Achillea*. *Myriophyllum*. *Chiliophyllum*. *Lumber veneris*. *Militaris herba*. *Stratioses*. *Carpentaria*. *Speculum veneris*. Common yarrow or milfoil. The leaves and flowers of this indigenous plant, *Achillea millefolium*; *foliis bipinnatis nudis*; *laciniis linearibus dentatis*; *caulibus superne sulcatis* of Linnæus. Class *Syngenesia*. Order *Polygamia superflua*; have an agreeable, weak, aromatic smell, and a bitterish, rough, and somewhat pungent taste. They are both directed for medicinal use in the Edinburgh Pharmacopœia; in the present practice, however, they are almost wholly neglected.

MILLEMORBIA, (*Millemorbia*, æ, f. from *mille*, a thousand, and *morbis*, a disease; so called from its use in many diseases). See *Scrophularia vulgaris*.

MILLEPEDÆ. See *Millepedes*.

MILLEPEDES, (*Millepes*, edis, m. from *mille*, a thousand, and *pes*, a foot; named from their numerous feet). *Millipeda*. Wood-lice. The systematic name of this insect is *Oniscus asellus* of Linnæus. These insects, though they obtain a place in

the pharmacopœias, are very seldom used medicinally in this country; they appear to act as stimulants and slight diuretics, and for this purpose they ought to be administered in a much greater dose than is usually prescribed. The expressed juice, or forty or fifty living millepedes, given in a mild drink, is said to cure very obstinate jaundices.

MILL-MOUNTAIN. See *Linum Catharticum*.

MILTWASTE. See *Ceterach*.

MIMŌSA CATĒCHU. The systematic name of the tree which affords the terra japonica. See *Catechu*.

MIMŌSA NILOTICA. The systematic name of the tree which affords the gum arabic. See *Arabic gum*.

MIMŌSA SENEGAL. The systematic name of the tree from which the gum senegalexudes.

MINDERERUS SPIRIT. See *Aqua ammoniæ acetata*.

MINERALOGY. That part of natural history which relates to minerals.

MINERALS, (*Mineralia*, from *mina*, a mine of metal). Minerals are inorganized or inanimate bodies, that increase in volume by the juxtaposition of parts and the force of attraction. The early naturalists divided minerals into a great number of classes, but by the moderns they are divided only into three sections. Under the first are arranged earths and stones which have no taste, and do not burn when heated with contact of air; under the second, saline matters, having more or less taste, which melt in water, and do not burn; and under the third, combustible substances, not soluble in water, and exhibiting a flame more or less evident when exposed to fire with access of air.

MINERAL SALTS. See *Salts*.

MINERAL WATERS. *Aquæ minerales*. *Aquæ medicinales*. Waters holding minerals in solution are called

mineral waters. But as all water, in a natural state, is impregnated, either more or less, with some mineral substances, the name *mineral waters* should be confined to such waters as are sufficiently impregnated with mineral matters to produce some sensible effects on the animal economy, and either to cure or prevent some of the diseases to which the human body is liable. On this account, these waters might be with much more propriety called *medicinal waters*, were not the name by which they are commonly known too firmly established by long use.

The first knowledge of mineral waters, like every other branch of knowledge we possess, was accidentally discovered. The good effects they produced on such as used them, have doubtless been the cause of distinguishing them from common waters. The first philosophers who considered their properties, attended only to their sensible qualities, such as colour, weight, or lightness, smell, and taste. Pliny, however, distinguished a great number of waters, either by their physical properties or their uses; but the inquiry after methods of ascertaining, by chemical processes, the quantity and quality of the principles held in solution by mineral waters, was not attempted till the seventeenth century. Boyle is one of the first who, in the valuable experiments on colours published by him at Oxford in 1663, mentioned several re-agents capable of indicating the substances dissolved in water, by the alteration produced in their colours. The academy of sciences, from its first institution, was aware of the importance of analysing mineral waters; and Duclos, in 1667, attempted the examination of the mineral waters of France: the researches of this chemist may be found in the original memoirs of this society.

Boyle was particularly employed in inquiries respecting mineral waters about the end of the seventeenth century, and published a treatise on this subject in 1685. Boulduc, in the year 1729, published a method of analysing waters, which is much more perfect than any which were employed before his time: it consists in evaporating these fluids at different times, and separating by filtration the substances which are deposited, in proportion as the evaporation proceeds.

Many celebrated chemists have since made successful experiments on mineral waters, and almost every one made valuable discoveries respecting the different principles contained in these fluids. Boulduc discovered natron, and determined its properties: Le Roi, physician of Montpellier, discovered calcareous muriat; Margraaff, the muriat of magnesia: Priestley, carbonic acid; and Monnet and Bergman the sulphurated or *hepatic* hydrogen gaz. The two last-mentioned chemists, besides the discoveries with which they have enriched the art of analysing waters, have published complete treatises on the method of proceeding in this analysis; and have carried this part of chemistry to a degree of perfection and accuracy far exceeding that which it possessed before the time of their labours. We are likewise in possession of particular analyses, made by very good chemists, of a great number of mineral waters, and which serve to throw great light on this inquiry, which, with justice, is esteemed one of the most difficult in the whole art of chemistry. The limits here prescribed do not permit us to enter at large into the history of the analysis of waters, which may be found in many treatises, especially one lately published by the celebrated Dr. Saunders.

Principles contained in Mineral Waters.

It is but a few years since the substances capable of remaining in solution in water have been accurately known. This appears to have arisen from the want of accurate chemical methods of ascertaining the nature of these substances; and the certainty of their existence has naturally followed the discovery of methods of ascertaining them. Another cause which has retarded the progress of science in this respect is, that mineral matters dissolved in waters, are almost always in very small doses, and are also mixed together in considerable numbers, so that they mutually tend to conceal or alter those properties in which their distinctive characters consist. Nevertheless, the numerous experiments of the chemists before quoted, and a great number of others, which we shall occasionally mention, have shown, that some mineral substances are often found in waters, others scarcely ever met with; and lastly, many which are never held in solution by that fluid. We shall here consider each class of these substances in order.

Siliceous earth is sometimes suspended in waters; and as it is in a state of extreme division, it remains suspended without precipitating; but its quantity is extremely minute. The carbonated alkalis and chalk probably contribute to render siliceous earth soluble.

Alumine likewise appears to exist in water. The extreme subtlety of this earth, by which it is dispersed through the whole mass of water, causes it to render them turbid. Argillaceous waters are therefore whitish, and have a pearl or opal colour; they are likewise smooth, or greasy to the touch, and have been called saponaceous waters. Carbonic acid seems favourable to the suspension and solution of alumine in water.

Lime, magnesia, and barytes, are never found pure in waters; they are always combined with acids.

Fixed alkalis are never met with in a state of purity in waters, but frequently combined with acids, in the form of neutral salts.

The same observation applies to ammoniac, and most acids, except the carbonic acid, which is often free, and in possession of all its properties in waters. It constitutes a peculiar class of mineral waters, known by the name of *gaseous*, *spirituous*, or *acidulous* waters.

Among the neutral salts, with bases of fixed alkalis, scarcely any are met with but sulphat of soda or *Glauber's salt*, the muriats of soda, and of potash, and carbonat of soda, which are frequently dissolved in mineral waters; nitrat and carbonat of potash are rarely found.

Sulphat of lime, calcareous muriat, chalk, sulphat of magnesia, or *Epsom salt*, muriat of magnesia, and carbonat of magnesia, are the earthy salts which are most commonly found in waters. As to the calcareous nitrat, and nitrat of magnesia, which some chemists have asserted they have met with, these salts are scarcely ever found in mineral waters properly so called, though they exist in salt waters.

The aluminous neutral salts, and salts with base of barytes, are scarcely ever dissolved in waters. Alum or acid sulphat of alumine, appears to exist in some waters.

Pure hydrogen gas has not yet been found dissolved in mineral waters.

Pure sulphur has not yet been found in these fluids, though it exists very rarely in small quantities in the state of sulphure of soda. Sulphureous waters are most commonly mineralized by sulphurated hydrogen gas.

Lastly, Among metals, iron is most commonly dissolved in water; and may be found in two states; either combined with carbonic acid, or

with the sulphuric acid. Some chemists have supposed that it was likewise dissolved in its metallic state, without an acid intermedium; but as this metal scarcely ever exists in nature without being in the state of oxyd, combined with the carbonic or sulphuric acid, the opinion of these philosophers could only be maintained at the time when the carbonic acid was not yet discovered: and the solution of iron in water, without the assistance of the sulphuric acid, could not otherwise be accounted for. Bergman affirms, that iron, as well as manganese, is found in certain waters, combined with the muriatic acid.

Oxyd of arsenic, and the sulphats of copper and zinc, which exist in many waters, communicate poisonous properties to them, and show, when discovered by analysis, that the use of such waters must be carefully avoided.

Most chemists at present deny the existence of bitumen in waters: in fact, the bitter taste was the cause why waters were formerly supposed to contain this oily substance; but it is now known that this taste, which does not exist in bitumen, is produced by the calcareous muriat.

There is no difficulty in conceiving how water, which percolates through the interior parts of the globe, and especially through the mountains, may become charged with the different substances we have enumerated. It is likewise clear, that according to the nature and extent of the strata of earth, through which they pass, mineral waters will be more or less charged with these principles, and that the quantity and nature of these principles must be subject to great variations, especially when we consider the changes in the direction of their course to which these fluids are liable from the various alterations which the globe undergoes, particularly on its surface and its more elevated parts.

The different Classes of Mineral Waters.

It appears from what we have already observed respecting the different substances usually contained in mineral waters, that these fluids may be classed according to the earthy, saline, and metallic substances they hold in solution; and that the number of classes, on this principle, would be very considerable: but it must be observed, that none of these substances are found single and alone in waters; but, on the contrary, they are often dissolved, in the number of three, four, five, or even more. This circumstance creates a difficulty in the methodical classification of waters, relative to the principles that they contain. However, if we attend to those substances which are the most abundantly contained in waters, or whose properties are the most prevalent, we shall be able to make a distinction, which, though not very accurate, will be sufficient to arrange these fluids, and to form a judgment of their virtues. Chemists who have attended to mineral waters in general, have availed themselves of this method. Monnet has established three classes of mineral waters; the alkaline, the sulphureous, and the ferruginous; and subsequent discoveries have enlarged the number of classes. Duchanoy, who has published a valuable treatise on the art of imitating mineral waters, distinguishes ten, viz. the gaseous, the alkaline, the earthy, the ferruginous, the simple hot, the gaseous thermal, the saponaceous, the sulphureous, the bituminous, and the saline waters. Although it may be urged as a reproach, that this author has made his classes too numerous, since the pure gaseous and bituminous waters are unknown; yet his division is doubtless the most complete, and gives the most accurate idea of the nature of the different mineral waters, and consequently is the best suited to

his subject. We shall here propose a division less extensive, and in our opinion more methodical, than that of Duchanoy; at the same time observing, that we do not consider simple thermal waters as mineral waters, because they consist merely of heated water, according to the best chemists; and that we shall not speak of bituminous waters, because none such have been yet found.

It appears to us, that all mineral waters may be arranged in four classes, viz. acidulous, saline, sulphureous, and ferruginous waters.

CLASS I. *Acidulous Waters.*

Gaseous waters, which may with more propriety be called acidulous waters, are those in which the carbonic acid predominates; they are known by their sharp taste, and the facility with which they boil and afford bubbles by simple agitation: they redden the tincture of turnsole, precipitate lime water and alkaline sulphures. As no waters have yet been discovered which contain this acid pure and alone, we think this class may be divided into several orders, according to the other principles contained in them, or the modifications they exhibit. They all appear to contain more or less alkali and calcareous earth; but their different degrees of heat afford a good criterion for dividing them into two orders; the first might comprehend cold, acidulous, and alkaline waters, such as those of Seltzer, Saint-Myon, Bard, Langeac, Chateldon, Vals, &c. in the second might be placed, hot, or thermal, acidulous, and alkaline waters, as those of Mount D'Or, Vichy, Chatelguyon, &c.

CLASS II. *Saline or Salt Waters.*

By the name of saline waters, we understand such as contain a sufficient quantity of neutral salt to act strongly

on the animal economy, so as most commonly to purge. The theory and nature of these waters are easily discovered; they perfectly resemble the solutions of salt made in our laboratories; but they almost always contain two or three different species of salts. The sulphat of soda is very rare; sulphat of magnesia, or Epsom salt, marine salt, or muriat of soda, calcareous and magnesian muriats, or the saline principles which mineralize them, either together or separate. The waters of Sedlitz, of Seydschutz, and of Egra, abound with Epsom salt, frequently mixed with muriat of magnesia. Those of Balnearie contain muriat of soda, chalk, and the calcareous and magnesian muriats; those of Bourbonne, muriat of soda, sulphat of lime and chalk; and those of la Mothe contain muriat of soda, sulphat of lime, chalk, sulphat of magnesia, muriat of magnesia, and an extractive matter. It must be here observed, that salts, with base of magnesia, are much more common in waters than has hitherto been supposed; and that few analysis have yet been made in which they have been well distinguished from calcareous muriat.

CLASS III. *Sulphureous Waters.*

The name of sulphureous waters has been given to such mineral waters as appear to possess some of the properties of sulphur; such as the smell, and the property of discolouring silver. Chemists have long been ignorant of the true mineralizer of these waters; most have supposed it to be sulphur, but they never succeeded in exhibiting it, or at least have found it in quantities scarcely perceptible. Those who have made experiments on some of these waters have allowed them to contain either sulphureous spirit, or an alkaline sulphur. Vennel and Monnet are the first who op-

posed this opinion; the latter, in particular, nearly discovered the truth, when he considered sulphureous waters as impregnated merely by the vapour of *liver of sulphur*. Rouelle the younger likewise affirmed, that these fluids might be imitated by agitating water in contact with *air*, disengaged from an alkaline sulphure by an acid. Bergman carried this doctrine much farther, by examining the properties of sulphurated hydrogen gas, he has proved that this gas mineralizes sulphureous waters, which he therefore calls *hepatic waters*, and has directed methods of ascertaining the presence of sulphur. Notwithstanding these discoveries, Duchanoy, speaking of sulphureous waters, admits of sulphur, sometimes alkaline, sometimes calcareous, or aluminous. He follows the opinion of Le Roy of Montpellier, who proposed a sulphure with base of magnesia in imitating these waters. It appears in fact to be true, that there are waters which contain a small quantity of sulphur, while there are others which are mineralized only by sulphurated hydrogen gas. In this case it will be necessary to distinguish sulphureous waters into two orders: 1. Those which contain a small quantity of alkaline or calcareous sulphur; and, 2. Those which are only impregnated with sulphuric hydrogen gas. The waters of Baresges and Cauterets, and the Bonnes waters, appear to belong to this first order; and those of St. Amant, Aix la Chapelle, and Montmorency, appear to belong to the second. Most of these waters are thermal, but that of Montmorency is cold.

CLASS IV. *Ferruginous Waters.*

Iron being the most abundant of metals, and the most susceptible of alteration, it is not to be wondered

at that water easily becomes charged with it, and consequently that the ferruginous waters are the most abundant and most common of all mineral waters. Modern chemistry has thrown great light on this class of waters; they were formerly supposed to be all impregnated with sulphat of iron. Monnet has ascertained that most of them do not contain this salt, and he supposed that the iron is dissolved without the intermedium of an acid. It is at present known, that the iron is not in the state of sulphat, but is dissolved by means of the carbonic acid, and forms the salt which we have called carbonat of iron. Lane, Rouelle, Bergman, and many other chemists, have put this out of doubt. The greater or less quantity of carbonic acid, and the state of the iron in waters of this kind, render it necessary to distinguish the present class into three orders.

The first order comprehends martial acidulous waters, in which the iron is held in solution by the carbonic acid, whose superabundance renders them brisk and subacid. The waters of Bussang, Spa, Pyrmont, Pouhon, and La Dominique de Vals, are of this first order.

The second contains simple martial waters in which the iron is dissolved by the carbonic acid, without excess of the latter. These waters consequently are not acidulous. The water of Forges, Aumale, and Conde, as well as the greater number of ferruginous waters, are of this order; this distinction of ferruginous waters was made by Duchanoy.

But we add a third order, after Monnet, which is that of waters containing sulphat of iron. Though these are extremely rare, yet some of them are found. Monnet has placed the waters of Passy in this order. Opoix admits the sulphate of iron, even in a considerable quantity, in

the waters of Provins. It is true, that De Fourcy denies its existence, and considers the iron of these waters as dissolved by carbonic acid. But no decision can be made respecting this subject, because the results of these chemists entirely disagree, and require new experiments to be made. It must be added, that the iron is not found alone in these waters, but is mixed with chalk, sulphat of lime, various muriatic salts, &c. However, as the metal they contain is the principal basis of their properties, they must be called ferruginous, in conformity with the principles we have laid down.

As to the saponaceous waters admitted by Duchanoy, we must wait till chemical and medical experiments have ascertained the cause of their saponaceous property, which this physician attributes to aluminine; as well as of the effects they may produce in the animal economy, as medicines, by virtue of this property.

From these details we find, that all mineral and medicinal waters are divided into nine orders, viz.

Cold acidulous waters.

Hot or thermal acidulous waters.

Sulphuric saline waters.

Muriatic saline waters.

Simple sulphureous waters.

Sulphurated gaseous waters.

Simple ferruginous waters.

Ferruginous and acidulous waters.

Sulphuric ferruginous waters.

Examination of Mineral Waters, according to their Physical Properties.

After having shown the different matters which may be found in waters, and exhibited a slight sketch of the method in which they may be divided into classes and orders, according to their principles, it will be necessary to mention the methods of analysing them, and discovering with the greatest possible degree of accu-

racy, the substances they hold in solution. This analysis has been justly considered as the most difficult part of chemistry, since it requires a perfect knowledge of all chemical phenomena, joined to the habit of making experiments. To obtain an accurate knowledge of the nature of any water proposed to be examined, 1. The situation of the spring, and the nature of the soil, more especially with respect to mineral strata, must be carefully observed; for this purpose, cavities may be dug to different depths, in order to discover, by inspection, the substances with which the water may be charged. 2. The physical properties of the water itself, such as its taste, smell, colour, transparency, weight, and temperature, must next be examined; for this purpose, two thermometers, which perfectly agree, and a good hydrometer, must be provided. These preliminary experiments require likewise to be made in the different seasons, different times of the day, and especially in different states of the atmosphere; for a continuance of dry weather, or of abundant rain, has a singular influence on waters. These first trials usually show the class to which the water under examination may be referred, and direct the method of analysis. 3. The depositions formed at the bottom of the basins, the substances which float on the water, and the matters which rise by sublimation, form likewise an object of important research, which must not be neglected. After this preliminary examination, the proper analysis may be proceeded on, which is made after three methods, by reagents, by distillation, and by evaporation.

The examination of Mineral Waters, by Re-agents.

These substances, which are mixed with waters, in order to discover the

nature of the bodies held in solution by such waters, from the phenomena they present, are called re-agents.

The best chemists have always considered the use of re-agents as a very uncertain method of discovering the principles of mineral waters. This opinion is founded on the considerations that their effects do not determine in an accurate manner, the nature of the substances held in solutions in waters; that the cause of the changes which happen in fluids by their addition is often unknown: and that in fact, the saline matters usually applied in this analysis are capable of producing a great number of phenomena, respecting which it is often difficult to form any decision. For these reasons, most chemists who have undertaken this analysis, have placed little dependence on the application of re-agents. They have concluded, that evaporation affords a much surer method of ascertaining the nature and quantity of the principles of mineral waters; and it is taken for granted, in the best works on the analysis of these fluids, that re-agents are only to be used as secondary means, which at most serve to indicate or afford a probable guess of the nature of the principles contained in waters; and for this reason, modern analysts have admitted no more than a certain number of re-agents, and have greatly diminished the list of those used by the earlier chemists.

But it cannot be doubted at present, that the heat required to evaporate the water, however gentle it may be, must produce sensible alterations in its principles, and change them in such a manner, as that their residues, examined by the different methods of chemistry, shall afford compounds differing from those which were originally held in solution in the water. The loss of the gaseous substances, which frequently are the prin-

cipal agents in mineral waters, singularly changes their nature, and besides causing a precipitation of many substances, which owe their solubility to the presence of these volatile matters, likewise produces a re-action among the other fixed matters, whose properties are accordingly changed. The phenomena of double decompositions, which heat is capable of producing between compounds that remain unchanged in cold water, cannot be estimated and allowed for, but in consequence of a long series of experiments not yet made. Without entering, therefore, more fully into these considerations, it will be enough to observe, that this assertion, whose truth is admitted by every chemist, sufficiently shows, that evaporation is not entirely to be depended on. Hence it becomes a question, whether there be any method of ascertaining the peculiar nature of substances dissolved in water without having recourse to heat; and whether the accurate results of the numerous experiments of modern writers afford any process for correcting the error which might arise from evaporation. The following pages extracted from a memoir communicated by M. Fourcroy to the Royal Society of medicine, will shew, that very pure re-agents used in a peculiar manner, may be of much greater use in the analysis of mineral waters than has hitherto been thought.

Among the considerable number of re-agents proposed for the analysis of mineral waters, those which promise the most useful results are tincture of turnsole, syrup of violets, lime-water, pure and caustic potash, caustic ammoniac, concentrated sulphuric acid, nitrous acid, prussiat of lime, gallic alkohol, or *spirituous tincture of nut-galls*, the nitric solutions of mercury and of silver, paper coloured by the aqueous tincture of fernambouc, which becomes blue by

means of alkalis, the aqueous tincture of *terra merita*, which the same salts convert to a brown red, the oxalic acid to exhibit the smallest quantity of lime, and the muriat of barytes to ascertain the smallest possible quantity of sulphuric acid.

The effects and use of these principal re-agents have been explained by all chemists, but they have not insisted on the necessity of their state of purity. Before they are employed it is of the utmost importance perfectly to ascertain their nature, in order to avoid fallacious effects. Bergman has treated very amply of the alterations they are capable of producing. This celebrated chemist affirms, that paper coloured with the tincture of turnsole becomes of a deeper blue by alkalis; but that it is not altered by the carbonic acid. But as this colouring matter is useful chiefly to ascertain the presence of this acid, he directs its tincture in water to be used, sufficiently diluted, till it has a blue colour. He absolutely rejects syrup of violets, because it is subject to ferment, and because it is scarcely ever obtained without adulteration in Sweden. Morveau adds in a note, that it is easy to distinguish a syrup coloured by turnsole, by the application of corrosive sublimate, which gives it a red colour, while it converts the true syrup of violets to a green.

Lime-water is one of the most useful agents in the analysis of mineral waters, though few chemists have expressly mentioned it in their works. This fluid decomposes metallic salts, especially sulphat of iron, whose metallic oxyd it precipitates; it separates alumine and magnesia from the sulphuric and muriatic acids, to which these substances are frequently united in waters. It likewise indicates the presence of carbonic acid, by its precipitation. M. Gioanetti, physician of Turin, has very ingen-

iously applied it to ascertain the quantity of carbonic acid contained in the water of St. Vincent. This chemist, after having observed that the volume or bulk of this acid, from which its quantity has always been estimated, must vary, according to the temperature of the atmosphere, mixed nine parts of lime-water with two parts of the water of St. Vincent: he weighed the *calcareous earth* formed by the combination of the carbonic acid of the mineral water with lime, and found, according to the calculation of Jaquin, who proves the existence of thirteen ounces of this acid in thirty-two ounces of chalk, that the water of St. Vincent contained somewhat more than fifteen grains. But as the lime-water may seize the carbonic acid united with fixed alkali, as well as that which is at liberty, M. Gioanetti, to ascertain more exactly the quantity of this last, made the same experiment with water deprived of its disengaged acid by ebullition. This process may therefore be employed to determine, in an easy and accurate manner, the weight of disengaged carbonic acid, contained in a gaseous mineral water.

One of the principal reasons which have induced chemists to consider the action of re-agents in the analysis of mineral waters as very fallacious, is, that they are capable of indicating several different substances held in solution in waters, and that it is then very difficult to know exactly the effects they will produce. This observation relates more especially to potash, considered as a re-agent, because it decomposes all the salts which are formed by the union of acids with alumine, magnesia, lime, and metals. When this alkali precipitates a mineral water, it cannot, therefore, be known by simple inspection of the precipitate, of what nature the earthy salt decomposed in

the experiment may be. Its effect is still more uncertain, when the alkali made use of is saturated with carbonic acid, as is most commonly the case, since the acid to which it is united augments the confusion of effects: for this reason, the use of very pure caustic potash is proposed, which likewise possesses an advantage over the effervescent alkali, viz. that of indicating the presence of chalk dissolved in a gaseous water, by virtue of the superabundant carbonic acid: for it seizes this acid, and the chalk falls down of course. This fact by is established by pouring soap lees newly made, into an artificial gaseous water, which holds chalk in solution. The latter substance is precipitated in proportion as the caustic fixed alkali seizes the carbonic acid which held it in solution. By evaporating the filtrated water to dryness, carbonat of soda is obtained, strongly effervescent with acids. The caustic fixed alkali likewise occasions a precipitate in mineral waters, though they do not contain earthy salts; for if they contain an alkaline neutral salt, of a less soluble nature, the additional alkali will precipitate it by uniting with the water, nearly in the same manner as alcohol does. M. Gioanetti has observed this phenomenon in the waters of St. Vincent; and it may easily be seen by pouring caustic alkali into a solution of sulphat of potash, or muriat of soda; these two salts being quickly precipitated.

Caustic ammoniac is in general less productive of error when mixed with mineral waters; because it decomposes only salts, with base of alumine or magnesia, and does not precipitate the calcareous salts. It is necessary, however, to make two observations respecting this salt: the first is, that it must be exceedingly caustic, or totally deprived of carbonic acid; without this precaution,

it decomposes calcareous salts by double affinity: the second is, that the mixture must not be left exposed to air, when the effect of its action is required to be inspected several hours after it is added; because, as M. Gioanetti has well observed, this salt in a very short time seizes the carbonic acid of the atmosphere, and becomes capable of decomposing calcareous salts. To put this important fact out of doubt, Fourcroy made three decisive experiments; some grains of sulphat of lime, formed of transparent calcareous spar, because chalk, or Spanish white, contain magnesia and river water: he divided this solution into two parts; into the first he poured a few drops of very pure sulphuric acid, recently made, and very caustic; this he put into a well-closed bottle: at the end of twenty-four and forty-eight hours it was clear and transparent, without any precipitate, and therefore no decomposition had taken place. The second portion was treated in the same manner with ammoniac, but placed in a vessel which communicated with the air by a large aperture: at the end of a few hours a cloud was formed near the upper surface, which continually increased, and was at last precipitated to the bottom. This deposition effervesced strongly with sulphuric acid, and formed sulphat of lime. The carbonic acid contained in this precipitate was therefore afforded by the ammoniac which had attracted it from the atmosphere. This combination of carbonic acid and ammoniac forms ammoniacal carbonat, capable of decomposing calcareous salts by double affinity, as Black, Jacquin, and many other chemists have shown, and as may be easily proved by pouring a solution of ammoniacal carbonat into a solution of sulphat of lime, which is not rendered turbid by caustic ammoniac. Lastly, to render the theory of this

second experiment clearer, Fourcroy took the first portion to which the caustic ammoniac had been added, and which, having been kept in a close vessel, had lost no part of its transparency. He reversed the bottle which contained it, over the funnel of a very small pneumatological apparatus, and by the assistance of a syphon, passed into it carbonic acid gas, disengaged from the effervescent fixed alkali by sulphuric acid. In proportion as the bubbles of this acid passed through the mixture, it became turbid in the same manner as lime-water; by filtration a precipitate was separated, which was found to be chalk, and the water, by evaporation, afforded ammoniacal sulphat: gaseous water, or the liquid carbonic acid, produced the same composition in another mixture of sulphat of lime, and caustic ammoniac. This decisive experiment clearly shows, that ammoniac decomposes sulphat of lime by double affinity, and by means of the carbonic acid. Hence we see, that when it is required to preserve a mixture of the mineral water with ammoniac for several hours (which is sometimes necessary, because it does not decompose certain earthy salts, but very slowly), the experiment must be made in a vessel which can be accurately closed, in order to prevent the contact of air, which would falsify the result. This precaution, which is of great importance in the use of all re-agents, is likewise mentioned by Bergman and Gioanetti. To these may be added another observation concerning the use of ammoniac. As it is a matter of considerable difficulty to preserve ammoniac in the state of perfect causticity, though it is necessary to be had in such a state, for the analysis of mineral waters, a very simple expedient, which may be applied in this case. It is to pour a

small quantity of ammoniac into a retort, whose neck is plunged in the mineral water: when the retort is slightly heated, the ammoniacal gas becomes disengaged, and passes highly caustic into the water. If it occasions a precipitate, it may be concluded that the mineral water contains sulphat of iron, which may be known by the colour of the precipitate, or otherwise that it contains salts, with base of aluminous or magnesian earth. Generally this precipitate is formed by the chalk which was held in solution in the water, by means of the carbonic acid; ammoniac absorbs this acid, and the chalk is deposited. It is difficult to determine from the physical properties of the earthy precipitate formed in waters by caustic ammoniac, to which of the two last bases it is to be attributed; yet the manner in which it is formed may serve to decide. Six grains of sulphat of magnesia were dissolved in four ounces of distilled water, and six grains of alum in an equal quantity of the same fluid: through each of these solutions a small quantity of ammoniacal gas was passed: the first solution immediately became turbid, while the latter did not begin to exhibit a precipitate till twenty minutes after. These mixtures were carefully included in well closed bottles. The same phenomenon took place with the nitrats and muriats of magnesia and alumine, dissolved in equal quantities of distilled water, and treated in the same manner. The quickness or slowness of the precipitation of a mineral water, by the addition of ammoniacal gas, therefore affords the means of ascertaining the nature of the earthy salt decomposed by this gas. In general, salts, with base of magnesia, are much more usually met with than those with base of aluminous earth. Bergman has observed, that ammoniac is capable of forming with sulphat of magnesia

a compound, in which a portion of this neutral salt is combined, without decomposition, with a portion of ammoniacal sulphat. This non-decomposed portion of sulphat of magnesia may probably form, with the ammoniacal sulphat, a mixed neutral salt, similar to the ammoniaco-mercurial muriat, or *sal alembroth*. The ammoniac does not, therefore, precipitate the whole of the magnesia, and consequently does not accurately exhibit the quantity of *Epsom salt*, of which that earth is the base. For this reason lime water is preferable for ascertaining the nature and quantity of salts with base of magnesia contained in mineral waters. It has likewise the property of precipitating the salts with aluminous base much more abundantly and readily than ammoniacal gas.

The concentrated sulphuric acid precipitates a white powder from water which contains barytes, according to Bergman; but, as the same chemist observes, that this earth is seldom found in mineral waters, it will not be necessary to enlarge on the effects of this re-agent. When it produces an effervescence, or bubbles in water, it indicates the presence of chalk, carbonat of soda, or pure carbonic acid; each of these substances may be distinguished by certain peculiar phenomena. If water containing chalk be heated after the addition of sulphuric acid, a pellicle and deposition of sulphat of lime are soon formed, which does not happen with waters which are simply alkaline. At first consideration it may seem that the sulphat of lime ought to be precipitated as soon as the sulphuric acid is poured into water containing chalk; this, however, very seldom happens without the assistance of heat, because these waters most commonly contain a superabundance of carbonic acid which favours the solution of the sulphat

of lime, and of which it is necessary to deprive them before the salt can be precipitated. This fact may be shown in the clearest manner, by pouring a few drops of concentrated sulphuric acid into a certain quantity of lime-water which has been precipitated, and afterwards rendered clear by the addition of carbonic acid: if the lime-water be highly charged with regenerated calcareous earth, a precipitate of sulphat of lime is thrown down in a few minutes, or more slowly in proportion as the carbonic acid is set at liberty. If no precipitate be afforded by standing, as will be the case when the quantity of sulphat of lime is very small, and the superabundant carbonic acid considerable, the application of a slight degree of heat will cause a pellicle of calcareous sulphat, and a precipitate of the same nature to be formed.

The nitrous acid is recommended by Bergman to precipitate sulphur from *hepatized* waters. The experiment may be made by pouring a few drops of the brown and fuming acid on distilled water, in which the gas disengaged from caustic alkaline sulphure, heated in a retort, has been received. This artificial *hepatic* water, which does not considerably differ from natural sulphureous waters, except in the circumstance of its being more difficult to filter, and its always appearing somewhat turbid, affords a precipitate in a few seconds, by the addition of nitrous acid; the precipitate is of a yellowish white; when collected on a filter and dried, it burns with the flame and smell of sulphur, and in other respects has every character of that inflammable body. Nitrous acid seems to alter sulphurated hydrogen gas in the same manner as it does all other inflammable substances, by virtue of the great quantity of oxygen it contains. Scheele has recom-

mended the oxygenated muriatic acid to precipitate the sulphur from waters of this nature: only a very small quantity of it must be used, otherwise the sulphur will be burned and reduced to the state of sulphuric acid. Sulphureous acid precipitates the sulphur very readily from waters which contain it.

There are few re-agents whose mode of action is less known than that of the alkaline lixivium of blood, which has been called *phlogisticated alkali*; it has been long since ascertained, that this liquor contains Prussian blue, or prussiat of iron, ready formed; it has been thought that this blue might be separated by the addition of an acid; and in this state it has been proposed as a substance capable of exhibiting iron existing in mineral waters. Nothing can be more uncertain than the complete separation of prussiat of iron from this prussiat of potash made with blood. This lixivium ought therefore to be no longer used as a re-agent. Macquer having discovered that Prussian blue is decomposed by alkalis, proposed potash saturated with the colouring matter of this blue, as a test to ascertain the presence of iron in mineral waters. But as the liquor itself likewise contains a small quantity of Prussian blue, which may be separated by means of an acid, as Macquer has shown, Baumé advises that two or three ounces of distilled vinegar be added to each pound of this Prussian alkali, and digested in a gentle heat, till the whole of the Prussian blue is precipitated; after which pure fixed alkali is to be added to saturate the acid of vinegar. Notwithstanding this ingenious process, Fourcroy has observed, that the Prussian alkali, purified by vinegar, deposits Prussian blue in process of time, more especially by evaporation. M. Giannetta made the same observation by

evaporating the Prussian alkali, purified, by the method of Baume, to dryness: he has proposed two processes for obtaining this liquor in a state of purity, and totally exempt from iron; the one consists in supersaturating the Prussian alkali with distilled vinegar, evaporating it to dryness by a gentle heat, dissolving the remaining mass in distilled water, and filtrating the solution; all the Prussian blue remains on the filter, and the liquor which passes through contains none at all. The other process consists in neutralizing the alkali with a solution of alum, from which after filtrating, the sulphat of potash is separated by evaporation. These two liquors do not afford a particle of Prussian blue with the pure acids, nor by evaporation to dryness. The lime water, saturated with the colouring matter of Prussian blue, mentioned by us in treating on iron, does not require these preliminary operations: when poured on a solution of sulphat of iron, it immediately forms pure Prussian blue, without any mixture of green. Acids only precipitate a few particles of Prussian blue from this re-agent; it therefore does not contain iron, and consequently is preferable to the Prussian alkalis, in the assay of mineral waters. This phenomenon doubtless depends on the action of the lime, which, when dissolved in water, is far from having the same efficacy on iron as alkalis have. This prussiat of lime seems to be exceedingly well adapted to distinguish ferruginous waters, whether they be gaseous or sulphuric. In fact, the carbonic gas, which holds iron in solution in waters, being of an acid nature, decomposes Prussian lixivi-ums by the way of double affinity, as well as sulphat of iron. Fourcroy tried prussiat of lime on Spa waters, and those of Passy, and he immediately obtained a very percep-

tible blue in the former, and very abundant in the latter. This, therefore, is a liquor very easily prepared, which does not contain the smallest portion of Prussian blue, and is exceedingly well calculated to exhibit the presence of small quantities of iron in waters. It is a kind of neutral salt, formed by the prussic acid, or the colouring part of the blue and lime.

Nut-galls, as well as all other bitter and astringent vegetables, such as oak bark, the fruit of the cypress tree, the husks of nuts, &c. have the property of precipitating solutions of iron, and exhibiting that metal of different colours, according to its quantity, its state, and that of the water in which it is dissolved. This colour in general is of all shades, from a pale rose to the deepest black. It is well known that the purple colour assumed by waters, with the tincture of nut-galls, is not a proof that they contain iron in its metallic state, since the sulphat and carbonat of iron likewise assumes a purple colour by the infusion of nut-galls. The differences of colour observed in these precipitations, depend rather on the quantity of iron, its greater or less degree of adhesion to the water, and the more or less advanced state of decomposition of the solution, relatively to the quantity of oxygen contained in the iron. The astringent principle is known to be a peculiar acid, since it unites with alkalis, converts blue vegetable colours to a red, decomposes alkaline sulphures, and combines with metallic oxyds. Nut-galls in powder, the infusion of this substance in water, made without heat, and the tincture by alcohol, are used to ascertain the presence of iron in mineral waters. The tincture is preferred, because it is not subject to become mouldy as the aqueous solution is. The distilled products of nut-galls likewise co-

lour ferruginous solutions. The infusions in acids, alkalis, oils, and ether exhibit the same phenomenon. The iron precipitated by this matter from acids is in the state of gallat of iron, and forms a kind of neutral salt, which, though very black, is not attracted by the magnet. It dissolves slowly, and without sensible effervescence in acids, but loses these properties by the action of fire, and is then attracted by the magnet. The nut-gall is so efficacious a re-agent, that a single drop of its tincture colours, in the space of five minutes, with a purple tinge, three pints of water, which contains only the twenty-fifth part of a grain of sulphat of iron. All these phenomena proceed from the great facility with which the matter of nut-galls burns, and from its readily absorbing from the iron a portion of the oxygen it contains, passing by this means to the state of a black oxyd or Ethiops, the smallest quantity of which is very perceptible in transparent liquors.

The two last re-agents we shall propose for the examination of waters, are solutions of silver and of mercury in the nitric acid. These have usually been employed to exhibit the presence of the sulphuric, or muriatic acids in mineral waters; but many others substances, which do not contain the smallest portion of those, are likewise precipitated by these solutions. The white and heavy stræ which the nitrat of silver exhibits in water, that contains no more than half a grain of muriat of soda in the pint, ascertains the presence of the muriatic acid with great certainty and facility; but they do not in the same manner indicate the presence of the sulphuric acid, since, according to Bergman's estimate, at least thirty grains of sulphat of soda must exist in the pint of water, in order to produce an immediate sensible effect. To this we may add, that fixed a

kali, chalk, and magnesia, precipitate the nitric solution of silver in a much more evident manner, and consequently that the precipitation formed in a mineral water by this solution is insufficient to determine with precision, the saline or earthy substances from which it arose.

The solution of mercury by the nitric acid, is still more productive of error: it not only indicates the presence of the sulphuric and muriatic acids in waters, but it is likewise precipitated by the earthy and alkaline carbonats, in a yellowish powder, which might be mistaken for an effect of the sulphuric acid. It has been commonly supposed, that the very abundant white precipitate which it forms in water, is owing to the presence of a muriatic salt; yet mucilaginous and extractive substances exhibit the same phenomenon, as is now well known to all chemists. Besides, these sources of error and uncertainty, dependent on the property which several substances have, of producing similar precipitates with the nitric solution of mercury, there are likewise others which depend on the state of this solution itself, and which it is of the utmost consequence to know, in order to avoid very considerable errors in the analysis of waters. Bergman has mentioned some of the remarkable differences observed in this solution, according to the manner in which it is made, either with or without heat, more particularly with respect to the colour of the precipitates it affords by different intermediums; but he does not say a word concerning the property this solution possesses, of being precipitated by distilled water, when it is highly charged with the oxyd of mercury; though Monnet mentions this fact in his treatise on the dissolution of metals. As this subject is of great importance in the analysis of

waters, Fourcroy endeavoured by a very minute investigation to arrive at some degree of certainty concerning it, and has succeeded, as shall presently appear by very simple means. He has made a great number of solutions of mercury, in very pure nitric acid, with different doses of these two substances, with heat and in the cold, and with acids of very different strengths. These experiments have afforded the following results.

1. Solutions made in the cold, became charged more or less readily with different quantities of mercury, according to the degree of concentration of the nitric acid; but whatever the quantity of mercury dissolved in the cold by the concentrated acid may be, no part of it will be precipitated by mere water. He dissolved in the cold two drachms and a half of mercury, in two drachms of nitrous acid red and fuming, weighing one ounce four drachms and five grains, in a bottle which contained an ounce of distilled water: the combination took place with the utmost rapidity; very dense nitrous gas escaped, together with aqueous vapours, dissipated by the heat of the mixture, amounting to more than one fourth of the acid. This solution was of a deep green, and very transparent: he poured a few drops, into half an ounce of distilled water: some white strizæ were formed, which were dissolved by agitation, and afforded no precipitate, though it was the most saturated solution he could make in the cold, and presented the greatest degree of commotion, effervescence, and red vapours, during the combination of the mercury and acids. As it had deposited crystals, he added two drachms of distilled water, which dissolved the whole without any appearance of precipitation. With much greater safety, therefore, may

such solutions as have been made in the cold with common nitric acid, and half their weight of mercury, be used in the analysis of mineral waters, for they will never afford a precipitate by the addition of mere water.

2. The weakest nitric acid strongly heated on mercury, will dissolve a larger quantity than the strongest acid in the cold. The solution, which is of a light yellow colour, will appear thick and oily, and will afford by standing, an irregular yellowish mass, which may be changed into a beautiful *turbith* by the addition of boiling water; this solution poured into distilled water, forms a very abundant precipitate of a yellow colour, similar to *turbith*. A solution made in the cold exhibits the same result, if it be strongly heated, so as to disengage a large quantity of nitrous gas. These solutions made with heat, ought therefore to be excluded from the analysis of mineral waters, because they are decomposable by distilled water.

3. The two solutions appear to differ from each other in the quantity of oxyde of mercury, which is much greater in that which is precipitated by the water, than in that which is not decomposable by that fluid. M. Fourcroy has proved this, by evaporating equal quantities of both these solutions in an apothecary's phial, to reduce them into red precipitate, and he obtained one fourth more of this precipitate from the solution which is decomposed by water, than from that which is not rendered turbid. The specific gravity likewise appeared to me to be a good method of ascertaining the relative quantities of oxyd of mercury contained in these different fluids. He compared weights of equal masses of three mercurial nitrous solutions: the one, which was not at all precipitated by distilled

water, and was the result of the first mentioned experiment, weighed one ounce, one drachm, and sixty-seven grains, in a bottle which contained exactly an ounce of distilled water. The second solution was made by a very gentle heat, and produced a slight opal colour with distilled water, and scarcely any sensible quantity of precipitate. The same bottle contained one ounce six drachms twenty-four grains. Lastly a third mercurial solution considerably heated, and which precipitated a true *turbith mineral* of a dirty yellow, by distilled water, weighed in the same bottle, one ounce seven drachms twenty-five grains. A decisive experiment remained to be made to confirm this opinion still more perfectly. If the solution precipitated by water, owed this property to a quantity of mercurial oxyd too large with respect to the acid, it would of course lose that property by the addition of acid; this accordingly happened. *Aqua fortis* was poured on a solution which was decomposed by water, and it soon acquired the property of no longer being precipitated, and was absolutely in the same state as that which had been made slowly at first, by the mere heat of the atmosphere. Monnet has mentioned this process, as a means of preventing crystals of mercurial nitrat from becoming converted into oxyd by the contact of the air. It is by a contrary process, and by evaporating a portion of the acid of a good solution which is not precipitated by water that it is converted into a solution much more strongly charged with mercurial oxyd, and consequently capable of being decomposed by water; its original property may be restored by the addition of a quantity of acid, equal to that which is lost by evaporation.

Such are the different considerations

M. Fourcroy has thought necessary to exhibit, that the effects of re-agents on waters may be better ascertained; but whatever may be the degree of precision to which researches of this nature may be carried; however extensive the knowledge we may have acquired concerning the degrees of purity, and the different states of such substances as are combined with mineral waters, for the purpose of discovering their principles, if it still remains a fact, that each of these re-agents is capable of indicating two or three different substances dissolved in these waters, the result of their action will always be subject to uncertainty. Lime, for example, neutralizes the carbonic acid, and precipitates salts with the base of alumine, and of magnesia, as well as the metallic salts. Ammoniac produces the same effect. Fixed alkalis, besides the above mentioned salts, precipitate those with base of lime. The calcareous prussiat, the prussiat of potash, and gallic alkohol, precipitate the sulphat and carbonat of iron. The nitric solutions of silver and of mercury, decompose all the sulphuric and muriatic salts, which may be various both in quantity and in kind, in the same water, and are themselves decomposable by alkalis, alkali, and magnesia. Among this great number of complicated effects, how shall we distinguish that which takes place in the water under examination, or by what means shall we ascertain whether it is simple or compounded?

These questions, though very difficult, for the time when the experiments of chemistry were little known, are nevertheless capable of being discussed in the present state of our knowledge. It must first be observed, that the nature of re-agents being much better known at present than was some years ago, and their relation on the principles of water

better ascertained, it may, therefore, be strongly presumed that their application may be much more advantageously made than has hitherto been supposed: nevertheless, among the great number of excellent chemists who have attended to the analysis of waters, Messrs. Baumé, Bergman, and Gioanetti, are almost the only persons who have been aware of this great advantage. We have been long in the habit of examining mineral waters by re-agents, in very small doses, and often in glasses; the phenomena of the precipitations observed have been noted down, and the experiment carried no further. Baumé advises, in his chemistry, that a considerable quantity of the mineral water under examination, should be saturated with fixed alkalis and with acids, that the precipitates be collected, and their nature examined. Bergman apprehended that the quantity of the principles contained in waters might be judged of from the weight of the precipitates obtained in these mixtures. Several other chemists have likewise employed this method, but always with a view to certain particular circumstances; and no one has hitherto proposed to make a connected analysis of mineral waters by this means. To succeed in this analysis, it would be proper to mix several pounds of the mineral water with each re-agent, till the latter ceases to produce any precipitate: the precipitate should then be suffered to subside during the time of twenty-four hours, in a vessel accurately closed; after which the mixture being filtered, and the precipitate dried and weighed, the operator may proceed to examine it by the known methods. In this manner the nature of the substance will be clearly ascertained, on which the re-agent has acted, and the cause of the decomposition may consequently be inferred. A certain order may be fol-

lowed in these operations, by mixing the waters first with such substances as stand least capable of altering them, and afterwards passing to other substances capable of producing changes more varied and difficult to explain. The following method is that which Fourcroy commonly uses in this kind of analysis. After having examined the taste, the colour, the weight, and all the other physical properties of a mineral water, he pours four pounds of lime water on an equal quantity of the fluid; if no precipitate is made in twenty-four hours, he is sure that the water contains neither disengaged carbonic acid nor alkaline carbonat, nor earthy salts with the base of aluminous earth or magnesia, nor metallic salts. But if a precipitate be formed, he filters the mixture, and examines the chemical properties of the deposited substance; if it has no taste, if it be insoluble in water, or effervesces with acids, or forms an insipid and almost insoluble salt by the addition of sulphuric acid, he concludes that it is chalk, and that the lime water has acted only on the carbonic acid dissolved in the water. If, on the contrary, it is small in quantity, and subsides very slowly; if it do not effervesce, and affords with the sulphuric acid a styptic salt, or a bitter and very soluble salt, it is formed by magnesia or aluminous earth, and often by both.

After the examination by lime water, Fourcroy pours on four other pounds of the same mineral water, a drachm or two of ammoniac perfectly caustic, or causes ammoniacal gas, disengaged by heat from the alkali, to pass into the water. When the water is saturated, it is left at rest in a close vessel for twenty-four hours; if a precipitate be afforded, it can only consist of ferruginous or magnesian, or aluminous salts, whose nature is examined by the different methods mentioned in the foregoing

paragraph. But the action of ammoniacal gas being more fallacious than that of lime water, which produces the same decompositions, it must be observed that this last should only be used as an assistant means, which does not afford results equally accurate with those produced by the former re-agent.

When salts with base of aluminous earth, or magnesia, have been discovered by lime water, or by ammoniacal gas, the caustic fixed alkali may be used, to distinguish those with base of lime, such as sulphat and muriat of lime. For this purpose Fourcroy precipitates some pounds of the water, which is examined by either of these liquid alkalis, till it no longer produces any turbidness. As this alkali decomposes salts with base of aluminous earth, as well as those composed of lime; if the precipitate resembles in its form, colour, and quantity, that which lime water has afforded, it may be presumed that the water does not contain calcareous salt, and the chemical examination of the precipitate usually confirms this suspicion: but if the mixture is much more turbid than that made with lime water; if the deposit is much heavier, more abundant, and more readily afforded, the lime is mixed with magnesia or aluminous earth. This is ascertained by treating the precipitate after the different methods before explained. It may easily be concluded, that iron precipitated by re-agents, at the same time as salino-terrestrial substances, is known by its colour and its taste, and that the small quantity of metal separated in these processes is not sufficient to affect the result.

It were useless to explain at length the effects of sulphuric acid, nitric acid, gall-nuts, or of the calcareous and alkaline prussiates, employed as re-agents on mineral waters. We give a general account of these effects with

has already been given may suffice; it need therefore only be noticed, that when they are mixed in large doses with these waters, and the precipitates collected, the nature and quantity of their principles may be more accurately ascertained, as has been done by Messrs. Bergman and Gioanetti. The products which the nitric solutions of silver or mercury afford when mixed with mineral waters, deserve particular attention. It is more particularly necessary to operate with large quantities of water, when these re-agents are used, in order to determine the nature of the acids contained in the waters. The analysis of these fluids will be complete when their acids are known, because these are often combined with the bases exhibited by the re-agents before-mentioned. The colour, the form, and the abundance of the precipitates afforded by the nitric solutions of mercury and silver, have hitherto exhibited to chemists the nature of the acids which caused them. A thick and ponderous deposition immediately formed by these solutions, denotes the muriatic acid: if it is small in quantity, white, and crystallized with the nitrat of silver, or yellowish, and yellow and irregular when formed with that of mercury, and if it subside but slowly, it is attributed to the sulphuric acid. But as these two acids are often met with in the same water, and as alkali and chalk likewise decompose the solutions, the results or deductions made from the physical properties of the precipitates must be uncertain. It is therefore necessary to examine them more effectually: for this purpose, solutions of silver or of mercury may be mixed with five or six pounds of the water intended to be analysed. The mixtures being filtered, twenty-four hours after the precipitates must be dried, and treated according to the methods of chemistry. If the precipi-

itate afforded by the nitric solution of mercury be heated in a retort, the portion of metal united with the muriatic acid of the waters will be volatilized into *mercurius dulcis*, and that which is combined with the sulphuric acid will remain at the bottom of the vessel, and exhibit a reddish colour. These two salts may likewise be distinguished by putting them on a hot coal; the sulphat of mercury, if present, emits a sulphureous acid, and assumes a red colour; the mercurial muriat remains white, and is volatilized without exhibiting any smell of sulphur. These phenomena likewise serve to distinguish the precipitates which may be formed by the alkaline substances contained in water, since the latter do not emit the sulphureous smell, and are not volatile without decomposition.

The precipitates produced by the combination of mineral waters with the nitric solution of silver, may be as easily examined as the foregoing. Sulphat of silver being more soluble than the muriat of the same metal, distilled water may be successfully used to separate these salts. Muriat of silver is known by its fixity, its fusibility, and especially in its being less easily decomposed than sulphat of silver. This last, placed on hot coals, emits a sulphureous smell, and leaves an oxyd of silver, which may be fused without addition.

The Examination of the Mineral Waters by Distillation.

Distillation is used in the analysis of waters, to ascertain the gaseous substances they may be united to. These substances are either air, more or less pure, or carbonic acid, or sulphurated hydrogen gas. To ascertain their nature and quantity, some pounds of the mineral water must be poured into a retort, sufficiently large to contain it, without being filled more

than half or two-thirds of its capacity; to this vessel a recurved tube is to be adapted, which passes beneath an inverted vessel filled with mercury. In this disposition of the apparatus, the retort must be heated till the water perfectly boils, or till no more elastic fluid passes over. When the operation is finished, the quantity of air contained in the empty space of the retort must be subtracted from the bulk of the gas obtained; the rest consists of aeriform fluid, which was contained in the mineral water, whose properties may quickly be known by the proofs of a lighted taper, tincture of turnsole, and lime water; if it catches fire, and has a fœtid smell, it is sulphurated hydrogen gas; if it extinguishes the taper, reddens turnsole, and precipitates lime water, it is the carbonic acid; lastly, if it maintains combustion without taking fire, is without smell, and alters neither turnsole nor lime water, it is atmospheric air. It may happen that this fluid may be purer than the air of the atmosphere: in this case its degrees of purity may be judged by the manner in which it maintains combustion, or by mixing it with nitrous or hydrogen gas, in the eudiometers of Fontana and Volta. The process used in obtaining gaseous matters contained in waters is entirely modern. A moistened bladder was formerly used, which was adapted to the neck of a bottle filled with mineral water: the fluid was agitated; and by the swelling of the bladder, an estimate was made of the quantity of gas contained in the water. This method is now known to be fallacious, because water cannot give out all its gas but by ebullition, and because the sides of the moistened bladder alter and decompose the elastic fluid obtained. It is scarcely necessary to remark, that the phenomena exhibited by the water, during the escape of the gas, must be

carefully examined, and that a less quantity of water may be exposed to distillation, in proportion as its taste and sparkling indicate that it contains a larger quantity of gas.

Such is the method recommended by modern chemists to obtain the elastic fluids combined with waters: it must be observed, 1. That this process cannot be depended on, with regard to acidulous waters, unless the pressure of the atmosphere, and the state of compression of the elastic fluid under the glass vessels, be more accurately accounted for: and as this is not easily done, the absorption of carbonic acid by lime water, proposed by Gioanetti, appears to be preferable. 2. Though it has been recommended by Bergman to obtain sulphurated hydrogen gas from sulphureous waters, it does not answer, because the heat of ebullition decomposes the gas, and it is likewise decomposed by the mercury, which is converted into ethiops, as soon as it comes in contact with this elastic fluid: for this reason, litharge should be used to absorb this gas in the cold, and to deprive sulphureous waters of their sulphur.

The Examination of Mineral Waters by Evaporation.

Evaporation is generally considered as the most certain method of obtaining all the principles of mineral waters. We have before observed, and here repeat, that the experiments of Venel and Cornette show, that long continued ebullition may decompose saline matters dissolved in water, and for that reason we have advised the examination of them by re-agents employed in greater proportions; yet evaporation may afford much information, when used, together with the analysis by re-agents, which ought always to be considered as one of the principal methods of examining waters.

The intention of evaporation being to collect the fixed principles contained in a mineral water, it is obvious, that in order to know the nature and proportion of these principles, a considerable quantity of the water must be evaporated, and so much the more, in proportion as the principles appear to exist in smaller quantities. When the water is thought to contain a large quantity of saline matter, about twenty pounds must be evaporated: if, on the contrary, it appears to hold but a very small quantity in solution, it will be necessary to evaporate a much larger quantity. It is sometimes requisite to perform this operation with several hundred pounds. The nature and form of the vessels in which waters are exposed for evaporation, is not a matter of indifference: those of metal, excepting silver, are altered by water; vessels of glass, of a certain magnitude, are very subject to be broken; but those of glazed smooth pottery are the most convenient, though the cracks in the glaze sometimes cause an absorption of saline matter; vessels of unglazed porcelain, called biscuit, would doubtless be the most convenient, but their price is a considerable obstacle. Chemists have proposed different methods of evaporating mineral waters; some have directed distillation to dryness, in close vessels, in order to prevent foreign substances, which float in the atmosphere, from mixing with the residue; but this method is excessively tedious: others have advised evaporation by a gentle heat, never carried to ebullition, because they supposed that this last heat alters the fixed principles, and carries up a portion of them. This was the opinion of Venel and Bergman. Monnet, on the contrary, directs the water to be boiled, because this motion prevents the reception of foreign matters contained in the atmosphere. Bergman avoids this inconvenience,

by directing the vessel to be covered, and a hole left in the middle of the cover for the vapours to pass out: this last method greatly retards the evaporation, because it diminishes the surface of the fluid. At the commencement, the heat used must be sufficient to repel the dust; but the greatest difference in the manipulation of this experiment consists in some writers directing that the substances deposited should be separated, as the evaporation proceeds, in order to obtain each pure and by itself; others, on the contrary, direct the operation to be carried on to dryness. We are of the opinion of Bergman, that this last method is the most expeditious and certain; because, notwithstanding the care which may be taken, in the first method, to separate the different substances which are deposited or crystallized, they are never obtained pure, and must always be examined by a subsequent analysis; and the method is besides inaccurate, on account of the frequent filtrations, and the loss it occasions. Lastly, it is very embarrassing, and renders the evaporation much longer. Mineral waters may therefore be evaporated to dryness, in open glass vessels, on the water-bath, or still more advantageously in glass retorts, on a sand-bath.

Various phenomena are observed during this operation; if the water be acidulous, it emits bubbles, as soon as the heat first begins to act; in proportion as the carbonic acid is disengaged, a pellicle is formed, with a deposition of calcareous earth, and carbonat of iron. These first pellicles are succeeded by the crystallization of sulphat of lime; and lastly, the muriats of potash and soda crystallize in tubes at the surface, but the deliquescent are not obtained but by evaporation to dryness.

The residue must then be weighed, and put into a small phial, with three

or four times its weight of alkohol: the whole being agitated, and suffered to subside for some hours, must be filtrated, and the alkohol preserved separate. The residue, on which the spirit has not acted, must be dried in a gentle heat, or in the open air; when perfectly dry it must be weighed, and the loss of weight will show what quantity of calcareous or magnesian muriat was contained, because these salts are very soluble in alkohol. We shall presently speak of the method of ascertaining the presence of these two salts in the spirituous fluid.

The residue, after treatment with alkohol, and drying, must be agitated with eight times its weight of cold distilled water, and filtered. After some hours standing, the residue is to be dried a second time, and boiled half an hour in four or five hundred times its weight of distilled water; this last residue, after filtration, consists of that which cold or boiling water is insufficient to dissolve. The first water contains neutral salts, such as sulphat of soda, or of magnesia; the muriat of soda, or potash and the fixed alkalis, especially soda united with carbonic acid: the large quantity of boiling water scarcely contains any substance but sulphat of lime. There are therefore four substances to be examined, after these different operations on the matter obtained by evaporation. 1. The residue insoluble in alkohol, and in water of different temperatures. 2. The salts dissolved in alkohol. 3. The salts dissolved in cold water. 4, and lastly, Those dissolved in boiling water. We shall now proceed to the experiments necessary to ascertain the nature of these different substances.

1. The residue which has resisted the action of the alkohol and water, may be composed of calcareous earth, of carbonat of magnesia and iron, of alumine, and of quartz. These two

last substances are seldom found in waters, but the three first are very common; the brown, or more or less deep yellow colour, indicates the presence of iron. If the residue be of a white grey, it does not contain this metal. When iron is present, Bergman directs it to be moistened, and exposed to the air till it rusts; in which state vinegar does not act on it. In order to explain the methods of separating these different substances, we will suppose an insoluble residue to consist of the five substances here mentioned; it must first be moistened, and exposed to the rays of the sun; and when the iron is perfectly rusted, the residue must be digested in distilled vinegar. This acid dissolves the lime and magnesia, and by evaporation affords the calcareous acetit, distinguishable from the acetit of magnesia, by its not attracting the humidity of the air. They may consequently be separated by deliquescence, or by pouring sulphuric acid into their solution. The latter forms sulphat of lime, which precipitates; but if the magnesian acetit be present, the sulphat of magnesia, composed of magnesia united with the sulphuric acid, will remain in solution, and may be contained by a well conducted evaporation. To ascertain the quantity of magnesia and calcareous earths contained in this residue, sulphat of lime is first to be precipitated: and the sulphat of magnesia, formed by the sulphuric acid poured into the acetous solution, must then be precipitated by carbonat of potash. The quantities of these precipitates are known by weighing. When the chalk and magnesia of the residue are thus separated, the iron, the alumine, and the quartz remain. The iron and the alumine are dissolved by pure muriatic acid, from which the former is precipitated from prussiat of lime, and the latter by carbonat of potash. These pre-

precipitates must likewise be weighed. The matter which remains after the separation of the alumine and iron is usually quartose; its quantity may be known by weighing, and its habits by fusion of the blow-pipe with carbonat of soda. Such are the most accurate processes, recommended by Bergman, for examining the insoluble residue of waters.

2. The alcohol used in washing the solid residue of mineral waters, must be evaporated to dryness. Bergman advises treating it with sulphuric acid diluted with water in the same manner as the acetous solution before spoken of; but it must be observed, that this process serves only to exhibit the bases of these salts. To determine the acid, which is ordinarily united with magnesia or lime, and sometimes with both, a few drops of concentrated sulphuric acid must be poured on, which excites an effervescence, and disengages the muriatic gas, known by its smell and white vapour, when the salt under examination contains that acid. This may likewise be known by dissolving the whole residue in water, and adding a few drops of the nitric solution of silver. The nature of the base, which, as we have observed, is either lime, magnesia, or both together, is known by the name of the sulphuric acid, by a similar process with that already explained respecting the acetous solution.

3. The water used in washing the first residue of the mineral water, performed, as before directed, with eight times its weight of cold distilled water, contains neutral alkaline salts, such as sulphat of soda, muriats, or marine salts, carbonat of potash, and of soda, and sulphat of magnesia: a small quantity of sulphat of iron is sometimes found. These salts never exist altogether in waters: the sulphat of soda, and the carbonat of potash, are very seldom found; but

marine salt is frequently met with, together with carbonat of soda. The sulphat of magnesia is likewise frequently met with, and some waters even contain it in considerable quantities. When the first washing of the residue of a mineral water contains only one kind of neutral salt, it may easily be obtained by crystallization, and its nature ascertained from its form, taste, and the action of fire, as well as that of the re-agents: but this case is very rare, for it is much more usual to find many salts united in this lixivium. They must therefore be separated, if practicable, by slow evaporation; but as this method does not always perfectly succeed, however carefully this evaporation be conducted, it will be necessary to re-examine the salts obtained at the different periods of the evaporation. Carbonat of soda is usually deposited confusedly with the muriatic salts, but they may be separated by a process, pointed out by M. Gioanetti. It consists in washing this mixed salt with distilled vinegar; for this acid dissolves the carbonat of soda. The mixture must then be dried and washed a second time with alcohol, which takes up the acetit of soda, without acting on marine salt. The spirituous solution being evaporated to dryness, and the residue calcined, the vinegar becomes decomposed and burns. Soda alone remains, whose quantity may be then accurately determined.

4. The water used in the quantity of four or five hundred times the weight of the residuum of the mineral water contains only sulphat of lime. This may be ascertained by pure caustic ammoniac, which occasions no change, while caustic potash precipitates it abundantly. By evaporation to dryness, the quantity of earthy salt contained in the water may be accurately ascertained.

Concerning Artificial Mineral Waters.

The numerous processes we have prescribed for examining the residues of mineral waters by evaporation, serve to ascertain, with the greatest precision, all the several matters held in solution in these fluids. Another process remains to be made to prove the success of the analysis, viz. That of imitating nature in the way of synthesis, by dissolving in pure water the different substances obtained by the analysis of mineral water which has been examined. If the artificial mineral water has the same taste, the same weight, and exhibits the same phenomena with re-agents as the natural mineral water, it is the most complete, and the most certain proof that the analysis has been well made. This artificial combination has likewise the advantage of being procured in all places at pleasure, and at a trifling expence; and is even in some cases superior to the natural mineral waters, for their whole properties may be changed by carriage, and other circumstances. The most celebrated chemists are of opinion, that it is possible to imitate mineral waters. Macquer has observed, that since the discovery of the carbonic acid, and the property it is found to possess of rendering many substances soluble in water, it is much more easy to prepare artificial mineral waters. Bergman has described the method of composing waters which perfectly imitate that of Spa, Sheltzer, Pyrmont, &c. He likewise informs us, that they are used with great success in Sweden, and that he himself has experienced their good effects. Duchanoy has published a work, in which he

has given a number of processes for imitating all the mineral waters usually employed in medicine. We may therefore hope, that chemistry may render the most essential service to the art of healing, by affording valuable medicines, whose activity may be increased or diminished at pleasure.

In order to present the reader, under one point of view; with the most conspicuous features in the composition of the mineral waters of this and some other countries, the following synoptical table is subjoined, from Dr. Saunders' work on mineral waters.

The reader will please to observe, that under the head of *Neutral Purging Salts*, are included the sulphats of soda and magnesia, and the muriats of lime, soda, and magnesia. The power which the earthy muriats may possess of acting on the intestinal canal, is not quite ascertained, but from their great solubility, and from analogy with salts, with similar component parts, we may, conclude that this forms a principal part of their operation.

The reader will likewise observe, that where the spaces are left blank, it signifies that we are ignorant whether any of the substance at the head of the column is contained in the water; that the word *none* implies a certainty of the absence of that substance; and the term *uncertain*, means that the substance is contained, but that the quantity is not known.

For the several mineral waters, consult their respective heads, as *Malvern, Moffat, Spa Water, &c.*

CLASS.	NAME.	Highest temperature, Fahrenheit.	Contained in an English wine pint of 28.875 cubic inches.						
			Azotic gas, cubic inches.	Carbonic acid, gas, cubic inches.	Sulphurated hydrogen, cubic inches.	Carbonated food, grains.	Neutral purging salts, grains.	Selenite & car- thy carbonates, grains.	Oxyd of Iron, grains.
Simpler cold	Malvern			uncertain	none	none	uncertain	uncertain	none
	Holywell				none	none	uncertain	uncertain	none
Simpler thermal	Bristol	74°	uncertain	3.75	none	none	2.81	3.16	none
	Matlock	66°		uncertain	none	none	uncertain	uncertain	none
Simple saline	Buxton	82°	0.474	uncertain	none	none	0.25	1.625	none
	Sedlitz			1.	none	none	185.6	8.68	none
Highly carbonated alkaline	Epfom				none	none	40.?	8?	none
	Sea				none	none	237.5	6.	none
Simple carbonated chalybeate	Seltzer			17.	none	4.	17.5	8.	none
	Tunbridge		0.675	1.325	none	none	0.344	0.156	0.125
Hot carbonated chalybeate	Bath	116°	1.?	1.?	none	none	10.?	10.?	uncertain
	Spa			12.79	none	1.47	4.632	1.47	0.56
Saline, carbonated chalybeate	Pyrmont			26.	none	none	7.13	23.075	0.56
	Cheltenham		uncertain	5.687	uncertain	none	62.125	6.85	0.625
Hot, saline, highly carbonated chaly- beate	Scarborough			uncertain	none	none	20.	10.	uncertain
	Vichy	120°?		uncertain	none	uncertain		uncertain	uncertain
Vitriolated chalybeate	Carlsbad	165°		uncertain	none	11.76	47.04	4.15	uncertain
	Hartfell				none	none	none	none	4.815*
Cold sulphureous	Harrogate		0.875	1.	2.375	none	91.25	3.	none
	Moffat		0.5	0.625	1.25	none	4.5	none	none
Hot, alkaline, sulphureous	Aix	143°		uncertain	uncertain	12.	5.	4.75	none
	Borset	132°		uncertain	uncertain	uncertain	uncertain	uncertain	none
	Berege	120°			uncertain	2.5	0.5	uncertain	none

* That is, 2.94 contained in the sulphat of iron, (this salt when crystallized containing 28 per cent. of oxyd of iron, according to Kirwan) and 1.875 additional of oxyd of iron.

MINIUM, (*Minium, i, n.*). Red lead. See *Lead*.

MINT, COMMON. See *Mentha sativa*.

MINT, WATER. See *Mentha aquatica*.

MISLAW. See *Musa paradisiaca*.

MISPICKLE. A white, brilliant, granulated iron ore, composed of iron in combination with arsenic.

MISSLETOE. See *Viscum*.

MISTŪRA, (*Mislura, a, f.*). A mixture. It is mostly contracted thus, *misl.* e. g. — *f. mist.* which means, let it be made into a mixture.

MISTŪRA CAMPHORĀTA. A very elegant preparation of camphire, for delicate stomachs, and those who cannot bear it in substance, as an antispasmodic and nervine. There is a great loss of camphire in making it as directed by the pharmacopœia. Water can only take up a certain quantity.

MISTŪRA CRETACĒA. A very useful and pleasant form of administering chalk as an astringent and antacid. It is particularly calculated for children, in whom it allays the many deranged actions of the primæ viæ, which are produced by acidities.

MISTŪRA MOSHĀTA. A diaphoretic and antispasmodic musk julep. It is by far the best way of administering musk, when boluses cannot be swallowed.

MITHRIDATE MUSTARD. See *Thlaspi campestre*.

MITRAL VALVES. *Valvulae mitrales*. The valves of the left ventricle of the heart are so called from their resemblance to a mitre.

MIXTURE. Chemical mixture should be distinguished from the chemical solution; in the former, the aggregate particles can again be separated by mechanical means, and the proportion of the different particles determined, but, in solution,

no mechanical power whatsoever can separate them.

MODIÖLUS, (*Modiolus, i, m. dim.* of *modius*, a measure). The nucleus, as it were, of the cochlea of the ear is so termed. It ascends from the basis of the cochlea to the apex.

MOFFAT WATER. A cold sulphureous water, of a very simple composition. It is exhibited in cutaneous eruptions of every kind, scrophula, ill-conditioned and irritable sores, and in bilious and calculous complaints.

MOLĀRIS, (from *molaris*, a grindstone, because they grind the food), A double tooth. See *Teeth*.

MOLAR GLANDS. *Glandulae molares*. Two salival glands situated on each side of the mouth, between the masseter and buccinator muscles, and whose excretory ducts open near the last dens molaris.

MOLDAVICA. *Melissa turcica*. Turkey balsam. Canary balsam. Balsam of Gilead. This plant, *Dracocephalum moldavica*; *floribus verticillatis, bracteis lanceolatis, serraturis capillaleis* of Linnæus, affords a fragrant essential oil by distillation, known in Germany by the name of *oleum syria*. The whole herb abounds with an aromatic smell, and an agreeable taste joined with an aromatic flavour; it is recommended to give tone to the stomach and nervous system.

MOLES, (*Mola, a, f.*). By this term authors have intended to describe very different productions of, or excretions from the uterus.

By some it has been used to signify every kind of fleshy substance, particularly those which are properly called polypi; by others, those only which are the consequence of imperfect conception, or when the ovum is in morbid or decayed state; and by many, which is the most popular opinion, every coagulum of blood which continues long enough in the uterus to assume in form, and to have on

the fibrous part, as it has been called, remaining, is denominated a mole.

There is surely much impropriety, says Dr. Denman, in including under one general name appearances so contrary, and substances so different.

For an account of the first kind, see *Polypus*.

Of the second kind, which has been defined as an *ovum deforme*, as it is the consequence of conception, it might more justly be arranged under the class of monstrosities; for though it has the appearance of a shapeless mass of flesh, if examined carefully with a knife, various parts of a child may be discovered, lying together in apparent confusion, but in actual regularity. The pedicle also by which it is connected to the uterus, is not of a fleshy texture, like that of the polypus, but has a regular series of vessels like the umbilical cord, and there is likewise a placenta and membranes containing water. The symptoms attending the formation, growth, and expulsion of this apparently confused mass from the uterus, correspond with those of a well-formed child.

With respect to the third opinion of a mole, an incision into its substance will discover its true nature; for although the external surface appears at the first view to be organized flesh, the internal part is composed merely of coagulated blood. As substances of this kind, which mostly occur after delivery, would always be expelled by the action of the uterus, there seems to be no reason for a particular enquiry, if popular opinion had not annexed the idea of mischief to them, and attributed their formation or continuance in the uterus to the negligence or misconduct of the practitioner. Hence the persuasion arose of the necessity of extracting all the coagula of blood out of the uterus, immediately after the expul-

sion of the placenta, or of giving medicines to force them away; but abundant experience hath proved, that the retention of such coagula is not under any circumstances productive of danger, and that they are most safely expelled by the action of the uterus, though at very different periods after their formation.

MOLLITIËS OSSIÛM, (*Mollities, ei*, f. from *mollis*, soft). A disease of the bones, wherein they can be bent without fracturing them.

MOLLITIËS UNGUÏNUM. A preternatural softness of the nails, that often accompanies chlorosis.

MOLUCCENSE LIGNUM. See *Lignum pavane*.

MOLYBDATS, (*Molybdas, tis*, m.). Salts formed by the union of the molybdic acid with different bases: thus, *molybdat of alumin*, *molybdat of antimony*, &c.

MOLYBDËNA, (*Molybdæna, æ*, f. *μολυβδαινα*, from *μολυβδος*, lead). This substance is found in Iceland, Saxony, France, and Spain. It is very frequently confounded with black lead, although the characteristic differences are sufficiently evident. Molybdæna is composed of scaly particles, either large or small, slightly adhering to each other. It is soft and fat to the touch, soils the fingers, and makes a trace of an ash-gray colour. Its aspect is blueish, nearly resembling that of lead. The mark it makes on paper has an argentine brilliancy; whereas those of plumbago, or black lead, are of a darker and less shining colour. Its powder is blueish; by calcination it emits a smell of sulphur, and leaves a whitish earth.

MOMORDICA ELATERIÛM, (*Momordica*, from *mordeo*, to bite, from its sharp taste). The systematic name of the squirting cucumber. See *Elaterium*.

MONARDA FISTULOSA. The

systematic name of the purple monarda. The leaves of this plant have a fragrant smell, and an aromatic and somewhat bitter taste, possessing nervine, stomachic, and deobstruent virtues. An infusion is recommended in the cure of intermittent fevers.

MONEY-WORT. See *Nummularia*.

MONKS RHUBARB. See *Rubarbarum monachorum*.

MONKSHOOD. See *Anthora*.

MONOCŪLUS, (*Monoculus*, *i*, m. from *μονος*, one, and *oculus*, an eye). *Monopia*. A very uncommon species of monstrosity, in which there is but one eye, and that mostly above the root of the nose.

MONOPIA, (*Monopia*, *α*, f. *μονωπία*, from *μονος*, single, and *ὤχ*, the eye). See *Monoculus*.

MONORCHIS, (*Monorchis*, *idis*, f. *μονορχίς*, from *μονος*, one, and *ορχίς*, a testicle). An epithet for a person that has but one testicle.

MONSTERS. *Lucus naturæ*. Dr. Denman divides monsters into, 1st, Monsters from redundancy or multiplicity of parts; 2d, Monsters from deficiency or want of parts; 3d, Monsters from confusion of parts.

To these might perhaps be added, without impropriety, another kind, in which there is neither redundancy, nor deficiency, nor confusion of parts, but an error of place, as in transpositions of the viscera. But children born with diseases, as the hydrocephalus, or their effects, as in some cases of blindness from previous inflammation, cannot be properly considered as monsters, though they are often so denominated.

Of the first order there may be two kinds, redundancy or multiplicity of natural parts, as of two heads and one body, of one head and two bodies, an increased number of limbs, as legs, arms, fingers, and toes; or excrescences or additions to parts of no certain form, as those upon the head and other parts of the body,

and these are usually more or less important according to their size or the part where they grow. But as such excrescences, whatever may be their size, have, from their texture, a disposition to enlarge, and to assume a morbid action, it is become an established rule to extirpate them whenever it can be done with safety.

2d, Of monsters from deficiency or want of parts, the instances are less frequent than those of the former kind, as of the brain and back part of the head, or of the whole head, as in the acephalus; or of one eye, as in the monoculus; of the lip and palate, as in the hare-lip; of one or both arms; of the fore-arm or hand; of one or more fingers; of a portion or of the whole of the spinal processes of the vertebræ, as in the spina bifida; of the incomplete formation of the skin, most frequently at the navel, or some part of the abdomen; of the penis, especially of the prepuce; of one or both of the inferior extremities; of the heart, of the liver, spleen, or any of the abdominal viscera; of the lower part of the rectum, terminating before it reaches the anus; and many others.

3d, Monsters from confusion of parts, as when the whole body is in one mass, (usually called a mole), in which various parts of the child are found lying together in apparent confusion; of parts adhering together, as of the fingers and toes; of the rectum, as in the closure of the anus; of the vagina; of the external or internal parts of generation, as in those called hermaphrodites; of the two inferior extremities connected together and terminating in a point; of the club foot; and many others. As we are ignorant of the manner in which the primordial parts of a regular conception are formed and established, and, in many respects, of the order in which the various parts of a foetus are unfolded or enlarged, it is

not surprising that we should be ignorant also of the manner in which monsters or irregular births are generated or produced; though it is probable, that the laws by which these are governed are as regular, both as to cause and effect, as in common or natural productions. Formerly, and indeed till within these few years, it was a generally received opinion, that monsters were not primordial or aboriginal, but that they were caused subsequently, by the power of the imagination of the mother, transferring the imperfection of some external object, or the mark of something for which she longed, with which she was not indulged, to the child of which she was pregnant; or by some accident which happened to her during her pregnancy. Such opinions, it is reasonable to think, were permitted to pass current, in order to protect pregnant women from all hazardous and disagreeable occupations, to screen them from severe labour, and to procure for them a greater share of indulgence and tenderness than could be granted to them in the common occurrences of life. The laws and customs of every civilised nation have, in some degree, established a persuasion that there was something sacred in the person of a pregnant woman: and this may be right in several points of view; but these go a little way towards justifying the opinion of monsters being caused by the imagination of the mother. The opinion has been disproved by common observation, and by philosophy, not perhaps by positive proofs, but by many strong negative facts; as the improbability of any child being born perfect, had such a power existed; the freedom of children from any blemish, their mothers being in situations most exposed to objects likely to produce them; the ignorance of the mother of any thing being wrong in the child, till, from

information of the fact, she begins to recollect every accident which happened during her pregnancy, and assigns the worst or the most plausible as the cause; the organization and colour of these adventitious substances; the frequent occurrence of monsters in the brute creation, in which the power of the imagination cannot be great; and the analogous appearances in the vegetable system, where it does not exist in any degree. Judging, however, from appearances, accidents may perhaps be allowed to have considerable influence in the production of monsters of some kinds, either by actual injury upon parts, or by suppressing or deranging the principle of growth, because, when an arm, for instance is wanting, the rudiments of the deficient parts may generally be discovered.

MONS VENERIS. The triangular eminence, immediately over the os pubis of women, that is covered with hair.

MORBILLI, (*Morbillus*, *i*, m. dim. of *morbus*, a disease). See *Rubeola*.

MOREL. *Phallus esculentus* of Linnæus. It grows on moist banks and wet pastures, and springs up in May. It is used in the same manner as the truffle, for gravies and stewed dishes, but gives an inferior flavour.

MOROSIS, (*Morosis*, *is*, f. *μωρος*, from *μωρος*, folly). See *Amentia*.

MORPHEA ALBA, (*Morphea*, *a*, f. *μορφαια*, from *μορφη*, form). A species of cutaneous leprosy. See *Alphus*.

MORSUS DIABOLI. The fimbria of the Fallopian tubes.

MORTIFICATION. See *Gangrene*.

MORUM, (*Morum*, *i*, n.). The mulberry. The tree that affords this fruit is the *Morus nigra*; *foliis cordatis scabris* of Linnæus. Class *Monocotyledon*. Order *Tetrandria*; a native of Italy. Mulberries abound with a deep violet-coloured juice, which, in its general qualities, agrees with that

of the fruits called *acido-dulces*, allaying thirst, partly by refrigerating, and partly by exciting an excretion of mucus from the mouth and fauces, a similar effect is also produced in the stomach, where, by correcting putrescency, a powerful cause of thirst is removed. The London College directs a *syrupus mori*, which is an agreeable vehicle for various medicines. The bark of the root of this tree is said by Andrée to be useful in cases of tænia.

MORUS, (*Morus*, i, f. the mulberry tree). See *Morum*.

MORUS NIGRA. The systematic name of the mulberry tree. See *Morum*.

MOSCHATA NUX. See *Nux moschata*.

MOSCHUS, (*Moschus*, i, m. *μοσχός*, *mosch*, Arab.). Musk. An unctuous substance, contained in excretory follicles about the navel of the male animal, called *Moschus moschiferus* by Linnæus, whose strong and permanent smell is peculiar to it. It is contained in a bag placed near the umbilical region of a ruminating quadruped, resembling the antelope, from which it does not differ sufficiently to form a particular genus. The medicinal and chemical properties of musk and castor are very similar: the virtues of the former are generally believed to be more powerful, and hence musk is preferred in cases of imminent danger. It is prescribed as a powerful antispasmodic in convulsive diseases, hydrophobia, &c. and is by many said to be a violent aphrodisiac.

MOSCHUS MOSCHIFERUS. The systematic name of the musk animal. See *Moschus*.

MOTHER OF THYME. See *Serpyllum*.

MOTHERWORT. See *Cardiaca*.

MOTION, MUSCULAR. See *Muscles*.

MOTION PERISTALTIC. See *Peristaltic motion*.

MOTORII OCULORUM. (*Nervi Motori*, so called from their office). The third pair of nerves of the brain. They arise from the crura cerebri, and are distributed on the muscles of bulb of the eye.

MOULD. See *Fontanella*.

MOUNTAIN PARSLEY, BLACK. See *Oreoselinum*.

MOUSE-EAR. See *Pilosella*.

MONTH, (*Os*, *oris*, n.). The cavity of the mouth is well known. The parts which constitute it are the common integuments, the lips, the muscles of the upper and under jaw, the palate, two alveolar arches, the gums, the tongue, the cheeks, and salival glands. The bones of the mouth are the two superior maxillary, two palatine, the lower jaw, and thirty-two teeth. The arteries of the external parts of the mouth are branches of the infra-orbital, inferior alveolar, and facial arteries. The veins empty themselves into the external jugulars. The nerves are branches from the fifth and seventh pair. The use of the mouth is for mastication, speech, respiration, deglutition, suction, and taste.

MOXA JAPONICA, (*Moxa*, e, f. Japanese). A soft lanuginous substance, prepared in Japan, from the young leaves of a species of mugwort, by beating them when thoroughly dried, and rubbing them betwixt the hands, till only the fine fibres are left. Moxa is celebrated in the eastern countries, for preventing and curing many disorders, by being burnt on the skin; a little cone of it is laid upon the part, previously moistened, and set on fire on the top, burns down with a temperate and glowing heat, and produces a dark-coloured spot, the ulceration of which is promoted by putting a little garlic, and the ulcer either healed up

when the eschar separates, or kept running for a length of time, as different circumstances may require.

MUCILAGE, (*Mucilāgo, inis, f.*). A solution of gum. See *Gum*.

MUCILAGINOUS EXTRACTS. Extracts that readily dissolve in water, scarcely at all in spirits of wine, and undergo spirituous fermentation.

MUCILĀGO AMŸLI. This preparation of starch is mostly exhibited with opium in the form of glysters in diarrhæas and dysenteries, where the tenemus ares from an abrasion of the mucus of the rectum.

MUCILĀGO ARABĪCI GUMMI. A demulcent preparation, more frequently used to combine medicines than in any other form.

MUCILĀGO SEMĪNIS CYDONĪ MALI. The best form of exhibiting quince-seeds as a demulcent.

MUCILĀGO TRAGACANTHÆ. In tickling coughs, joined with syrup of mulberies, this forms a pleasant demulcent, and may be exhibited to children, who are very fond of it.

MUCOUS GLANDS. *Glandula mucosæ*. Muciparous glands. Glands that secrete mucus, such as the glands of the Schneiderian membrane of the nose, the glands of the fauces, œsophagus, stomach, intestines, bladder, urethra, &c.

MUCUS, ANIMAL, (*Mucus, i, m.*). Animal mucus differs from that obtained from the vegetable kingdom in not being soluble in water, swimming in its surface; nor capable of mixing oil with water, and being soluble in mineral acids, which vegetable mucus is not. The use of this substance is to lubricate and defend the parts upon which it is secreted, as the nose, œsophagus, stomach, intestines, urethra, vagina, &c.

MUCUS, VEGETABLE. See *Gum* and *Mucilage*.

MUGWORT. See *Artemisia vulgaris*.

MULBERRY. See *Morum*.

MULLEIN. See *Verbascum*.

MULTIFIDUS SPINÆ, (*Multifidus, i, m.* from *multus*, many, and *findo*, to divide). *Transverso spinalis lumborum, veterib facer. Semi-spinalis internus, five transverso-spinalis dorsi. Semi-spinalis, five transverso-spinalis colli, pars interna of Winslow. Transversalis lumborum vulgo facer. Transversalis dorsi. Transversalis colli of Douglas.* The generality of anatomical writers have unnecessarily multiplied the muscles of the spine, and hence their descriptions of these parts are confused, and difficult to be understood. Under the name of *multifidus spinæ*, Albinus has therefore very properly included those portions of muscular flesh, intermixed with tendinous fibres, which lie close to the posterior part of the spine, and which Douglas and Winslow have described as three distinct muscles, under the names of *transversales*, or *transverso-spinæ*, of the loins, back, and neck. The *multifidus spinæ* arises tendinous and fleshy from the upper convex surface of the os sacrum, from the posterior adjoining part of the ilium, from the oblique and transverse processes of all the lumbar vertebræ, from the transverse processes of all the dorsal vertebræ, and from those of the cervical vertebræ, excepting the three first. From all these origins the fibres of the muscle run in an oblique direction, and are inserted, by distinct tendons, into the spinous processes of all the vertebræ of the loins and back, and likewise into those of the six inferior vertebræ of the neck. When this muscle acts singly, it extends the back obliquely, or moves it to one side; when both muscles act, they extend the vertebræ backwards.

MUMPS. A disease of the parotid gland. See *Cynanche*.

MUNGOS RADIX. *Radix serpentum*. This bitter root of the plant *Ophior-*

rhiza mungos of Linnaeus, is much esteemed in Java, Sumatra, &c. as preventing the effects which usually follow the bite of the *naja*, a venomous serpent, with which view it is eaten by them. It is also said to be exhibited medicinally in the cure of intestinal worms.

MURIAS, (*Murias, atis, m.*). A salt formed by the union of the muriatic acid with certain bases, as *muriate of ammoniac*, &c.

MURIAS AMMONIACÆ. See *Ammonia muriata* and *Sal ammoniac*.

MURIAS BARYTÆ. *Terra ponderosa salita*. The muriate of barytes, or heavy earth, is a very acrid and poisonous preparation. In small doses it proves sudorific, diuretic, deobstruent, and alterative; in an over-dose, emetic, and violently purgative. The late Dr. Crawford found it very serviceable in all diseases connected with scrophula; and the Germans have employed it with great success in some diseases of the skin and viscera, and obstinate ulcers. The dose of the saturated solution in distilled water, is from five to fifteen drops for children, and from fifteen to twenty for adults.

MURIAS CALCIS. *Calx salita*. *Sal ammoniacus fixus*. This preparation is exhibited with the same views as the muriate of barytes. It possesses deobstruent, diuretic, and cathartic virtues, and is much used by the celebrated Fourcroy against scrophula, and scrophulous diseases. Six, twelve, and twenty grains are given to children three times a day, and a drachm to adults.

MURIAS FERRI. *Ferrum salitum*. *Oleum martis per deliquium*. This preparation of iron is styptic and tonic, and may be given in chlorosis, intermittents, rachitis, &c.

MURIAS FERRI AMMONIACÆ. See *Ferrum ammoniacale*.

MURIAS HYDRARGYRI. There are two simple muriates of mercury.

See *Calomelas*, and *hydrargyrus muriatu mitis*.

MURIAS HYDRARGYRI AMMONIACÆ. See *Calx hydrargyri alba*.

MURIAS HYDRARGYRI OXYGENATUS. See *Hydrargyrus muriatu*.

MURIAS HYPEROXYGENATUS POTASSÆ. The oxygenated muriate of potash has lately been extolled in the cure of the venereal disease. It is exhibited in doses of from fifteen to forty grains in the course of a day. It increases the action of the heart and arteries, oxygenates the blood, and proves of great service in scorbutus, asthma, cachexia, &c.

MURIAS POTASSÆ. *Alkali vegetabile salitum*. *Sal digestivus*. *Sal febrifugus sylvii*. This salt is exhibited with the same intention as the muriate of soda, and was formerly in high estimation in the cure of intermittents, &c.

MURIAS SODÆ. *Alkali minerale salitum*. *Sal commune*. *Sal culinaris*. *Sal fontium*. *Sal gemmæ*. *Sal marinus*. *Natron muriatum*. *Soda muricata*. Common sea salt possesses antiseptic, diuretic, and resolvent qualities, and is frequently employed in form of clyster, fomentation, lotion, pediluvium, and bath, in obstipation, against worms, gangrene, scrophulous tumours, herpetic eruptions, arthritis, &c.

MURIAS STIBII HYPEROXYGENATUS. See *Antimonium muriatum*.

MURIATES, (*Murias, tis, m.*). Salts formed by the union of the muriatic acid with different bases; thus, *Muriat of ammoniac*, *muriat of copper*, &c.

MURIATIC ACID. See *Acidum muriaticum*.

MURIATIC ACID, OXYGENATED. See *Oxygenated muriatic acid*.

MUSA SAPIENTUM. The systematic name of the banana-tree. See *Banana*.

MUSA PARADISIACA. The plantain-tree. It grows spontaneously in many parts of India, but has been immemorially cultivated by the Indians in every part of the continent of South America. It is an herbaceous tree, growing to the height of fifteen or twenty feet. The fruit are nearly of the size and shape of ordinary cucumbers, and when ripe of a pale yellow colour, of a mealy substance, a little clammy, a sweetish taste, and will dissolve in the mouth without chewing. The whole spike of fruit often weighs forty or fifty pounds. When they are brought to table by way of desert, they are either raw, fried, or roasted; but if intended for bread, they are cut before they are ripe, and are then either roasted or boiled. The trees being tall and slender, the Indians cut them down to get at the fruit; and in doing this they suffer no loss, for the stems are only one year's growth, and would die if not cut; but the roots continue, and new stems soon spring up, which in a year produce ripe fruit also. From the ripe plantains they make a liquor called *mistlaw*. When they make this, they roast the fruit in their hulks, and after totally beating them to a mash, they pour water upon them, and as the liquor is wanted it is drawn off. But the nature of this fruit is such, that they will not keep long without running into a state of putrefaction; and therefore, in order to reap the advantage of them at all times, they make cakes of the pulp, and dry them over a slow fire, and as they stand in need of *mistlaw*, they mash the cakes in water, and they answer all the purposes of fresh fruit. These cakes are exceedingly convenient to make this liquor in their jounies, and they never fail to carry them for that purpose. The leaves of the tree being large and spacious, serve the Indians for table-cloths and napkins.

MUSCLE. *Musculus.* The parts that are usually included under this name consist of distinct portions of flesh, susceptible of contraction and relaxation; the motions of which, in a natural and healthy state, are subject to the will, and for this reason they are called *voluntary* muscles. Besides these, there are other parts of the body that owe their power of contraction to their muscular fibres: thus the heart is a muscular texture, forming what is called a hollow muscle; and the urinary bladder, stomach, intestines, &c. are enabled to act upon their contents, merely because they are provided with muscular fibres; these are called *involuntary* muscles, because their motions are not dependent on the will. The muscles of respiration being in some measure influenced by the will, are said to have a *mixed* motion. The names by which the voluntary muscles are distinguished, are founded on their size, figure, situation, use, or the arrangement of their fibres, or their origin and insertion; but besides these particular distinctions, there are certain general ones that require to be noticed. Thus, if the fibres of a muscle are placed parallel to each other, in a straight direction, they form what anatomists term a *rectilinear* muscle; if the fibres cross and intersect each other, they constitute a *compound* muscle; when the fibres are disposed in the manner of rays, a *radiated* muscle; and when they are placed obliquely with respect to the tendon, like the plume of a pen, a *penniform* muscle. Muscles that act in opposition to each other are called *antagonists*; thus every extensor has a flexor for its antagonist, and *vice versa*. Muscles that concur in the same action are termed *congeneres*. The muscles being attached to the bones, the latter may be considered as levers, that are moved in different directions by the contraction of those organs.

That end of the muscle which adheres to the most fixed part is usually called the *origin*; and that which adheres to the more moveable part the *insertion* of the muscle. In almost every muscle two kinds of fibres are distinguished; the one soft, of a red colour, sensible, and irritable, called *fleshy fibres*, see *Muscular Fibres*; the other of a firmer texture, of a white glistening colour, insensible, without irritability or the power of contracting, and named *tendinous fibres*. They are occasionally intermixed, but the fleshy fibres generally prevail in the belly, or middle part of the muscle, and the tendinous ones in the extremities. If these tendinous fibres are formed into a round slender cord, they form what is called the *tendon* of the muscle; on the other hand, if they are spread into a broad flat surface, it is termed an *aponeurosis*.

Each muscle is surrounded by a very thin and delicate covering of cellular membrane, which incloses it as it were like a sheath, and dipping down into its substance, surrounds the most minute fibres we are able to trace, connecting them to each other, lubricating them by means of the fat which its cells contain in more or less quantity in different subjects, and serving as a support to the blood-vessels, lymphatics, and nerves, which are so plentifully distributed through the muscles.—This cellular membrane, which in no respect differs from that is found investing and connecting the other parts of the body, has been sometimes mistaken for a membrane peculiar to the muscles; and hence we often find writers giving it the name of *membrana propria musculosa*. The muscles owe the red colour which so particularly distinguishes their belly part, to an infinite number of arteries, which are every where dispersed through the whole of their reticular substance; for their fibres, after having been macerated

in water, are, (like all other parts of the body divested of their blood), found to be of a white colour. These arteries usually enter the muscles by several considerable branches, and ramify so minutely through their substance, that we are unable, even with the best microscopes, to trace their ultimate branches. Ruysch fancied that the muscular fibre was hollow, and a production of a capillary artery; but this was merely conjectural. The veins, for the most part, accompany the arteries, but are found to be larger and more numerous. The lymphatics, likewise, are numerous, as might be expected from the great proportion of reticular substance, which is every where found investigating the muscular fibres. The nerves are distributed in such abundance to every muscle, that the muscles of the thumb alone, are supplied with a greater proportion of nervous influence than the largest viscera, as the liver for instance. They enter the generality of muscles by several trunks, the branches of which, like those of the blood-vessels, are so minutely dispersed through the cellular substance, that their number and minuteness soon elude the eye and the knife of the anatomist. This has given rise to a conjecture, as groundless as all the other conjectures on this subject, that the muscular fibre is ultimately nervous.

A Table of the Muscles.

The generality of anatomical writers have arranged muscles according to their several uses; but this method is evidently defective, as the same muscle may very often have different and opposite uses. The method here adopted is that more usually followed; they are enumerated in the order in which they are situated, beginning with those that are placed nearest the integuments, and proceeding from these

to the muscles that are more deeply seated.

[The reader will be pleased to observe, that all the muscles are in pairs except those marked thus *].

Muscles of the integuments of the cranium :

Occipito frontalis *. *Corrugator supercilii*.

Muscles of the eye-lids :

Orbicularis palpebrarum. *Levator palpebræ superioris*.

Muscles of the eye-ball :

Rectus superior. *Rectus inferior*. *Rectus internus*. *Rectus externus*. *Obliquus superior*. *Obliquus inferior*.

Muscles of the nose and mouth :

Levator palpebræ superioris alæque nasi. *Levator labii superioris proprius*. *Levator anguli oris*. *Zygomaticus major*. *Zygomaticus minor*. *Buccinator*. *Depressor anguli oris*. *Depressor labii inferioris*. *Orbicularis oris* *. *Depressor labii superioris alæque nasi*. *Constrictor nasi*. *Levator menti vel labii inferioris*.

Muscles of the external ear :

Superior auris. *Anterior auris*. *Posterior auris*. *Helicis major*. *Helicis minor*. *Tragicus*. *Antitragicus*. *Transversus auris*.

Muscles of the internal ear :

Laxator tympani. *Membrana tympani*. *Tensor tympani*. *Stapedius*.

Muscles of the lower jaw :

Temporalis. *Masseter*. *Pterygoideus externus*. *Pterygoideus internus*.

Muscles about the anterior part of the neck :

Platysma myoides. *Sterno-cleido-mastoideus*.

Muscles between the lower jaw and os hyoides :

Digastricus. *Mylo-hyoideus*. *Genio-hyoideus*. *Genio-glossus*. *Hyo-glossus*. *Lingualis*.

Muscles situated between the os hyoides and trunk :

Sterno-hyoideus. *Crico-hyoideus*. *Sterno-thyroideus*. *Thyreo-hyoideus*. *Crico-thyroidens*.

Muscles between the lower jaw and os hyoides laterally :

Stylo-glossus. *Stylo-hyoideus*. *Stylo-pharyngeus*. *Circumflexus*. *Levator palati mollis*.

Muscles about the entry of the fauces :

Constrictor isthmi faucium. *Palato-pharyngeus*. *Azygos uvula* *.

Muscles situated on the posterior part of the pharynx :

Constrictor pharyngis superior. *Constrictor pharyngis medius*. *Constrictor pharyngis inferior*.

Muscles situated about the glottis :

Crico-arytenoideus posticus. *Crico-arytenoideus lateralis*. *Thyreo-arytenoideus*. *Arytenoideus obliquus* *. *Arytenoideus transversus* *. *Thyreo-epiglottideus*. *Aryteno-epiglottideus*.

Muscles situated about the anterior part of the abdomen :

Obliquus descendens externus. *Obliquus ascendens internus*. *Transversalis abdominis*. *Rectus abdominis*. *Pyramidalis*.

Muscles about the male organs of generation :

Dartos *. *Cremaster*. *Erector penis*. *Accelerator urinæ*. *Transversus perinei*.

Muscles of the anus :

Sphincter ani *. *Levator ani* *.

Muscles of the female organs of generation :

Erector clitoridis. *Sphincter vagina* *.

Muscles situated within the pelvis :

Obturator internus. *Coccygeus*.

Muscles situated within the cavity of the abdomen :

Diaphragma *. *Quadratus lumborum*. *Psoas parvus*. *Psoas magnus*. *Iliacus internus*.

Muscles situated on the anterior part of the thorax :

Pectoralis major. *Subclavius*. *Pectoralis minor*. *Serratus major anticus*.

Muscles situated between the ribs, and within the thorax :

Intercostales externi. Intercostales interni. Triangularis.

Muscles situated on the anterior part of the neck, close to the vertebrae :

Longus colli. Rectus internus capitis major. Rectus capitis internus minor. Rectus capitis lateralis.

Muscles situated on the posterior part of the trunk :

Trapezius. Latissimus dorsi. Serratus posticus inferior. Rhomboideus. Splenius. Serratus superior posticus. Spinalis dorsi. Levatores costarum. Sacro-lumbalis. Longissimus dorsi. Complexus. Trachelo-mastloideus. Levator scapulae. Semi-spinalis dorsi. Multifidus spinæ. Semi-spinalis colli. Transversalis colli. Rectus capitis posticus minor. Obliquus capitis superior. Obliquus capitis inferior. Scalenus. Interspinales. Intertransversales.

Muscles of the superior extremities :

Supra-spinatus. Infra-spinatus. Teres minor. Teres major. Deltoides. Coraco-brachialis. Subscapularis.

Muscles situated on the os humeri :

Biceps flexor cubiti. Brachialis internus. Biceps extensor cubiti. Anconæus.

Muscles situated on the fore arm :

Supinator radii longus. Extensor carpi radialis longior. Extensor carpi radialis brevior. Extensor digitorum communis. Extensor minimi digiti. Extensor-carpi ulnaris. Flexor carpi ulnaris. Palmaris longus. Flexor carpi radialis. Pronator radii teres. Supinator radii brevis. Extensor ossis metacarpi pollicis manus. Extensor primi internodii. Extensor secundi internodii. Indicator. Flexor digitorum sublimis. Flexor digitorum profundus. Flexor longus pollicis. Pronator radii quadratus.

Muscles situated chiefly on the hand :

Lumbricales. Flexor brevis pollicis manus. Opponens pollicis. Abductor pollicis manus. Adductor pollicis manus. Abductor

indicis manus. Palmaris brevis. Abductor minimi digiti manus. Adductor minimi digiti. Flexor parvus minimi digiti. Interossei interni. Interossei externi.

Muscles of the inferior extremities :

Pectinalis. Triceps adductor femoris. Obturator externus. Gluteus maximus. Gluteus minimus. Gluteus medius. Pyriformis. Gemini. Quadratus femoris.

Muscles situated on the thigh :

Tensor vagina femoris. Sartorius. Rectus femoris. Vastus externus. Vastus internus. Cruralis. Semi-tendinosus. Semi-membranosus. Biceps flexor cruris. Popliteus.

Muscles situated on the leg :

Gastrocnemius externus. Gastrocnemius internus. Plantaris. Tibialis anticus. Tibialis posticus. Peroneus longus. Peroneus brevis. Extensor longus digitorum pedis. Extensor proprius pollicis pedis. Flexor longus digitorum pedis. Flexor longus pollicis pedis.

Muscles chiefly situated on the foot :

Extensor brevis digitorum pedis. Flexor brevis digitorum pedis. Lumbricales pedis. Flexor brevis pollicis pedis. Abductor pollicis pedis. Adductor pollicis pedis. Abductor minimi digiti pedis. Flexor brevis minimi digiti pedis. Transversales pedis. Interossei pedis externi. Interossei pedis interni.

MUSCULAR FIBRE. The fibres that compose the body of a muscle are disposed in fasciculi, or bundles, which are easily distinguishable by the naked eye ; but these fasciculi are divisible into still smaller ones ; and these again are probably subdivisible *ad infinitum*. The most minute fibre we are able to trace, seems to be somewhat plaited ; these plaits disappearing when the fibre is put upon the stretch, seem evidently to be the effect of contraction, and have probably induced some writers to assert

that the muscular fibre is twisted or spiral. Various have been the opinions concerning the structure of these fibres; they are all of them founded only on conjecture, and therefore we shall mention only the principal ones, and this with a view rather to gratify the curiosity of the reader, than to afford him information. Borelli supposes them to be so many hollow cylinders, filled with a spongy medullary substance, which he compares to the pith of elder, *spongiosa ad instar sambuci*. These cylinders, he contends, are intersected by circular fibres, which form a chain of very minute bladders. This hypothesis has since been adopted by a great number of writers, with certain variations. Thus, for instance, Borelli supposes the vesicles to be of a rhomboidal shape; whereas Bernouilli contends that they are oval. Cowper went so far as to persuade himself that he had filled these cells with mercury; a mistake, no doubt, which arose from its insinuating itself into some of the lymphatics. It is observable, however, that Leeuwenhoeck says nothing of any such vesicles. Here, as well as in many other of her works, nature seems to have drawn a boundary to our inquiries, beyond which no human penetration will probably ever extend. It is surely more commendable, however, to acknowledge our ignorance, than to indulge ourselves in chimeræ.

MUSCULAR MOTION. Muscular motions are of three kinds; namely, voluntary, involuntary, and mixed. The *voluntary motions* of muscles are such as proceed from an immediate exertion of the active powers of the will: thus, the mind directs the arm to be raised or depressed, the knee to be bent, the tongue to move, &c. The *involuntary motions* of muscles are those which are performed by organs, seemingly of their own accord,

without any attention of the mind, or consciousness of its active power; as the contraction and dilatation of the heart, arteries, veins, absorbents, stomach, intestines, &c. The *mixed motions* are those which are in part under the controul of the will, but which ordinarily act without our being conscious of their acting; as is perceived in the muscles of respiration, the intercostals, the abdominal muscles, and the diaphragm.

When a muscle acts, it becomes shorter and thicker; both its origin and insertion are drawn towards its middle. The sphincter muscles are always in action; and so likewise are antagonist muscles, even when they seem at rest. When two antagonist muscles move with equal force, the part which they are designed to move remains at rest; but if one of the antagonist muscles remains at rest, while the other acts, the part is moved towards the centre of motion.

All the muscles of living animals are constantly endeavouring to shorten themselves.

When a muscle is divided it contracts. If a muscle be stretched to a certain extent, it contracts, and endeavours to acquire its former dimensions, as soon as the stretching cause is removed: this takes place in the dead body; in muscles cut out of the body, and also in parts not muscular, and is called by the immortal Haller *vis mortua*, and by some *vis elastica*. It is greater in living than in dead bodies, and is called the *tone* of the muscles.

When a muscle is wounded, touched, or otherwise irritated, it contracts independent of the will: this power is called *irritability*, and by Haller *vis insita*; it is a property peculiar to, and inherent in the muscles. The parts of our body which possess this property are called irritable, as the heart, arteries, muscles, &c. to dil-

tinguish them from those parts which have no muscular fibres. With regard to the degree of this property peculiar to various parts, the heart is the most irritable, then the stomach and intestines; the diaphragm, the arteries, veins, absorbents, and at length the various muscles follow; but the degree of irritability depends upon the age, sex, temperament, mode of living, climate, state of health, idiosyncrasy, and likewise upon the nature of the stimulus.

When a muscle is stimulated, either through the medium of the will or any foreign body, it contracts, and its contraction is greater or less in proportion as the stimulus applied is greater or less. The contraction of muscles is different according to the purpose to be served by their contraction: thus, the heart contracts with a jerk; the urinary bladder, slowly and uniformly; puncture a muscle, and its fibres vibrate; and the abdominal muscles act slowly in expelling the contents of the rectum. Relaxation generally succeeds the contraction of muscles, and alternates with it.

The use of this property is very considerable; for upon it depends all muscular motion, and the function of every viscus, except that of the nerves.

MUSCULAR POWER. See *Irritability*.

MUSCULUS, (*Musculus*, *i*, *m*. dim. of *mus*, a mouse, from its resemblance to a dead mouse). See *Muscle*.

MUSCULUS CUTANĒUS. See *Platysma myoides*.

MUSCULUS PATIENTIÆ. See *Levator scapulae*.

MUSCULUS TUBÆ NOVÆ. See *Circumflexus*.

MUSCUS, (*Muscus*, *i*, *m*. from *μῆσχος*, tender, so called from its delicate and tender consistence). Moss.

MUSCUS ARBORĒUS. This plant, *Lichen plicatus* of Linnæus, we are informed by that great botanist, is

applied by the Laplanders to parts which are excoriated by a long journey. It is slightly astringent, and is applied with that intention to bleeding vessels.

MUSCUS CANINUS. See *Lichen cinereus terrestris*.

MUSCUS CLAVATUS. See *Lycopodium*.

MUSCUS CRANII HUMANI. See *Ufnea*.

MUSCUS CUMATILIS. This cryptogamous plant, *Lichen apothosus*, is said to act powerfully on the intestines, though never used in the practice of the present day.

MUSCUS ERECTUS. Upright club moss. The pharmacopœial name of the *Lycopodium selago* of Linnæus. The decoction of this plant acts violently as a vomit and a purgative, and was formerly on that account employed to produce abortions.

MUSCUS ISLANDICUS. See *Lichen islandicus*.

MUSCUS MARITIMUS. See *Corallinus*.

MUSCUS PULMONARIUS QUERCINUS. See *Pulmonaria arborea*.

MUSCUS PYXIDATUS. Cup moss. These very common little plants, *Lichen cocciferus*, and *pyxidatus* of Linnæus, for both are used indifferently, are employed by the common people in this country in the cure of whooping cough.

MUSHROOM. There are several species of the *agaricus*, which go by the term mushroom; as the *agaricus chanterellus*, *deliciosus*, *violaceus*, &c, but that which is eaten in this country is the *agaricus campestris* of Linnæus. Similar to it in quality is the champignon or *agaricus pratensis*. Broiled with salt and pepper, or stewed with cream and some aromatic, they are extremely delicious, and if not eaten to excess, salubrious. Great care should be taken to ascertain they are the true fungus, and not those of a poisonous nature.

Catchup is made by throwing salt on mushrooms, which causes them to part with their juice.

MUSK. See *Moschus*.

MUSK-CRANESBILL. See *Gernium moschatum*.

MUSK MELON. See *Melo*.

MUSK-SEED. See *Abelmoschus*.

MUSTARD BLACK. See *Sinapi*.

MUSTARD, HEDGE. See *Erysimum*.

MUSTARD, TREACLE. See *Thlaspi*.

MUSTARD MITHRIDATE. See *Thlaspi*.

MUSTARD, YELLOW. See *Sinapi*.

MUTITAS, (*Mutitas*, f. from *mutus*, dumb). Dumbness. A genus of disease in the class *locales* and order *dyscinesia* of Cullen: containing three species, viz. 1. *Mutitas organica*, as happens when the tongue is removed or injured. 2. *Mutitas atonica* arising from an affection of the nerves of the organ. 3. *Mutitas surdorum*, depending upon being born deaf.

MYACANTHA, (*Myacantha*, α , f. $\mu\upsilon\alpha\kappa\alpha\nu\theta\alpha$; from $\mu\upsilon\varsigma$, a mouse, and $\alpha\kappa\alpha\nu\theta\alpha$, a thorn, so called because its prickly leaves are used to cover whatever is intended to be preserved from mice). See *Ruscus*.

MYDRIASIS, (*Mydriasis*, *is*, f. $\mu\upsilon\delta\rho\iota\alpha\varsigma\iota\varsigma$; from $\mu\upsilon\delta\alpha\omega$, to abound in moisture; so named because it was thought to originate in redundant moisture). A disease of the iris. Too great a dilation of the pupil of the eye, with or without a defect of vision. It is known by the pupil always appearing of the same latitude or size in the light. The species of mydriasis are, 1. *Mydriasis amaurotica*, which, for the most part, but not always, accompanies an amaurosis. 2. *Mydriasis hydrocephalica*, which owes its origin to an hydrocephalus internus, or internal dropsy of the ventricles of the cerebrum. It is not

uncommon amongst children, and is the most certain diagnostic of the disease. 3. *Mydriasis verminosa*, or a dilatation of the pupil from saburra and worms in the stomach or small intestines. 4. *Mydriasis a synechia*, or a dilatation of the pupil, with a concretion of the uvea with the capsule of the crystalline lens. 5. *Mydriasis paralytica*, or a dilated pupil, from a paralysis of the orbicular fibres of the iris: it is observed in paralytic disorders, and from the application of narcotics to the eye. 6. *Mydriasis spasmodica*, or from a spasm of the rectilinear fibres of the iris, as often happens in hysteric and spasmodic diseases. 7. *Mydriasis*, from atony of the iris, the most frequent cause of which is a large cataract distending the pupil in its passing when extracted. It vanishes in a few days after the operation, in general; a pupil, however long dilated, may remain so from the over and long-continued distention.

MYLO. Names compounded with this word belong to muscles, which are attached near the grinders; from $\mu\upsilon\lambda\eta$, a grinder tooth; such as,

MYLO-HYOIDEUS. This muscle, which was first described by Fallopius, is so called from its origin near the *dentes molares*, and its insertion into the os hyoides. It is a thin, flat muscle, situated between the lower jaw and the os hyoides, and is covered by the anterior portion of the digastricus. It arises fleshy, and a little tendinous, from all the inner surface of the lower jaw, as far back as the insertion of the pterygoideus internus, or, in other words, from between the last dens molaris and the middle of the chin, where it joins its fellow, to form one belly, with an intermediate tendinous streak, or *linea alba*, which extends from the chin to the os hyoides, where both muscles are inserted into

the lower edge of the basis of that bone. This has induced Riolanus, Winslow, Albinus, and others, to consider it as a single penniform muscle. Its use is to pull the os hyoides upwards, forwards, and to either side.

MYLO-PHARYNGEUS, (*Musculus mylo-pharyngeus*, μυλοφαρυγγίαιος; from *μύλος*, the grinding tooth, and *φαρυγξ*, the pharynx). A muscle arising near the molares, and inserted in the pharynx. See *Constrictor pharyngeus superior*.

MYODESOPSIA, (*Myodesopsia*, α, f. *μυωδεσωψία*; from *μύαι*, a fly, and *ωψία*, vision). A disease of the eyes, in which the person sees black spots, an appearance of flies, cobwebs, or black wool, before his eyes.

MYOLOGY, (*Myologia*, α, f. *μυολογία*; from *μύς*, a muscle, and *λογος*, a discourse). The doctrine of the muscles.

MYOPIA, (*Myopia*, α, f. *μυωπία*; from *μύω*, to wink, and *ωψ*, the eye). Near-sighted, purblind. The myopes are considered those persons who cannot see distinctly above twenty inches. The myopia is likewise adjudged to all those who cannot see at three, six, or nine inches. The proximate cause is the adunation of the rays of light in a focus before the retina. The species are, 1. *Myopia*, from too great a convexity of the cornea. The cause of this convexity is either from nativity, or a greater secretion of the aqueous humor: hence on one day there shall be a greater myopia than on another. An incipient hydrophthalmia is the origin of the myopia. 2. *Myopia*, from too great a longitude of the bulb. This length of the bulb is native, or acquired from a congestion of the humors in the eye; hence artificers occupied in minute objects, as the engravers of seals, and persons reading much, frequently after puberty

become myopes. 3. *Myopia*, from too great a convexity of the anterior superficies in the crystalline lens. This is likewise from birth. The parallel rays which fall into the cornea, by so much they fall more obliquely, so much the more convex is the cornea, or crystalline lens, or vitreous humour in the anterior superficies. But the angle of refraction is equal to the angle of incidence: therefore the angle of refraction so much sooner will be formed as the cornea or lens is more convex. This perfectly accounts for short-sightedness; but an anterior too great convexity of the cornea is the most common cause. 4. *Myopia*, from too great a density of the cornea, or humours of the eye. Optics teach us by so much sooner the rays of light are forced into a focus, by so much the diaphanous body is denser. 5. *Myopia*, from a mydriasis or too dilated a pupil; for so much the wider the aperture of the diaphragma is in an optical instrument, so much the nearer is the focus. 6. *Myopia infantilis*. Infants, from the great convexity of the cornea, are often myopes; but by degrees, as they advance in years, they perceive objects more remotely, by the cornea becoming less convex.

MYOPS, (*Myops, opis*, *μυωψ*, from *μύω*, to wink, and *ωψ*, the eye). One who is near sighted.

MYOSIS, (*Myosis, is*, f. *μυωσις*). A contraction or too small perforation of the pupil; it is known by viewing the diameter of the pupil, which is smaller than usual, and remains so in an obscure place, where, naturally, if not diseased, it dilates. It occasions weak sight, or a vision that remains only a certain number of hours in the day; but if wholly closed, total blindness. The species of this disorder are, 1. *Myosis spasmodica*, which is observed in the

hysteria, hypochondriac, and in other spasmodic or nervous affections; it arises from a spasm of the orbicular fibres of the iris. 2. *Myosis paralytica* arises in paralytic disorders. 3. *Myosis inflammatoria*, which arises from an inflammation of the iris or uvea, as in the internal ophthalmia, hypopium, or wounded eye. 4. *Myosis*, from an accustomed contraction of the pupil. This frequently is experienced by those who contemplate very minute objects; by persons who write; by the workers of fine needle-work; and by frequent attention to microscopical enquiries. 5. *Myosis*, from a defect of the aqueous humour, as after extraction. 6. *Myosis nativa*, with which infants are born. 7. *Myosis naturalis*, is a coarctation of the pupil by light, or from an intense examination of minutest objects. These coarctations of the pupil are temporary, and spontaneously vanish.

MYOSITIS, (*Myositis*, *itis*, f. *μυσιτις*, from *μυς*, a muscle). Inflammation of a muscle. It is the term given by Sagar to acute rheumatism.

MYOSOTIS, (*Myosotis*, f. *μυσωτις*, from *μυς*, a muscle, and *ωτις*, an ear; so called because its leaves are hairy, and grow longitudinally like the ear of a mouse). See *Pilosella*.

MYOTOMY, (*Myotomia*, *æ*, f. *μυτομια*, from *μυς*, a muscle, and *τεμνω*, to cut). The dissection of the muscles.

MYRICA GALE. The systematic name of the dutch myrtle. See *Myrtus brabantica*.

MYRIOPHYLLON, (*Myriophyllum*, *i*, n. *μυριοφυλλον*, from *μυριος*, infinite, and *φυλλον*, a leaf, named from the number of its leaves). See *Millefolium*.

MYRISTICA AROMATICA. Swartz's name of the nutmeg tree.

MYRISTICA MOSCHATA. The systematic name of the tree which

produces the nutmeg. See *Nux moschata*.

MYRISTICA NUX. See *Nux moschata*.

MYROXYLON PERUVIFERUM, (*Myroxylon*, *i*, n. *μυροξυλον*, from *μυρος*, an ointment, and *ξυλον*, wood). The systematic name of the tree which gives out the peruvian balsam. See *Balsamum Peruvianum*.

MYROBALANUS, (*Myrobalanus*, *i*, f. *μυροβαλανος*, from *μυρος*, an unguent, and *βαλανος*, a nut, so called because it was formerly used in ointments). A myrobalan. A dried fruit, of the plum kind, brought from the East Indies. All the myrobalans have an unpleasant, bitterish, very austere taste, and strike an inky blackness with a solution of sal maris. They are said to have a gently purgative as well as an adstringent and corroborating virtue. In this country they have been long expunged from the pharmacopœias.

MYROBALANUS BELLIRICA. The Belliric myrobalan. This fruit is of a yellowish grey colour, and an irregularly roundish or oblong figure, about an inch in length, and three quarters of an inch thick.

MYROBALANUS CHEBULA. The chebule myrobalan. This resembles the yellow in figure and ridges, but is larger, of a darker colour inclining to brown, or blackish, and has a thicker pulp.

MYROBALANUS CITRINA. Yellow myrobalan. This fruit is somewhat longer than the belliric, with generally five large longitudinal ridges, and as many smaller between them, somewhat pointed at both ends.

MYROBALANUS EMBLICA. The emblic myrobalan is of a dark blackish grey colour, roundish, about half an inch thick, with six hexagonal faces, opening from one another.

MYROBALANUS INDICA. The

Indian or black myrobalan, of a deep black colour, oblong octangular, differing from all the others in having no stone, or only the rudiments of one, from which circumstance they are supposed to have been gathered before maturity.

MYROBALANS. See *Myrobalanus*.

MYRRH, (*Myrrha*, α, f. Heb.). A botanical specimen of the tree which affords this gum-resin has not yet been obtained; but from the account of Mr. Bruce, who says it very much resembles the *acacia vera*, which is the *Mimosa nilotica* of Linnæus, there can be little doubt in referring it to that genus, especially as it corresponds with the description of the tree given by Dioscorides. The tree that affords the myrrh, which is obtained by incision, grows on the eastern coast of Arabia Felix, and in that part of Abyssinia which is situated near the Red Sea, and is called by Mr. Bruce, Trogiodite. Good myrrh is of a foul black red colour, solid and heavy, of a peculiar smell, and bitter taste. Its medicinal effects are warm, corroborant, and antiseptic; it has been successfully employed in phthical cases as a pectoral; and although allied to some of the balsams, it is found to be more efficacious and less irritating to the system. There are several preparations of this drug in the London and Edinburgh pharmacopœias.

MYRTACANTHA, (*Myrtacantha*, α, f. *μυρτακανθα*, from *μυρτος*, a myrtle, and *ακανθα*, a thorn; so called from its likeness to myrtle, and from its prickly leaves). Butchers broom. See *Ruscus*.

MYRTILLUS, (*Myrtillus*, i, f.). The berries which are directed in pharmacopœias by the name of *bacca myrtillorum*, are the fruit of the *Vac-*

cinium myrtillus of Linnæus. Prepared with vinegar they are esteemed as antiscorbutics, and when dry possess astringent virtues.

MYRTIFORM CARUNCLES. The remains of the hymen. See *Glandule myrtiformes*.

MYRTIFORM GLANDS. See *Glandule myrtiformes*.

MYRTLE, COMMON. See *Myrtus*.

MYRTLE, DUTCH. See *Myrtus brabantica*.

MYRTUS, (*Myrtus*, i. f. *μυρτος*, from *μυρρα*, myrrh, because of its smell, or from *myrha*, a virgin who was fabled to have been turned into this tree). The myrtle. *Myrtus communis* of Linnæus. The berries of this plant are recommended in alvine and uterine fluxes, and other disorders from relaxation and debility. They have a roughish, and not unpleasant taste, and appear to be moderately astringent and corroborant, partaking also of aromatic qualities.

MYRTUS BRABANTICA. Gaule. Sweet willow, or Dutch myrtle. The leaves, flowers, and seeds of this plant, *Myrica gale* of Linnæus, have a strong fragrant smell, and a bitter taste. They are said to be used amongst the common people for destroying moths and cutaneous insects, and the infusion is given internally as a stomachic and vermifuge.

MYRTUS CARYOPHYLLATA. The systematic name of the tree which affords the cassia bark. See *Cassia caryophyllata*.

MYRTUS COMMUNIS. The systematic name of the common myrtle. See *Myrtus*.

MYRTUS PIMENTA. The systematic name of the tree which bears the Jamaica pepper. See *Pimento*.

MYSTAX. The hair which forms the beard in man, on each side the upper lip.

N.

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NÆVI MATERNI, (*Nævus*, i, m. Heb.). Mother's marks. These marks are upon the skin of children at birth, and are various in their nature, depending upon the longing or aversion of the mother; hence they resemble mulberries, grapes, bacon, &c. Their seat is mostly in the rete mucosum or cellular membrane.

NAILS. *Ungues*. Horny laminæ, situated on the extremities of the fingers and toes.

NAPELLUS, (*Napellus*, i, f. dim. of *napus*, a kind of turnip, because it has a bulbous root like a turnip). Wolf's bane. See *Acontium*.

NAPHTHA, (*Naphtha*, æ, f.). A very fluid species of petroleum, found chiefly in Italy.

NAPHÆ FLORES. A term sometimes applied to the flowers of the citrus aurantium. See *Aurantium*.

NAPUS, (*Napus*, i. *ναπος*; from *napus*, Rabb.). *Napus sylvestris*. *Bunias*. Wild navew or rape. *Brassica napus* of Linnæus. The seeds yield upon expression a large quantity of oil, called rape oil, which is sometimes ordered in stimulating liniments.

NAPUS DULCIS. See *Rapus*.

NAPUS SYLVESTRIS. See *Rapus*.

NARCŌSIS, (*Narcosis*, is, f. *ναρκασις*; from *ναρκαω*, to stupefy). Stupor, stupor, numbness.

NARCOTICS, (*Narcotica*, sc. *medicamenta*; from *ναρκαω*, to stupefy). See *Anodynes*.

NARD, CELTIC. See *Nardus celtica*.

NARD, INDIAN. See *Nardus indica*.

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NARDUS, (*Nardus*, i. f. *ναρδος*; from *nard*, Syr.). Spikenard.

NARDUS CELTICA. *Spica celtica*. Celtic nard. *Valeriana celtica* of Linnæus. The root of this plant, a native of the Alps, has been recommended as a stomachic, carminative, and diuretic. At present it is only used in this country in the theriaca and mithridate, though its sensible qualities promise some considerable medicinal powers. It has a moderately strong smell, and a warm, bitterish, sub-acrid taste.

NARDUS INDICA. *Spica nardi*. *Spica indica*. Indian nard or spikenard. The root of this plant, *Andropogon nardus* of Linnæus, is an ingredient in the mithridate and theriaca; it is moderately warm and pungent, accompanied with a flavour not disagreeable. It is said to be used amongst the Orientals as a spice.

NARDUS RUSTICA. An old name of the asarabacca. See *Asarum*.

NARES, (*Nares*, ium, pl. of *naris*, is, f. a nostril). The nostrils. The cavity of the nostrils is of a pyramidal figure, and is situated under the anterior part of the cranium, in the middle of the face. It is composed of fourteen bones, viz. the frontal, two maxillary, two nasal, two lachrymal, two inferior spongy, the sphænoid, the vomer, the ethmoid, and two palatine bones, which form several eminences and cavities. The eminences are the septum narium, the cavernous substance of the ethmoid bone, called the superior conchæ, and the inferior spongy bones. The cavities are three pair of pituitary sinuses, namely, the fron-

tal, sphæroid and maxillary; the anterior and posterior foramina of the nostrils; the ductus nasalis, the sphæno palatine foramina, and anterior palatine foramina. All these parts are covered with periotteum, and a pituitary membrane which secretes the mucus of the nostrils. The arteries of this cavity are branches of the internal maxillary. The veins empty themselves into the internal jugulars. The nerves are branches of the olfactory, ophthalmic, and superior maxillary. The use of the nostrils is for smelling, respiration, and speech.

NARIS COMPRESSOR. See *Compressor naris*.

NASĀLIS. See *Compressor naris*.

NASI, DEPRESSOR. See *Depressor labii superioris alicque nasi*.

NASĪ OSSA, (Nasus, i, m). The two small bones of the nose that are so termed, form the bridge of the nose. In figure they are quadrangular and oblong.

NASTURTĪUM. See *Nasturtium indicum*.

NASTURTĪUMAQUATĪCUM, (Nasturtium, quod nasum torquent, because the seed when bruising irritates the nose). Water cresse. This indigenous plant, *Sisymbrium nasturtium* of Linnæus, *Sisymbrium filiquis declinatis, foliis pinnatis, foliolis subcordatis*. Class *Tetradynamia*. Order *Siliquosa*, grows plentifully in brooks and stagnant waters. The leaves have a moderately pungent taste, emit a quick penetrating smell, like that of mustard seed, but much weaker. Water-cresses obtain a place in the materia medica, for their antiscorbutic qualities, which have been long very generally acknowledged by physicians. The most pleasant way of administering them is in form of salad.

NASTURTĪUM HORTENSE. Dittander. This plant is the *Lepidium sativum floribus tetradynamiis; foliis oblongis, multifidis* of Linnæus; it pos-

sesses warm, nervine, and stimulating qualities, and is given as an antiscorbutic, antiseptic, and stomachic, especially by the lower orders.

NASTURTĪUM INDĪCUM. Greater Indian cress or nasturtium. *Trapaolium majus* of Linnæus. This plant is a native of Peru; it was first brought to France in 1684, and there called *La grande capucine*. In its recent state this plant, and more especially its flowers, have a smell and taste resembling those of water cress; and the leaves, on being bruised in a mortar, emit a pungent odour, somewhat like that of horse-radish. By distillation with water they impregnate the fluid in a considerable degree with the smell and flavour of the plant. Hence the antiscorbutic character of the nasturtium seems to be well founded, at least as far as we are able to judge from its sensible qualities: therefore in all those cases where the warm antiscorbutic vegetables are recommended, this plant may be occasionally adopted as a pleasant and effectual variety. Patients to whom the nauseous taste of scurvy-grass is intolerable, may find a grateful substitute in the nasturtium. The flowers are frequently used in sallads, and the capsules are by many highly esteemed as a pickle. The flowers, in the warm summer months, about the time of sunset, have been observed to emit sparks like those of the electrical kind.

NATES, (Nates, is, pl. nates, ium, f. from *nato*, to flow: because the excrements are discharged from them). The fleshy parts upon which we sit.

NATES CEREBRI. See *Tubercula quadragermina*.

NATRON, (Natron, i, n. so called from *Natron*, a lake in Judea where it was produced). *Barilla*. Soda. Mineral alkali. Fossil alkali. This alkali is chiefly obtained from the *Salsoli kali* of Linnæus. Not only

this, but various other plants, on being burned, are found to afford this alkali, and some in a greater proportion than this; these are

The *Salsola fativa* Lin. *Salsola fonda*. Lofling. *Kali hispanicum spinum annuum sedi-foliis brevibus*. *Kali d' Alicante*. It grows abundantly on that part of the Spanish coast which is washed by the Mediterranean sea. This species is deservedly first enumerated by Professor Murray, as it supplies all the best soda consumed in Europe, which by us is called Spanish or Alicant soda, and by the Spanish merchants Barilla de Alicante. See *Barilla*.

Salsola soda. Lin. *Kali majus cochleato semine*. *Le Salicor*. This species, which grows on the French Mediterranean coast, is much used in Languedoc for the preparation of this salt, which is usually exported to Sicily and Italy.

Salsola tragus, Lin. affords an ordinary kind of soda, with which the French frequently mix that made in Languedoc. This adulteration is also practised by the Sicilians, who distinguish the plant by the term *salvaggia*.

Salicornia herbacea, Lin. is common in salt marshes, and on the seashore, all over Europe. Linnæus prefers the soda obtained from this plant to that of all the others; but though the quantity of fossil alkali which it yields is very considerable, as a great portion of it is united with muriatic acid, it is mixed with much common salt.

Salicornia arabica, Lin. *Mesembryanthemum nodiflorum*, Lin. *Plantago squarrosa*, Lin. All these, according to Alpinus, afford this alkali. It has also been procured from several of the Fuci, especially *F. vesiculatus*, and distinguished here by the name Kelp. Various other marine plants might also be noticed as yielding barilla or soda by com-

bustion; but the principal are confined to the genus *Salsola*, and that of *Salicornia*. The *Salsola kali*, on the authority of Rauwolf, is the species from which the salt is usually obtained in eastern countries.

It is to be regretted, that the different kinds of soda which are brought to European markets, have not been sufficiently analysed to enable us to ascertain with tolerable certainty the respective value of each; and indeed while the practice of adulterating this salt continues, any attempts of this kind are likely to prove fruitless. The best information on this subject is to be had from Jussica, Mascarelle, Cadet, Borlare, and Sestini. In those places where the preparation of soda forms a considerable branch of commerce, as on the coast of the Mediterranean, seeds of the *salsola* are regularly sown in a proper situation near the sea, which usually shoot above ground in the course of a fortnight. About the time the seeds become ripe, the plants are pulled up by the roots, and exposed in a suitable place to dry, where their seeds are collected; this being done, the plants are tied up in bundles, and burned in an oven constructed for the purpose, where the ashes are then while hot continually stirred with long poles. The saline matter, on becoming cold, forms a hard solid mass, which is afterwards broken in pieces of a convenient size for exportation.

According to chemical analysis, soda generally contains a portion of vegetable alkali, and neutral salts, as common salt, and sometimes vitriolated tartar, or Glauber salt, likewise liver of sulphur, and not unfrequently some portion of iron is contained in the mass; it is therefore to be considered as more or less a compound, and its goodness is to be estimated accordingly. The Spanish soda, of the best sort, is in dark coloured

masses, of a blueish tinge, very ponderous, sonorous, dry to the touch, and externally abounding with small cavities, without any offensive smell, and very salt to the taste; if long exposed to the air, it undergoes a degree of spontaneous calcination. The best French soda is also dry, sonorous, brittle, and of a deep blue colour, approaching to black. The soda which is mixed with small stones, which gives out a fetid smell on solution, and is white, soft, and deliquescent, is of the worst kind. The method of purifying this salt is directed in the London pharmacopœia, under the article of *Natron præparatum*, and in the Edinburgh pharmacopœia under that of *Sal alkalinus fixus fossilis purificatus*. The pure crystals, thus formed of Alicant barilla, are colourless, transparent, lamellated, of a rhomboidal figure, and one hundred parts are found to contain twenty of alkali, sixteen of aerial acid, and sixty-four of water; but upon keeping the crystals for a length of time, if the air be not excluded, the water evaporates, and they assume the form of a white powder. According to Inslin, one ounce of water at the temperature 62 of Fahr. dissolves five drams and fifteen grains of the crystals. The same author also found that this salt, though not so long as the vegetable alkali-natron, has been thought useful in scrophulous disorders, but it is seldom given in its simple state.

In combination with vitriolic acid the alkali forms Glauber salt, or *natron vitriolatum*; with nitrous acid, cubic nitre; with marine acid, common salt; with the sedative salt of Homberg, borax; with cream of tartar, Rochelle salt, or *sal seignette*.

Soda, or the mineral alkali as it is termed, is in common use in the manufacture of glass and soap, and as the

latter is an article of the materia medica, it will be proper to consider its medicinal effects in this place.

All the soaps, of which there are various kinds, are composed of expressed vegetable oils, or animal fats, united with alkaline lixivium. The *sapo ex oleo olivæ et natro confectus* of the London pharmacopœia, or the *sapo albus crispatus* of the Edinburgh pharmacopœia, (white Spanish soap), being made of the finer kinds of olive oil, is the best, and therefore preferred for internal use. Soap was imperfectly known to the ancients. It is mentioned by Pliny as made of fat and ashes, and as an invention of the Gauls. Aretæus and others inform us, that the Greeks obtained their knowledge of its medical use from the Romans. Its virtues, according to Bergin, are detergent, solvent, and aperient, and its use recommended in jaundices, gout, calculous complaints, and in obstructions of the viscera. The efficacy of soap, in the first of these diseases, was experienced by Sylvius, and since recommended very generally by various authors who have written on this complaint; and it has also been thought of use in supplying the place of bile in the *primæ viæ*. The utility of this medicine, in icterical cases, was inferred chiefly from its supposed power of dissolving biliary concretions; but this medicine has lost much of its reputation in jaundice, since it is now known, that gall-stones have been found in many after death, who had been daily taking soap for several months, and even years. Of its good effects in urinary calculous affections, we have the testimonies of several, especially when dissolved in lime water, by which its efficacy is considerably increased; for it thus becomes a powerful solvent of mucus, which an ingenious modern author supposes to be the chief agent in the formation

of calculi; it is however only in the incipient state of the disease that these remedies promise effectual benefit, though they generally abate the more violent symptoms, where they cannot remove the cause. With Boerhaave, soap was a general medicine; for as he attributed most complaints to viscosity of the fluids, he and most of the Boerhavian school prescribed it, in conjunction with different resinous and other substances, in gout, rheumatism, and various visceral complaints. Soap is also externally employed as a resolvent, and gives name to several official preparations.

NATRON MURIATUM. See *Murias soda*.

NATRON PRÆPARATUM. *Soda preparata. Sal soda. Alkali minerale aeratum.* This salt consists of soda saturated with carbonic acid, and is therefore called *carbonas soda* in the new chemical nomenclature. It is given in doses of from ten grains to half a drachm as an attenuant and antacid; and, joined with bark and aromatics, it is highly praised by some in the cure of scrophula. It is likewise a powerful solvent of mucus, a deobstruent and diuretic, and an antidote against oxyd of arsenic and the corrosive sublimate. The other diseases in which it is administered are those arising from an abundance of mucus in the primæ viæ; calculous complaints, gout, some affections of the skin, rickets, tinea capitis, crusta lactea, and worms. Externally it is recommended by some in the form of lotion, to be applied to scrophulous ulcers. See *Alkali minerale* and *Natron*.

NATRON TARTARISATUM. *Sal Rupellensis. Sal polychrestum seignetti. Alkali minerale tartarifatum.* This preparation is a combination of the acid of tartar with soda, and called in the new chemical nomenclature *tartaris soda*. It possesses mildly cathartic, diuretic, and deobstruent virtues,

and is administered in the dose of from half an ounce to an ounce as a cathartic, and in the dose of from twenty to thirty grains, in abdominal phlogosis, and torpidity of the kidneys.

NATRON VITRIOLATUM. *Alkali minerale vitriolatum. Sal mirabile seu catharticus Glauberi.* Glauber's salt. This preparation being a sulphat of the mineral alkali is termed *sulphas soda*, in the new chemical nomenclature. It possesses cathartic and diuretic qualities, and is in high esteem as a mild cathartic. It is found in the mineral kingdom formed by nature, but that which is used medicinally is prepared by art.

NATURAL ACTIONS. Natural functions. Those actions by which the body is preserved, as hunger, thirst, &c. See *Function*.

NAUSEA, (*Nausea, æ, f. νῆστος*, from *ναῦς*, a ship; because it is a sensation similar to that which people experience upon sailing in a ship). An inclination to vomit without effecting it; also a disgust of food, approaching to vomiting. It is an attendant on cardialgia, and a variety of other disorders, pregnancy, &c. occasioning an aversion for food, an increase of saliva, disgusted ideas at the sight of various objects, loss of appetite, debility, &c.

NAVEW, GARDEN. See *Rapus*.

NAVEW, SWEET. See *Rapus*.

NAVEW, WILD. See *Rapus*.

NAVICULARE OS, (*Navicularis*, from *navicula*, a little boat). *Os scaphoides*. A bone of the carpus and tarsus is so called from its supposed resemblance to a boat. See *Carpus* and *Tarsus*.

NECK, (*Collum, i, n.*). The parts which form the neck are divided into external and internal. The external parts are the common integuments, several muscles, eight pair of cervical nerves, the eighth pair of nerves of the cerebrum, and the great intercostal nerve, the two carotid ar-

teries, the two external jugular veins, and the two internal, the glands of the neck, viz. the jugular, submaxillary, cervical, and thyroid. The internal parts are the fauces, pharynx, œsophagus, larynx, and trachea. The bones of the neck are the seven cervical vertebræ.

NECRŌSIS, (*Necrosis*, is, f. νεκρωσις, from νεκρῶν, to destroy). The dry gangrene. A species of mortification, in which the parts become dry, insensible, and black, without any previous inflammation.

NEP. See *Nepeta*.

NEPĒTA, (*Nepeta*, æ, f. from *nepte*, Germ.). *Herba felis*. Nep, or catmint; so called because cats are very fond of it. The leaves of this plant, *Nepeta cataria*; *floribus spicatis*; *verticillis subpedicellatis*; *foliis petiolatis, cordatis, dentata-ferratis* of Linneus, have a moderately pungent aromatic taste and a strong smell like an admixture of spearmint and pennyroyal. The herb is recommended in uterine disorders, dyspepsia, and flatulency.

NĒPĒTA CATARĪA. The systematic name of the catmint. See *Nepeta*.

NEPHRALGĪA, (*Nephralgia*, æ, f. νεφραλγία, from νεφρός, the kidney, and αλγος, pain). Pain in the kidney.

NEPHRITICS, (*Nephritica*; sc. *medicamenta*, νεφρτικά, from νεφρός, the kidney). Medicines are so termed that are employed in the cure of diseases of the kidneys.

NEPHRITIC WOOD. See *Lignum nephriticum*.

NEPHRITĪCUM LIGNUM. See *Lignum nephriticum*.

NEPHRĪTIS, (*Nephritis*, idis, f. νεφριτις, from νεφρός, a kidney). Inflammation of the kidney. It is a genus of disease in the class *pyrexia*, and order *phlegmasia* of Cullen; known by pyrexia, pain in the region of the kidneys, and shooting along the course of the ureter; drawing up of the tes-

ticles; numbness of the thigh; vomiting; urine high coloured, and frequently discharged; costiveness and colic pains. Nephritis is symptomatic of calculus, gout, &c.

NEPHROTOMY, (*Nephrotomia*, æ, f. νεφροτομία, from νεφρός, a kidney and τέμνω, to cut). The operation of extracting a stone from the kidney.

NERĪUM ANTIDYSENTERĪCUM (*Nerium*, i, n. νηριον, from νηρος, humid; so called because it grows in moist places, and *antidysentericum*, from its virtues). The systematic name of the tree which affords the cadogan bark. See *Coniiffi cortex*.

NERVE, (*Nervus*, i, m. νευρον) Formerly it meant a sinew. This accounts for the opposite meanings of the word *nervous*; which sometime means strong, sinewy; and sometime weak and irritable. Nerves are long white medullary cords that serve for sensation. They originate from the brain and spinal marrow; hence they are distinguished into cerebral and spinal nerves, and are distributed upon the organs of sense, the viscera, vessels, muscles, and every part that is endowed with sensibility. The cerebral nerves are the olfactory, optic, motores oculorum, pathetici, trochleatores, trigimini, or divisi, abducent, auditory or acoustic, par vagum and lingual. Heister has drawn up the uses of these nerves in the two following verses:

*Olfaciens, cernens, oculosque movens
patiensque,*

*Gustans, abducens, audiensque, va-
gansque, loquensque.*

The spinal nerves are thirty pair, and are divided into eight pair of cervical, twelve pair of dorsal, five pair of lumbar, and five of sacral nerves. In the course of the nerves there are a number of knots, these are called *ganglions*; they are commonly of an oblong shape, and of a grayish colour, some

what inclined to red, which is, perhaps, owing to their being extremely vascular. Some writers have considered these little ganglions as so many little brains. Lancisi fancied he had discovered muscular fibres in them, but they certainly are not of an irritable nature. A late writer, Dr. Johnson, imagines they are intended to deprive us of the power of the will over certain parts, as the heart, for instance; but if this hypothesis were well founded, they should be met with only in nerves leading to involuntary muscles; whereas it is certain that the involuntary muscles receive nerves through ganglions. Dr. Munro, from observing the accurate intermixture of the minute nerves which compose them, considers them as new sources of nervous energy. The nerves, like the blood-vessels, in their course through the body, communicate with each other, and each of these communications constitute what is called a *plexus*, from whence branches are again detached to different parts of the body. The use of the nerves is to convey the principles of motion and sensibility to the brain, from all parts of the system, and from the brain to every part of the system. The manner in which this operation is effected is not yet determined. The inquiry has been a constant source of hypothesis in all ages, and has produced some ingenious ideas, and many erroneous positions, but without having hitherto afforded much satisfactory information. Some physiologists have considered a trunk of nerves as a solid cord, capable of being divided into an infinite number of filaments, by means of which the impressions of feeling are conveyed to the common sensorium. Others have opposed each fibril to be a canal, carrying a volatile fluid, which they term the *nervous fluid*. Those who contend for their being solid bodies, are of opinion that feeling is occasioned

by vibration; so that, for instance, according to this hypothesis, by pricking the finger, a vibration would be occasioned, in the nerve distributed through its substance; and the effects of this vibration, when extended to the sensorium, would be an excital of pain; but the inelasticity, the softness, the connection, and the situation of the nerves are so many proofs that vibration has no share in the cause of feeling.

A Table of the Nerves.

CEREBRAL NERVES.

1. The *first pair*, called *olfactory*.
2. The *second pair*, or *optic nerves*.
3. The *third pair*, or *oculorum motorii*.
4. The *fourth pair*, or *pathetici*.
5. The *fifth pair*, or *trigemini*, which gives off
 - a. The *ophthalmic*, or *orbital nerve*, which sends
 1. A *branch* to unite with one from the sixth pair, and form the great intercostal nerve.
 2. The *frontal nerve*.
 3. The *lachrymal*.
 4. The *nasal*.
 - b. The *superior maxillary*, which divides into
 1. The *spheno palatine nerve*.
 2. The *posterior alveolar*.
 3. The *infra orbital*.
 - c. The *inferior maxillary nerve*, from which arise
 1. The *internal lingual*.
 2. The *inferior maxillary*, properly so called.
6. The *sixth pair*, or *abducentes*, which send off
 1. A *branch* to unite with one from the fifth, and form the great intercostal.
 7. The *seventh pair*, or *auditory nerves*, these arise by two separate beginnings, viz.

The *portio dura*, a nerve going to the face.

The *portio mollis*, which is distributed on the ear.

The *portio dura* or *facial* nerve gives off the *chorda tympani*, and then proceeds to the face.

8. The *eighth* pair, or *par vagum*, arise from the medulla oblongata, and join with the accessory of Willis.

The *parvagum* gives off

1. The *right* and *left* *recurrent* nerve.
2. Several branches in the chest, to form the *cardiac plexus*.
3. Several branches to form the *pulmonic plexus*.
4. Several branches to form the *oesophageal plexus*.
5. It then forms in the abdomen the *stomachic plexus*.
6. The *hepatic plexus*.
7. The *splenic plexus*.
8. The *renal plexus*, receiving several branches from the great intercostal, which assists in their formation.
9. The *ninth* pair, or *lingual nerves*, which go from the medulla oblongata to the tongue.

SPINAL NERVES.

Those nerves are called *spinal* which pass out through the lateral or intervertical foramina of the spine.

They are divided into *cervical*, *dorsal*, *lumbar*, and *sacral* nerves.

CERVICAL NERVES.

The *cervical* nerves are *eight* pairs.

The *first* are called the *occipital*; they arise from the beginning of the spinal marrow, pass out between the margin of the occipital foramen and atlas, form a ganglion on its transverse process, and are distributed about the occiput and neck.

The *second* pair of cervical nerves send a branch to the accessory nerve of Willis, and proceed to the parotid gland and external ear.

The *third* cervical pair supply the integuments of the scapula, cuculla-

ris, and triangularis muscles, and send a branch to form with others the diaphragmatic nerve.

The *fourth*, *fifth*, *sixth*, *seventh*, and *eighth* pair all converge to form the *brachial plexus*, from which arise the six following

NERVES OF THE UPPER EXTREMITIES.

1. The *axillary* nerve, which sometimes arises from the radial nerve. It runs backwards and outwards around the neck of the humerus, and ramifies in the muscles of the scapula.

2. The *external cutaneal*, which perforates the coraco-brachialis muscle, to the bend of the arm, where it accompanies the median vein as far as the thumb, and is lost in its integuments.

3. The *internal cutaneal*, which descends on the inside of the arm, where it bifurcates. From the bend of the arm, the anterior branch accompanies the basilic vein, to be inserted into the skin of the palm of the hand; the posterior branch runs down the internal part of the fore-arm, to vanish in the skin of the little finger.

4. The *median* nerve, which accompanies the brachial artery to the cubit, then passes between the brachialis internus, pronator rotundus, and the perforatus and perforans, under the ligament of the wrist to the palm of the hand, where it sends off branches in every direction to the muscles of the hand, and then supplies the digital nerves, which go to the extremities of the thumb, fore and middle fingers.

5. The *ulnar* nerve, which descends between the brachial artery and basilic vein, between the internal condyle of the humerus, and the olecranon, and divides in the fore-arm into an *internal* and an *external* branch. The former passes over the ligament of the wrist and sesamoid bone, to the hand, where it divides

into three branches; two of which go to the ring and little finger, and the third forms an arch towards the thumb in the palm of the hand, and is lost in the contiguous muscles. The latter passes over the tendon of the extensor carpi ulnaris and back of the hand, to supply also the two last fingers.

6. The *radial* nerve, which sometimes gives off the axillary nerve. It passes backwards, about the os humeri, descends on the outside of the arm, between the brachialis externus and internus muscles to the cubit; then proceeds between the supinator longus and brevis to the superior extremity of the radius, giving off various branches to adjacent muscles. At this place it divides into two branches; *one* goes along the radius, between the supinator longus and radialialis internus to the back of the hand, and terminates in the interosseus muscles, the thumb and three first fingers; the *other* passes between the supinator brevis and head of the radius, and is lost in the muscles of the fore-arm.

DORSAL NERVES.

The *dorsal* nerves are twelve pairs in number. The first pair gives off a branch to the brachial plexus. All the dorsal nerves are distributed to the muscles of the back, intercostals, serrati, pectoral, abdominal muscles and diaphragm. The five inferior pairs go to the cartilages of the ribs, and are called *costal*.

LUMBAR NERVES.

The five pair of *lumbar* nerves are bestowed about the loins and muscles, in of the abdomen and loins, scrotum, ovaria, and diaphragm. The second, third, and fifth pair unite and form the *obturator nerve*, which descends over the psoas muscle into

the pelvis, and passes through the foramen thyroideum to the obturator muscle, triceps, pectineus, &c.

The third and fourth, with some branches of the second pair, form the *crural nerve*, which passes under Poupart's ligament with the femoral artery, sends off branches to the adjacent parts, and descends in the direction of the sartorius muscle to the internal condyle of the femur, from whence it accompanies the saphena vein to the internal ankle, to be lost in the skin of the great toe.

The fifth pair are joined to the first pair of the sacral nerves.

SACRAL NERVES.

There are five pair of *sacral* nerves, all of which arise from the *cauda equina*, or termination of the medulla spinalis; so called from the nerves resembling the tail of a horse. The four first pair give off branches to the pelvic viscera, and are afterwards united to the last lumbar, to form a large *plexus*, which gives off

The *ischiatric nerve*, the largest in the body. The ischiatic nerve immediately at its origin sends off branches to the bladder, rectum, and parts of generation; proceeds from the cavity of the pelvis through the ischiatic notch, between the tuberosity of the ischium and great trochanter, to the ham, where it is called the *popliteal nerve*. In the ham it divides into two branches.

1. The *peroneal*, which descends on the fibula, and distributes many branches to the muscles of the leg and back of the foot.

2. The *tibial*, which penetrates the gastrocnemii muscles to the internal ankle, passes through a notch in the os calcis to the sole of the foot, where it divides into an *internal* and *external plantar* nerve, which supply the muscles and aponeurosis of the foot and the toes.

NERVINES, (*Nervina*, sc. *medicamenta*, from *nervus*). Neurotics. Medicines that relieve disorders of the nerves.

NERVOUS FEVER. See *Febris nervosa*.

NERVOUS FLUID. Nervous principle. The vascularity of the cortical part of the brain, and of the nerves themselves, their softness, pulpiness, and natural humid appearance, give reason to believe that between the medullary particles of which they are principally composed, a fine fluid is constantly secreted, which may be fitted to receive and transmit, even more readily than other fluids do, all impressions which are made on it. It appears to exhale from the extremities of the nerves. The lassitude and debility of *muscles* from too great exercise, and the dulness of the sensorial organs from excessive use, would seem to prove this. It has no *smell* nor *taste*; for the cerebrine medulla is insipid and inodorous. Nor has it any *colour*, for the cerebrum and nerves are white. It is of so subtle a *consistence*, as never to have been detected. Its *mobility* is *stupendous*, for in less than a moment, with the consent of the mind, it is conveyed from the cerebrum to the muscles, like the electric matter. Whether the nervous fluid be carried from the organ of sense in the *sensorial* nerves to the cerebrum, and from thence in the *motory* nerves to the muscles; cannot be positively affirmed, but may be proved. The *constituent principles* of this liquid are perfectly unknown, as they cannot be rendered visible by art, or proved by experiment. Upon making a ligature upon a nerve, the motion of the fluid is interrupted, which proves that something corporeal flows through it. It is therefore a weak argument to deny its existence because we cannot see it; for who has seen the matter of heat, oxygen,

azot, and other elementary bodies, the existence of which no physician in the present day doubts? The *electric matter*, whose action on the nerves is very great, does not appear to constitute the nervous fluid; for nerves exhibit no signs of spontaneous electricity; nor can it be the *magnetic matter*, as the experiment of Gavian with the magnet demonstrates; nor is it *oxygen*, nor *hydrogen*, nor *azot*; for the first very much irritates the nerves, and the other two suspend their action. The nervous fluid, therefore, is an *element sui generis*, which exists and is produced in the nerves only; hence, like other elements, it is a thing unknown, and only to be known by its effects. The pulposity softness of some nerves, and their lax situation, does not allow them and the brain to act on the body and soul only by *oscillation*. Lastly, a tense chord, although tied, oscillates. The *use* of the nervous fluid is, 1. It appears to be an intermediate substance between the body and the soul, by means of which the latter thinks, perceives, and moves the muscles subservient to the will. Hence the body acts upon the soul, and the soul upon the body. 2. It appears to differ from the *vital principle*; for parts live and are irritable which want nerves, as bones, tendons, plants, and insects.

NERVOUS SYSTEM, PHYSIOLOGY OF. The nervous system, as the organ of sense and motion, is connected with so many functions of the animal economy, that the study of it must be of the utmost importance, and a fundamental part of the study of the whole economy. The nervous system consists of the medullary substance of the brain, cerebellum, medulla oblongata, and spinalis; and of the same substance continued into the nerves by which it is distributed to many different parts of the body. Th

whole of this system seems to be properly distinguished into these four parts.

1. The medullary substance contained in the cranium and vertebral cavity; the whole of which seems to consist of distinct fibres, but without the smaller fibres being separated from each other by any evident enveloping membranes.

2. Connected with one part or other of this substance are, the *nerves*, in which the same medullary substance is continued, but here more evidently divided into fibres, each of which is separated from the others by an enveloping membrane derived from the pia mater.

3. Parts of the extremities of certain nerves, in which the medullary substance is divested of the enveloping membranes from the pia mater, and so situated as to be exposed to the action of certain external bodies, and perhaps so framed as to be affected by the action of certain bodies only: these are named the *sensitive extremities* of the nerves.

4. Certain extremities of the nerves so framed as to be capable of a peculiar contractility; and, in consequence of their situation and attachments, to be, by their contraction, capable of moving most of the solid and fluid parts of the body. These are named the *moving extremities* of the nerves: They are commonly named *moving* or *muscular fibres*.

These several parts of the nervous system are every where the same continuous medullary substance which is supposed to be the vital solid of animals, so constituted in living animals, and in living systems only, as to admit of motions being readily propagated from any one part to every other part of the nervous system, so long as the continuity and natural living state of the medullary substance remains. In the living man, there is an immaterial thinking sub-

stance, or *mind*, constantly present, and every phenomenon of thinking is to be considered as an affection or faculty of the mind alone. But this immaterial and thinking part of man is so connected with the material and corporeal part of him, and particularly with the nervous system, that motions excited in this give occasion to thought, and thought, however occasioned, gives occasion to new motions in the nervous system. This mutual communication or influence is assumed with confidence as a fact: but the mode of it we do not understand, nor pretend to explain; and therefore are not bound to obviate the difficulties that attend any of the suppositions which have been made concerning it. The phenomena of the nervous system occur commonly in the following order. The impulse of external bodies acts upon the sentient extremities of the nerves; and this gives occasion to perception or thought, which, as first arising in the mind, is termed *sensation*. This sensation, according to its various modification, gives occasion to *volition*, or the willing of certain ends to be obtained by the motion of certain parts of the body; and this volition gives occasion to the contraction of muscular fibres, by which the motion of the part required is produced. As the impulse of bodies on the sentient extremities of a nerve does not occasion any sensation, unless the nerve between the sentient extremity and the brain be free, and as, in like manner, volition does not produce any contraction of muscles, unless the nerve between the brain and muscle be also free, it is concluded, from both these facts, that sensation and volition, so far as they are connected with corporeal motions, are functions of the brain alone; and it is presumed, that sensation arises only in consequence of external impulse producing motion in the sentient extremities of the

nerves, and of that motion's being thence propagated along the nerves to the brain; and, in like manner, that the will operating in the brain only, by a motion begun there, and propagated along the nerves, produces the contraction of muscles. From what is now said, we perceive more distinctly the different functions of the several parts of the nervous system as distinguished in, 1. The sentient extremities seem to be particularly fitted to receive the impressions of external bodies; and, according to the difference of these impressions, and of the condition of the sentient extremity itself, to propagate along the nerves motions of a determined kind, which, communicated to the brain, give occasion to sensation. 2. The brain seems to be a part fitted for, and susceptible of, those motions with which sensation, and the whole consequent operations of thought, are connected; and thereby is fitted to form a communication between the motions excited in the sentient, and those in consequence arising in the moving extremities of the nerves, which are often remote and distant from each other. 3. The moving extremities are so framed as to be capable of contraction, and of having this contraction excited by motion propagated from the brain, and communicated to the contractile fibre. 4. The nerves, more strictly so called, are to be considered as a collection of medullary fibres, each enveloped in its proper membrane, and thereby so separated from every other, as hardly to admit of any communication of motion from any one to the others, and to admit only of motion along the continuous medullary substance of the same fibre, from its origin to the extremities, or contrarywise. From this view of the parts of the nervous system, of their several functions and communication with each other, it appears, that the be-

ginning of motion in the animal economy, is generally connected with sensation: and that the ultimate effects of such motion are chiefly actions depending immediately upon the contraction of moving fibres, between which and the sentient extremities the communication is by means of the brain.

NETTLE, COMMON. See *Urtica*.

NETTLE, DEAD. See *Lamium album*.

NEUROLOGY, (*Neurologia*, *a*, *f*. *νευρολογία*; from *νευροι*, a nerve, and *λογια*, a discourse). The doctrine of the nerves.

NEURŌSES, (*Neurosis*, *is*, *f*. *νευρωσις*; from *νευρον*, a nerve). Nervous diseases. The second class of Cullen's nosology is so called; it comprehends affections of sense and motion, disturbed; without either idiopathic pyrexia, or topical diseases.

NEUTRAL SALTS. Secondary salts. Under the name of neutral or secondary salts are comprehended such matters as are composed of two primitive saline substances combined together. They are called neutral, because they do not possess the characters of acid nor alkaline salts, which are primitive salts; such are Epsom salts, alum, nitre, &c.

NICKEL. A mineral mostly found united with sulphur and arsenic. Its ores have a coppery red colour, and are almost always covered with a greenish gray efflorescence. It is very plentiful in Saxony.

NICOTIANA, (*Nicotiana*, *a*, *f*. from Mr. Nicott, who first brought it into Europe.) Tobacco. The Virginian tobacco, *Nicotiana tabacum foliis lanceolato-ovatis sessilibus decurrentibus, floribus acutis* of Linnæus. Class *Pentandria*. Order *Monogynia*, is the plant employed medicinally. It is a very active narcotic and sternutatory. A decoction of the leaves is

much esteemed in some diseases of the skin, and it is by some said to be a specific against the itch. The fumes and the decoction are employed in obstinate constipations of the bowels, and very frequently with success; it is necessary, however, to caution the practitioner against an effect mostly produced by its exhibition, namely, syncope, with cold sweats; and in some instances, death.

NICOTIĀNA MINOR. *Tobacco anglicum. Priapeia. Hyosciamus luteus.* English tobacco. This plant, *Nicotiana rustica* of Linnæus, is much weaker than the Virginian tobacco; the leaves are chiefly used to smoke vermin, though they promise, from their more gentle operation, to be a safer remedy in some cases than the former.

NICOTIĀNA RUSTICA. The systematic name of the English tobacco. See *Nicotiana minor*.

NICOTIĀNA TABACUM. The systematic name of the tobacco plant. See *Nicotiana*.

NIGELLA, (*Nigella*, *a*, f. *quasi nigrella*; from *niger*, black, so named from its black seed). Devil in a bush, or fennel flower. This plant, *Nigella fativa* of Linnæus, was formerly employed medicinally as an expectorant and deobstruent, but is now deservedly fallen into disuse.

NIGELLA SATIVA. The systematic name of the devil in a bush. See *Nigella*.

NIGHT-MARE. *Incubus. Oneirodynia gravans.* The nervous or indisposed persons are oppressed during sleep with a heavy pressing sensation on the chest, by which respiration is impeded, or the circulation of blood intercepted, to such a degree as to threaten suffocation. Frightful ideas are recollected on waking, which occupied the dreaming mind. Frequent attempts are made to cry out, but often without effect, and the

horrors and agitations felt by the patient are inexpressibly frightful. The sensations generally originate in a large quantity of wind, or indigestible matter in the stomach of *supper eaters*, which pressing the stomach against the diaphragm, impede respiration, or render it short and convulsed. Inflated intestines may likewise produce similar effects, or mental perturbations.

There is another species of nightmare mentioned by authors, which has a more dangerous tendency; and this arises from an impeded circulation of blood in the lungs, when lying down, or too great relaxation of the heart and its impelling powers. Epilepsy, apoplexy, or sudden death, are sometimes amongst the consequences of this species of disturbed sleep. Polypi in the large vessels, aneurisms, water in the thorax, pericardium, or lungs, empyema, &c. are amongst the most dangerous causes. See *Oneirodynia*.

NIGHTSHADE, AMERICAN. See *Phytolacca decandria*.

NIGHTSHADE, DEADLY. See *Belladonna*.

NIGHTSHADE, GARDEN. See *Solanum*.

NIGHTSHADE, PALESTINE. See *Solanum sanctum*.

NIGHTSHADE, WOODY. See *Dulcamara*.

NIHILUM ALBUM. See *Zincum calcinatum*.

NINSI RADIX. *Ninzin. Nindsin.* This root was long supposed to be the same as ginseng. It now appears, however, to be the produce of a different plant, the *Sium ninsi, foliis serratis, pinnatis; rameis ternatis* of Linnæus, possessing similar though weaker properties than ginseng.

NINZIN. See *Ninfi radix*.

NIPPLE. The small projecting portion in the middle of the breasts of men and women. It is much larger in the latter, and has opening in it

the excretory ducts of the lacteal glands.

NIPPLE WORT.. See *Lampfana*.

NITRAS AMMONIACÆ. *Alkali volatile nitratum*. *Sal ammoniacus nitrosus*. *Ammonia nitrata*. Its virtues are irritating, diuretic, and deobstruent; externally, it is resolvent and sialagogue.

NITRAS ARGENTI FUSUS. See *Argentum nitratum*.

NITRAS HYDRARGYRI. *Hydrargyrum nitrosum*. Of this substance there are two preparations, the crystallized and the acid nitrate of quicksilver. Its caustic quality points out its irritating, emetic, diuretic, and alterative virtues. It is used in syphilis and phagedenic ulcers. The unguentum citrinum is prepared from it.

NITRAS POTASSÆ. See *Nitre*.

NITRAS POTASSÆ FUSUS. *Sal prunella*. *Nitrum tabulatum*. This salt, besides the nitric acid and potash, contains a little sulphuric acid.

NITRAS SODÆ. *Alkali minerale nitratum*. *Nitrum cubicum*. Its virtues are similar to those of nitrate of potash, for which it may be safely substituted.

NITRATES, (*Nitras, tis, m.*). Neutral salts, formed by the union of the nitric acid with different bases; as *nitrat of magnesia*, *nitrat of mercury*, &c.

NITRE, (*Nitrum, i, n. νίτρον*). *Nitras potassæ impurus*. Salt petre. A perfect neutral salt formed by the union of the nitrous acid with the fixed vegetable alkali. Its taste is cooling, and it does not alter the colour of the syrup of violets. Nitre exists in large quantities in the earth, and is continually formed in inhabited places; it is found in great quantities upon walls which are sheltered from the rain. It is of great use in the arts; it is the principal ingredient in gunpowder; and burned with different proportions of tartar, forms the sub-

stances called fluxes. It is of considerable importance in medicine, as a febrifuge, diuretic, and antiphlogistic remedy.

NITRITES, (*Nitris, tis, m.*). Salts formed by the combination of the nitrous acid with different bases; thus, *nitrite of zinc*, *nitrite of silver*, &c.

NITROGEN GAZ. See *Azot*.

NOCTAMBULATION. Walking in the night when asleep. See *Oneirodynia*.

NODDING CNICUS. The systematic name of this plant is *Cnicus cernuus* of Linnæus. In Siberia the tender stalks are first peeled and then boiled and eaten by the inhabitants.

NOLI ME TANGERE. A species of herpes that is very difficult to cure, is so termed by authors, because it is exasperated by most applications.

NOMÆ, (*Nomæ, arum, f. from νεμα, to eat*). Ulcers that sometimes attack the cheek or vulva of young girls. They appear in the form of red and somewhat livid spots; are not attended with pyrexia, pain, or tumour, and in a few days become gangrenous.

NON-NATURALS. Under this term physicians comprehend air, meat and drink, sleep and watching, motion and rest, retention and excretion, and the affections of the mind.

NORLANDICÆ BACCÆ. The fruit of the *Rubus arcticus* of Linnæus, which this illustrious character found very grateful and refreshing in his tour through the northern part of Sweden. In putrid fever, exanthematous diseases, and scurvy, they promise to be like other summer fruits, very serviceable.

NOSE. *Nasus*. See *Nares*.

NOSOLOGY, (*Nosologia, æ, f. from νοσολογία; from νοσος, a disease, and λογος, a discourse*). The doctrine of the names of diseases. Modern physicians understand by nosology the arrangement of diseases in classes, ge-

nera, species, &c. The following Cullen is generally adopted in this
are the approved arrangements of the country, and next to it the arrange-
several nosologists. That of Dr. ment of Sauvage.

*Synoptical view of the Classes, Orders, and Genera,
according to the CULLENIAN system.*

CLASS I.—PYREXIÆ.

ORDER I. FEBRES.

§ 1. *Intermittentes.*

1. Tertianæ

2. Quartanæ

3. Quotidianæ

§ 2. *Continuæ.*

4. Synocha

5. Typhus

6. Synochus

ORDER II.

PHLEGMASIÆ.

7. Phlogosis

8. Ophthalmia

9. Phrenitis

10. Cynanche

11. Pneumonia

12. Carditis

13. Peritonitis

14. Gastritis

15. Enteritis

16. Hepatitis

17. Splenitis

18. Nephritis

19. Cystitis

20. Hysteritis

21. Rheumatismus

22. Odontalgia

23. Podagra

24. Arthropuosis

ORDER III.

EXANTHEMATA.

25. Variola

26. Varicella

27. Rubeola

28. Scarlatina

29. Pestis.

30. Erysipelas

31. Miliaria

32. Urticaria

33. Pemphigus

34. Aphthæ

ORDER IV.

HÆMORRHAGIÆ.

35. Epistaxis

36. Hæmoptysis

37. Hæmorrhoids

38. Menorrhagia

39. Catarrhus

40. Dysenteria

*Order V
Profusio*

CLASS II.—NEUROSES.

ORDER I. COMATA.

41. Apoplexia

42. Paralysis

ORDER II.

ADYNAMIÆ.

43. Syncope

44. Dyspepsia

45. Hypochondriasis

46. Chlorosis

ORDER III. SPASMI.

47. Tetanus

48. Trismus

49. Convulsio

50. Chorea

51. Raphania

52. Epilepsia

53. Palpitatio

54. Asthma

55. Dyspnœa

56. Pertussis

57. Pyrosis

58. Cholica

59. Cholera

60. Diarrhœa

61. Diabetes

62. Hysteria

63. Hydrophobia

ORDER IV.

VESANIA.

64. Amentia

65. Melancholia

66. Mania

67. Oneyrodynia

CLASS III.—CACHEXIÆ.

ORDER I.
MARCORES.

68. Tabes
69. Atrophia

ORDER II.
INTUMESCENTIÆ.

- § 1. *Adiposa*.
70. Polyfarcia
§ 2. *Flatuosa*.
71. Pneumatosis
72. Tympanites

73. Physometra
§ 3. *Aquosa*.
74. Anasarca
75. Hydrocephalus
76. Hydrorachitis
77. Hydrothorax
78. Ascites
79. Hydrometa
80. Hydrocele
§ 4. *Solida*.
81. Physconia
82. Rachitis

ORDER III.
IMPETIGINES.

83. Scrophula
84. Syphilis
85. Scorbutus
86. Elephantiasis
87. Lepra
88. Frambesia
89. Tricoma
90. Icterus

CLASS IV.—LOCALES.

ORDER I.
DYSÆSTHESIÆ.

91. Caligo
92. Amaurosis
93. Dysopia
94. Pseudoblephitis
95. Dysecocia
96. Paracusis
97. Anosmia
98. Agheusia
99. Anæsthesia

ORDER II.
DYSOREXIÆ.

- § 1. *Appetitus erronei*.
100. Bulimia
101. Polydipsia
102. Pica
103. Satyriasis
104. Nymphomania
105. Nostalgia
§ 2. *Appetitus deficientes*.
106. Anorexia
107. Adipsia
108. Anaphrodisia

ORDER III.
DYSCINESIÆ.

109. Aphonia

110. Mutitas
111. Paraphonia
112. Pselismus
113. Strabismus
114. Dysphagia
115. Contractura

ORDER IV.
APOCENOSES.

116. Profusio
117. Ephidrosis
118. Epiphora
119. Ptyalismus
120. Enuresis
121. Gonorrhoea

ORDER V.
EPISCHESES.

122. Obstipatio
123. Ischuria
124. Dysuria
125. Dyspermatismus
126. Amenorrhoea

ORDER VI.
TUMORES.

127. Aneurisma
128. Varix

129. Ecchymoma
130. Schirrus
131. Cancer
132. Bubo
133. Sarcoma
134. Veruca
135. Clavus
136. Lupia
137. Ganglion
138. Hydatid
139. Hyarthrus
140. Exostosis

ORDER VII.
ECTOPIÆ.

141. Hernia
142. Prolapsus
143. Luxatio

ORDER VIII.
DIALYSES.

144. Vulnus
145. Ulcus
146. Herpes
147. Tinea
148. Pfora
149. Fractura
150. Caries

Synoptical view of the system of SAUVAGES.

CLASS I. VITIA.

ORDER I.
MACULÆ.

- Genus* 1. Leucoma
2. Vitiligo
3. Ephelis
4. Gutta rosea
5. Nævus
6. Ecchymoma

ORDER II.
EFFLORESCEN-
TIÆ.

7. Herpes
8. Epiniētis
9. Psylidracia
10. Hidroa

ORDER III.
PHYMATA.

11. Erythema
12. Œdema
13. Emphysema
14. Scirrhus
15. Phlegmone
16. Bubo
17. Parotis
18. Furunculus
19. Anthrax
20. Cancer
21. Paronychia
22. Phimosis

ORDER IV.
EXCRESCENTIAE.

23. Sarcoma

24. Condyloma
25. Verruca
26. Pterygium
27. Hordeolum
28. Bronchocele
29. Exostosis
30. Gibbositas
31. Lordosis

ORDER V.
CYSTIDES.

32. Aneurisma
33. Varix
34. Hydatis
35. Marisca
36. Staphyloma
37. Lupia
38. Hydrarthrus
39. Apotema
40. Exomphalus
41. Oscheocele

ORDER VI.
ECTOPIAE.

42. Exophthalmia
43. Blepharoptosis
44. Hypostophyle
45. Paraglossa

ORDER VI.
ECTOPIAE.

46. Proptoma
47. Exania
48. Exocyste

49. Hyfteroptosis
50. Enterocoele
51. Epiplocele
52. Gasterocoele
53. Hepatocoele
54. Splenocoele
55. Hyfterocoele
56. Cystocoele
57. Encephalocoele
58. Hyfteroloxia
59. Parorchydium
60. Exarthrema
61. Diastasis
62. Laxarthrus

ORDER VII.
PLAGAE.

63. Vulnus
64. Punctura
65. Excoriatio
66. Contusio
67. Fractura
68. Fissura
69. Ruptura
70. Amputatura
71. Ulcus
72. Exulceratio
73. Sinus
74. Fistula
75. Rhagus
76. Eschara
77. Caries
78. Arthrocece

CLASS II. FEBRES.

ORDER I.
CONTINUÆ.

79. Ephemera
80. Synocha
81. Synochus
82. Typhus
83. Hecica

ORDER II.
REMITTENTES.

84. Amphimerina
85. Tritæophya
86. Tetartophya

ORDER III.
INTERMITTEN-
TES.

87. Quotidiana
88. Tertianæ
89. Quartana
90. Erratica

CLASS III. PHLEGMASIÆ.

ORDER I.

EXAMTHEMATI-
CÆ.

- 91. Pestis
- 92. Variola
- 93. Pemphigus
- 94. Rubeola
- 95. Miliaris
- 96. Purpura
- 97. Erythipelas
- 98. Scarlatina
- 99. Effera
- 100. Aphtha

ORDER II.

MEMBRANACEÆ.

- 101. Phrenitis
- 102. Paraphrenesis
- 103. Pleuritis
- 104. Gastritis
- 105. Enteritis
- 106. Epiploitis
- 107. Metritis
- 108. Cystitis

ORDER III.

PARENCHYMA-
TOSÆ.

- 109. Cephalitis
- 110. Cynanche
- 111. Carditis
- 112. Peripneumonia
- 113. Hepatitis
- 114. Splenitis
- 115. Nephritis

CLASS IV. SPASMI.

ORDER I.

TONICI PARTIA-
LES.

- 116. Strabismus
- 117. Trismus
- 118. Obstipitas
- 119. Contractura
- 120. Crampus
- 121. Priapismus

ORDER II.

TONICI GENERA-
LES.

- 122. Tetanus

- 123. Catochus

ORDER III.

CLONICI PARTIA-
LES.

- 124. Nyctagmus
- 125. Carphologia
- 126. Pandiculatio
- 127. Apomyttosis
- 128. Convulsio
- 129. Tremor
- 130. Palpitatio
- 131. Claudicatio

ORDER IV.

CLONICI GENE-
RALES.

- 132. Rigor
- 133. Eclampsia
- 134. Epilepsia
- 135. Hysteria
- 136. Scelotyrbæ
- 137. Beriberia

CLASS V. ANHELATIONES.

ORDER I.

SPASMODICÆ.

- 138. Ephialtes
- 139. Sternutatio
- 140. Oscedo
- 141. Singultus
- 142. Tussis

ORDER II.

OPPRESSIVÆ.

- 143. Stertor
- 144. Dyspnœa
- 145. Asthma

- 146. Orthopnœa
- 147. Angina
- 148. Pleurodyne
- 149. Rhuma
- 150. Hydrothorax
- 151. Empyema

CLASS VI. DEBILITATES.

ORDER I.

DYSÆSTHESIÆ.

152. Cataracta
 153. Caligo
 154. Amblyopia
 155. Amaurosis
 156. Anosmia
 157. Agheusia
 158. Dysecœa
 159. Paracusis
 160. Cophosis
 161. Anæsthesia

ORDER II.

ANEPITHYMIÆ.

162. Anorexia
 163. Anipsia
 164. Anaphrodisia

ORDER III.

DYSCINESIÆ.

165. Mutitas
 166. Aphonia
 167. Psellismus
 168. Paraphonia
 169. Paralysis
 170. Hemiplegia
 171. Paraplexia

ORDER IV.

LEIPOPSYCHIÆ.

172. Asthenia
 173. Leipothymia
 174. Syncope
 175. Asphyxia

ORDER V.

COMATA.

176. Catalepsis
 177. Ecstasis
 178. Typhomania
 179. Lethargus
 180. Cataphora
 181. Carus
 182. Apoplexia

CLASS VII. DOLORES.

ORDER I.

VAGI.

183. Arthritis
 184. Ostocopus
 185. Rhumatismus
 186. Catarrhus
 187. Anxietas
 188. Lassitudo
 189. Stupor
 190. Pruritus
 191. Algor
 192. Ardor

195. Hemicrania
 196. Ophthalmia
 197. Otalgia
 198. Odontalgia

ORDER III.

PECTORIS.

199. Dysphagia
 200. Pyrosis
 201. Cardiognus

ORDER IV.

ABDOMINALES

INTERNI.

202. Cardialgia
 203. Gastrodynia

204. Colica
 205. Hepatalgia
 206. Splenalgia
 207. Nephralgia
 208. Dyftocia
 209. Hyfteralgia

ORDER V.

EXTERNI ET AR-
TUUM.

210. Mastodynia
 211. Rachialgia
 212. Lumbago
 213. Ischias
 214. Proctalgia
 215. Pudendagra

ORDER II.

CAPITIS.

193. Cephalalgia
 194. Cephalæa

CLASS VIII. VESANIAE.

ORDER I.

HALLUCINATI-
ONES.

216. Vertigo
 217. Suffusio
 218. Diplopia

219. Syrogmos
 220. Hypochondriasis
 221. Somnambulismus

ORDER II.

MOROSITATES.

222. Pica

223. Bulimia
 224. Polydipsia
 225. Antipathia
 226. Nostalgia
 227. Panophobia
 228. Satyriasis
 229. Nymphomania

230. Tarantismus
231. Hydrophobia

ORDER III.
DELIRIA.

232. Paraphrosyne

233. Amentia
234. Melancholia
235. Mania
236. Demonomania

ORDER IV.
VESANIAE ANO-
MALAE.

237. Amnesia.
238. Agrypnia.

CLASS IX. FLUXUS.

ORDER I.
SANGUIFLUXUS.

239. Hæmorrhagia
240. Hæmoptosis
241. Stomacace
242. Hæmatemesis
243. Hæmaturia
244. Menorrhagia
245. Abortus

ORDER II.
ALVIFLUXUS.

246. Hepatirrhœa
247. Hæmorrhœis
248. Dysenteria
249. Melæna

250. Nausea
251. Vomitus
252. Ileus
253. Cholera
254. Diarrhœa
255. Cæliaca
256. Lienteria
257. Tenesmus

ORDER III.
SERIFLUXUS.

258. Ephidrosis
259. Epiphora
260. Coryza
261. Ptyalismus
262. Anacatharsis

263. Diabetes
264. Eneuresis
265. Dysuria
266. Pyuria
267. Leucorrhœa
268. Gonorrhœa
269. Dyspermatismus
270. Galactirrhœa
271. Octorrhœa

ORDER IV.
AERIFLUXUS.

272. Flatulenta
273. Aedopsophia
274. Dysodia

CLASS X. CACHEXIAE.

ORDER I.
MACIES.

275. Tabes
276. Phthisis
277. Atrophia
278. Aridura

ORDER II.
INTUMESCEN-
TIAE.

279. Polyfarcia
280. Pneumatosis
281. Anasarca
282. Phlegmatia
283. Physconia
284. Graviditas

ORDER III.
HYDROPE PAR-
TIALES.

285. Hydrocephalus
286. Physocephalus

287. Hydrorachitis
288. Ascites
289. Hydrometra
290. Physometra
291. Tympanites
292. Metrorismus
293. Ischuria

ORDER IV.
TUBERA.

294. Rachitis
295. Scrophula
296. Carcinoma
297. Leontiasis
298. Malis
299. Frambœsia

ORDER V.
IMPETIGINES.

300. Syphilis
301. Scorbutus

302. Elephantiasis
303. Lepra
304. Scabies
305. Tinea

ORDER VI.
ICTERITIAE.

306. Aurigo
307. Melasicterus.
308. Phænigmus
309. Chlorosis

ORDER VII.
CACHEXIAE ANO-
MALAE.

310. Phthiriasis
311. Trichoma
312. Alopecia
313. Eleosis
314. Gangræna
315. Necrosis

Synoptical view of the system of LINNÆUS.

CLASS I. EXANTHEMATICI.

ORDER I.
CONTAGIOSI.

1. Morta
2. Pestis
3. Variola
4. Rubæola

5. Petechia
6. Syphilis

ORDER II.
SPORADICI.

7. Miliaria

8. Uredo
9. Aphtha.

ORDER III.
SOLITARII.

10. Erysipelas.

CLASS II. CRITICI.

ORDER I.
CONTINENTES.

11. Diaria
12. Synocha
13. Synochus
14. Lenta

ORDER II.
INTERMITTENTES.

15. Quotidiana
16. Tertiana
17. Quartana
18. Duplicana
19. Errana

ORDER III.
EXACERBANTES.

20. Amphimerina
21. Tritæus
22. Tetartophia
23. Hemitritæa
24. Hæctica

CLASS III. PHLOGISTICI.

ORDER I.
MEMBRANACEI.

25. Phrenitis
26. Paraphrenesis
27. Pleuritis
28. Gastritis
29. Enteritis
30. Proctitis

31. Cystitis

ORDER II.
PARENCHYMATICI.

32. Sphacelismus
33. Cynanche
34. Peripneumonia

35. Hepatitis
36. Splenitis
37. Nephritis
38. Hysteritis

ORDER III.
MUSCULOSI.

39. Phlegmone

CLASS IV. DOLOROSI.

ORDER I.
INTRINSECI.

40. Cephalalgia
41. Hermicrania

42. Gravedo
43. Ophthalmia
44. Otalgia
45. Odontalgia

46. Angina
47. Soda
48. Cardialgia
49. Gastrica

50. Colica
 51. Hepatica
 52. Splenica
 53. Pleuritica
 54. Pneumonica
 55. Hysteralgia
 56. Nephritica

57. Dysuria
 58. Pudendagra
 59. Proctica

ORDER II.
 EXTRINSECI.
 60. Arthritis

61. Ostocopus
 62. Rheumatismus
 63. Volatica
 64. Pruritus

CLASS V. MENTALES.

ORDER I.
 IDEALES.
 65. Delirium
 66. Paraphrosyne
 67. Amentia
 68. Mania
 69. Dæmonia
 70. Vefania
 71. Melancholia

73. Phantasma
 74. Vertigo
 75. Panophobia
 76. Hypochondriasis
 77. Somnambulismus

ORDER III.
 PATHETICI.
 78. Citta
 79. Bulimia

80. Polydipsia
 81. Satyriasis
 82. Erotomania
 83. Nostalgia
 84. Tarantismus
 85. Rabies
 86. Hydrophobia
 87. Cacofitia
 88. Antipathia
 89. Anxietas

ORDER II.
 IMAGINARIII.
 72. Syringmos

CLASS VI. QUIETALES.

ORDER I.
 DEFECTIVI.
 90. Lassitudo
 91. Languor
 92. Asthenia
 93. Lipothymia
 94. Syncope
 95. Asphyxia

98. Lethargus
 99. Cotaphora
 100. Carus
 101. Apoplexia
 102. Paraplegia
 103. Hemiplegia
 104. Paralysis
 105. Stupor.

ORDER II.
 SOPOROSI.
 96. Somnolentia
 97. Typhomania

ORDER III.
 PRIVATIVI.
 106. Morosis
 107. Oblivio

108. Ambliopia
 109. Cataracta
 110. Amaurosis
 111. Scotomia
 112. Cophosis
 113. Anosmia
 114. Ageusia
 115. Aphonia
 116. Anorexia
 117. Adipsia
 118. Anæsthesia
 119. Atechnia
 120. Atonia

CLASS VII. MOTORII.

ORDER I.
 SPASTICI.
 121. Spasmus
 122. Priapismus.
 123. Borborygmus
 124. Trismus
 125. Sardiasis

126. Hysteria
 127. Tetanus
 128. Catochus
 129. Catalepsis
 130. Agrypnia

ORDER II.
 AGITATORII.
 131. Tremor
 132. Palpitatio
 133. Orgasmus
 134. Subfultus
 135. Carpologia

NO

- 136. Stridor
- 137. Hippos
- 138. Pselismus
- 139. Chorea
- 140. Beriberi

- ORDER II.
AGITATORII.
- 141. Rigor
 - 142. Convulsio

NO

- 143. Epilepsia
- 144. Hieranofus
- 145. Raphania

CLASS VIII. SUPPRESSORII.

ORDER I.
SUFFOCATORII.

- 146. Raucedo
- 147. Vociferatio
- 148. Rifus
- 149. Fletus
- 150. Suspirium
- 151. Oscitatio
- 152. Pandiculatio
- 153. Singultus
- 154. Sternutatio

- 155. Tuffis
- 156. Stertor
- 157. Anhelatio
- 158. Suffocatio
- 159. Empyema
- 160. Dyspnœa
- 161. Asthma
- 162. Orthopnœa
- 163. Ephialtes

ORDER II.
CONSTRICTORII.

- 164. Aglutitio
- 165. Flatulentia
- 166. Obstipatio
- 167. Ischuria
- 168. Dysmenorrhœa
- 169. Dyslochia
- 170. Aglactatio
- 171. Sterilitas

CLASS IX. EVACUATORII.

ORDER I.
CAPITIS.

- 172. Otorrhœa
- 173. Epiphora
- 174. Hæmorrhagia
- 175. Coryza
- 176. Stomacace
- 177. Ptyalismus

- 183. Nausea
- 184. Vomitus
- 185. Hæmatemesis
- 186. Iliaca
- 187. Cholera
- 188. Diarrhœa
- 189. Lienteria
- 190. Cœliaca
- 191. Cholirica
- 192. Dysenteria
- 193. Hæmorrhoids
- 194. Tenesmus
- 195. Crepitus.

- 198. Diabetes
- 199. Hæmaturia
- 200. Glus
- 201. Gonorrhœa

ORDER II.
THORACIS:

- 178. Screatus
- 179. Expectoratio
- 180. Hæmoptysis
- 181. Vomica

ORDER IV.
GENITALIUM.

- 202. Leucorrhœa
- 203. Menorrhagia
- 204. Parturitio
- 205. Abortus
- 206. Mola

ORDER III.
ABDOMINIS.

- 182. Ructus

ORDER IV.
GENITALIUM

- 196. Enuresis
- 197. Stranguria

ORDER V.
CORPORIS EX-
TERNI.

- 207. Galactia
- 208. Sudor

CLASS X. DEFORMES.

ORDER I.
EMACIANTES.

- 209. Phthisis
- 210. Tabes

- 211. Atrophia
- 212. Marasmus
- 213. Rachitis

ORDER II.
TUMIDOSI.

- 214. Polyfarcia

E e

215. Leucophlegmatia
216. Anasarca
217. Hydrocephalus
218. Ascites
219. Hypofarca

220. Tympanites
221. Graviditas

ORDER III.
DECOLORES.

222. Cachexia

223. Chlorosis
224. Scorbutus
225. Icterus
226. Plethora

CLASS XI. VITIA.

ORDER I.
HUMORALIA.

227. Aridura
228. Digitium
229. Emphysema
230. Oedema
231. Sugillatio
232. Inflammatio
233. Abscessus
234. Gangrena
235. Sphacelus

ORDER II.
DIALYTICA.

236. Fractura
237. Luxatura
238. Ruptura
239. Contusura
240. Profusio
241. Vulnus
242. Amputatura
243. Laceratura
244. Punctura
245. Morsura
246. Combustura
247. Excoriatura
248. Intertrigo
249. Rhagas

ORDER III.
EXULCERATIONES.

250. Ulcus.
251. Cacoethes
252. Noma
253. Carcinoma
254. Ozena
255. Fistula

256. Caries
257. Arthrocace
258. Coccyta
259. Paronychia
260. Pernio
261. Pressura
262. Arctura

ORDER IV.
SCABIES.

263. Lepra
264. Tinea
265. Achor
266. Pfora
267. Lippitudo
268. Serpigo
269. Herpes
270. Varus
271. Bacchia
272. Bubo
273. Anthrax
274. Phlyctæna
275. Pustula
276. Papula
277. Hordeolum
278. Verruca
279. Clavus
280. Myrmecium
281. Eschara

ORDER V.
TUMORES PROTUBERANTES.

282. Aneurisma
283. Varix
284. Schirrus
285. Struma
286. Atheroma

287. Anchylosus
288. Ganglion
289. Natta
290. Spinola
291. Exostosis

ORDER VI.
PROCIDENTIAE

292. Hernia
293. Prolapsus
294. Condyloma
295. Sarcoma
296. Pterygium
297. Ectropium
298. Phimosis
299. Clitorismus

ORDER VII.
DEFORMATIONES

300. Contractura
301. Gibber
302. Lordosis
303. Distortio
304. Tortura
305. Strabismus
306. Lagophthalmia
307. Nyctalopia
308. Presbytia
309. Myopia
310. Labarium
311. Lagostoma
312. Apella
313. Atreta
314. Plica
315. Hirsuties
316. Alopecia
317. Trichiasis

ORDER VIII.
MACULAE.

318. Cicatrix

319. Nævus
320. Morphæa
321. Vibex
322. Sudamen

323. Melasma
324. Hepatizon
325. Lentigo
326. Ephelis

Synoptical view of the system of VOGEL:

CLASS I. FEBRES.

ORDER I.
INTERMITTENTES.

1. Quotidiana
2. Tertianæ
3. Quartana
4. Quintana
5. Sextana
6. Septana
7. Octana
8. Nonana
9. Decimana
10. Vaga
11. Menstrua
12. Tertianæ duplex
13. Quartana duplex
14. Quartana triplex

ORDER II.
CONTINUÆ.

§ 1. *Simplices.*

15. Quotidiana
16. Synochus
17. Amatoria
18. Phrenitis
19. Epiala
20. Caufos
21. Elodes
22. Lethargus
23. Typhomania
24. Leipyria

25. Phricodes
26. Lyngodes
27. Affodes
28. Cholericæ
29. Synchopalis
30. Hydrophobia
31. Oscitans
32. Ictericodes
33. Pestilentialis
34. Sirialis

§ 2. *Compositæ.*

¶ 1. *Exanthematicæ.*

35. Variolosa
36. Morbillofa
37. Miliaris
38. Petechialis
39. Scarlatina
40. Urtica
41. Bullosa
42. Varicella

43. Pemphingodes
44. Aphthosa

¶ 2. *Inflammatoriæ.*

45. Phrenismus
46. Chemosis
47. Ophthalmites
48. Otites
49. Angina
50. Pleuritis
51. Peripneumonia

52. Mediaſtina
53. Pericarditis
54. Carditis
55. Paraphrenitis
56. Gastritis
57. Enteritis
58. Hepatitis
59. Splenitis
60. Mesenteritis
61. Omentitis
62. Peritonitis
63. Myocolitis
64. Pancreatica
65. Nephritis
66. Cistitis
67. Hyſteritis
68. Eryſipelacea
69. Podagrica
70. Panaritium
71. Cyſſotis

¶ 3. *Symptomaticæ.*

72. Apoplectica
73. Catarrhalis
74. Rheumatica
75. Hæmorrhoidalis
76. Lactea
77. Vulneraria
78. Suppuratoria
79. Lenæa
80. Hectica

CLASS II. PROFLUVIA.

ORDER I.
HAEMORRHA-
GLÆ.

- 81. Hæmorrhagia
- 82. Epistaxis
- 83. Hæmoptoe
- 84. Hæmoptysis
- 85. Stomacace
- 86. Odontorrhœa
- 87. Otorrhœa
- 88. Ophthalmorrhagia
- 89. Hæmatemesis
- 90. Hepatorrhœa
- 91. Catarrhexis
- 92. Hæmaturia
- 93. Cystirrhagia
- 94. Stygmatis

- 95. Hæmatopedesis
- 96. Menorrhagia
- 97. Abortio

ORDER II.
APOCENOSES.

- 98. Catarrhus
- 99. Epiphora
- 100. Coryza
- 101. Otopuosis
- 102. Otoplotos
- 103. Ptyalismus
- 104. Vomica
- 105. Diarrhœa
- 106. Puorrhœa
- 107. Dysenteria
- 108. Lienteria

- 109. Cœliaca
- 110. Cholera
- 111. Pituitaria
- 112. Leucorrhœis
- 113. Eneuresis
- 114. Diuresis
- 115. Diabetes
- 116. Puoturia
- 117. Chylaria
- 118. Gonorrhœa
- 119. Leucorrhœa
- 120. Exoneirosis
- 121. Hydropedesis
- 122. Galactia
- 123. Hypercatharsis
- 124. Ecphyse
- 125. Dysodia

CLASS III. EPISCHESES.

- 126. Gravedo
- 127. Flatulentia
- 128. Obstipatio

- 129. Ischuria
- 130. Amenorrhœa
- 131. Dyslochia

- 132. Deuteria
- 133. Agalaxis

CLASS IV. DOLORES.

- 134. Anxietas
- 135. Blepharismus
- 136. Pruritus
- 137. Catapsyxis
- 138. Rheumatismus
- 139. Arthritis
- 140. Cephalalgia
- 141. Cephalæa
- 142. Clavus
- 143. Hemicrania
- 144. Carebæria
- 145. Odontalgia
- 146. Hæmodia
- 147. Odaxismus
- 148. Otagia
- 149. Acataposis

- 150. Cionis
- 151. Himantosis
- 152. Cardiogmus
- 153. Mastodynia
- 154. Soda
- 155. Periadynia
- 156. Pneumatosis
- 157. Cardiaglia
- 158. Encausis
- 159. Nausea
- 160. Colica
- 161. Eilema
- 162. Ileus
- 163. Stranguria
- 164. Dysuria

- 165. Lithuriasis
- 166. Tenesmus
- 167. Clunefia
- 168. Cedma
- 169. Hysteralgia
- 170. Dysmenorrhœa
- 171. Dyslochia
- 172. Atocia
- 173. Priapismus
- 174. Psoriasis
- 175. Podagra
- 176. Osteocopus
- 177. Psophos
- 178. Volatica
- 179. Epiphlogisma

CLASS V. SPASMI.

- | | | |
|-------------------|-------------------|----------------------|
| 180. Tetanus | 194. Crampus | 208. Capistrum |
| 181. Opisthotonus | 195. Scelerotyrbe | 209. Sardiasis |
| 182. Episthotonus | 196. Angone | 210. Gelasmus |
| 183. Catochus | 197. Glossocela | 211. Incubus |
| 184. Tremor | 198. Glossocoma | 212. Singultus |
| 185. Frigus | 199. Hippos | 213. Palpitatio |
| 186. Horror | 200. Illofis | 214. Vomitus |
| 187. Rigor | 201. Cinclefis | 215. Ructus |
| 188. Epilepsia | 202. Cataclasis | 216. Ruminatio |
| 189. Heclampsia | 203. Cillofis | 217. Oesophagismus |
| 190. Hieranofus | 204. Sternutatio | 218. Hypochondriasis |
| 191. Convulsio | 205. Tuffis | 219. Hysteria |
| 192. Raphania | 206. Clamor | 220. Phlogosis |
| 193. Chorea | 207. Trismus | 221. Digitium. |

CLASS VI. ADYNAMIAE.

- | | | |
|------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| 222. Lassitudo | 243. Nyctalopia | 264. Pandiculatio |
| 223. Aithenia | 244. Hermeralopia | 265. Apnœa |
| 224. Torpor | 245. Hemalopia | 266. Macropnœa |
| 225. Adynamia | 246. Dysicoia | 267. Dyspnœa |
| 226. Paralyfis | 247. Surditas | 268. Asthma |
| 227. Paraplegia | 248. Anosmia | 269. Orthopnœa |
| 228. Hemiplegia | 249. Apogeufis | 270. Pnigma |
| 229. Apoplexia | 250. Asaphia | 271. Renchus |
| 230. Catalepsis | 251. Clangor | 272. Rhochmos |
| 231. Carus | 252. Raucitas | 273. Lipothymia |
| 232. Coma | 253. Aphonia | 274. Syncope |
| 233. Somnolentia | 254. Leptophonia | 275. Asphyxia |
| 234. Hypophasis | 255. Oxyphonia | 276. Apepsia |
| 235. Ptofis | 256. Rhenophonia | 277. Dyspepsia |
| 236. Amblyopia | 257. Mutitas | 278. Diaphthora |
| 237. Mydriasis | 258. Traulotis | 279. Anorexia |
| 238. Amaurofis | 259. Pfellotis | 280. Anatrope |
| 239. Cataracta | 260. Ischnophonia | 281. Adyphia |
| 240. Synizezis | 261. Battarismus | 282. Acyifis |
| 241. Glaucoma | 262. Suspirium | 283. Agenesia |
| 242. Achlys | 263. Oscitatio | 284. Anodynia |

CLASS VII. HYPAERESTHESES.

- | | | |
|-----------------|----------------|---------------|
| 285. Antipathia | 288. Caligo | 291. Dyfopia |
| 286. Agrypnia | 289. Hæmalopia | 292. Sufurrus |
| 287. Phantasma | 290. Marmaryge | 293. Vertigo |

294. Apsgeusia
295. Polydipsia
296. Bulimus
297. Addephagia

298. Cynorexia
299. Allotriophagia
300. Malacia

301. Pica
302. Bombus
303. Celsa

CLASS VIII. CACHEXIÆ.

304. Cachexia
305. Chlorosis
306. Icterus
307. Melanchlorus
308. Atrophia
309. Tabes
310. Phthisis
311. Hydrothorax
312. Rachitis

313. Anasarca
314. Ascites
315. Hydrocystis
316. Tympanites
317. Hyfterophyse
318. Scorbutus
319. Syphilis
320. Lepra

321. Elephantiasis
322. Elephantia
323. Plica
324. Phthiriasis
325. Physconia
326. Paracyifis
327. Gangræna
328. Sphacelus

CLASS IX. PARANOIÆ.

329. Athymia
330. Delirium
331. Mania
332. Melancholia

333. Ecstasis
334. Ecplexis
335. Enthusiasmus
336. Stupiditas

337. Amentia
338. Oblivio
339. Somnium
340. Hypnobatafis

CLASS X. VITIA.

ORDER I.
INFLAMMATIO-
NES.

341. Ophthalmia
342. Blepharotis
343. Erysipelas
344. Hieropyr
345. Paronychia
346. Onychia
347. Encaufis
348. Phimosis
349. Paraphimosis
350. Pernio

ORDER II.
TUMORES.

351. Plegmone
352. Furunculus
353. Anthrax
354. Abscessus
355. Onyx
356. Hippopyon

357. Phygethlon
358. Empyema
359. Phyma
360. Ecthymata
361. Urticaria
362. Parulis
363. Epulis
364. Anchylops
365. Paraglossa
366. Chilon
367. Scrophula
368. Bubon
369. Bronchocele
370. Parotis
371. Gongrona
372. Sparganosis
373. Coilima
374. Scirrhus
375. Cancer
376. Sarcoma
377. Polypus
378. Condyloma

379. Ganglion
380. Ranula
381. Terminthus
382. Oedema
383. Encephalocoele
384. Hydrocephalum
385. Hydrophthalmia
386. Spina bifida
387. Hydromphalus
388. Hydrocele
389. Hydrops Scroti
390. Steatites
391. Pneumatosis
392. Emphysema
393. Hyteroptosis
394. Cystoptosis
395. Archoptoma
396. Bubonocoele
397. Oscheocoele
398. Omphalocoele
399. Merocele
400. Enterocoele ovularis

401. Ischiatocele
402. Elythrocele
403. Hypogastrotrocele
404. Cystocele
405. Cyrtoma
406. Hydrenterocele
407. Varix
408. Aneurisma
409. Cirfocele
410. Gastrocele
411. Hepatocele
412. Splenocele
413. Hysterocoele
414. Hygrocirfocele
415. Sarcocoele
416. Physcococele
417. Exostofes
418. Hyperostofis
419. Pædarthrocace
420. Encystis
421. Staphyloma
422. Staphylosis
423. Fungus
424. Tofus
425. Flemen

ORDER III.
EXTUBERANTIÆ.

426. Verruca
427. Porrus
428. Clavus
429. Callus
430. Encanthis
431. Pladarotis
432. Pinnula
433. Pterygium
434. Hordeolum
435. Grando
436. Varus
437. Gutta rosacea
438. Ephelis
439. Efoche

440. Exoche
- ORDER IV.
PUSTULÆ and
PAPULÆ.
441. Epinyctis
 442. Phlyctæna
 443. Herpes
 444. Scabies
 445. Aquula
 446. Hydroa
 447. Variola
 448. Varicella
 449. Purpura
 450. Encauma

- ORDER V.
MACULÆ.
451. Ecchymoma
 452. Petechiæ
 453. Morbilli
 454. Scarlatæ
 455. Lentigo
 456. Urticaria
 457. Stigma
 458. Vibex
 459. Vitiligo
 460. Leuce
 461. Cyasina
 462. Lichen
 463. Selina
 464. Nebula.

- ORDER VI.
DISSOLUTIONES.
465. Vulnus
 466. Ruptura
 467. Rhagas
 468. Fractura
 469. Fissura
 470. Plicatio
 471. Thlasis

472. Luxatio
473. Subluxatio
474. Diachalasis
475. Attritis
476. Porrigo
477. Apofyrma
478. Anapleuris
479. Spasma
480. Coctusio
481. Diabrosis
482. Agomphiasis
483. Eschara
484. Piptonychia
485. Cacoethes
486. Therioma
487. Carcinoma
488. Phagedæna
489. Noma
490. Sycosis
491. Fistula
492. Sinus
493. Caries
494. Achores
495. Crusta lactea
496. Favus
497. Tinea
498. Argemon
499. Ægilops
500. Ozæna
501. Aphthæ
502. Intertrigo
503. Rhacosis

- ORDER VII.
CONCRETIONES.
504. Ancyloblepharon
 505. Zynizefis
 506. Dacrymoma
 507. Ancyloglossum
 508. Ancylosis
 509. Cicatrix
 510. Dactylion

CLASS XI. DEFORMITATES.

511. Phoxos
512. Gibber
513. Caput obstipum
514. Strabismus
515. Myopiafis

516. Lagophthalmus
517. Trichiasis
518. Ectropium
519. Entropium
520. Rhœas

521. Rhyssmata
522. Lagocheilos
523. Melacholleon
524. Hirsuties
525. Canities

- 526. Distrix
- 527. Xirasia
- 528. Phalacrotis
- 529. Alopecia
- 530. Madarosis
- 531. Ptilosis
- 532. Rodatio
- 533. Phalangosis
- 534. Coloboma
- 535. Cercosis
- 536. Cholosia
- 537. Gryposia

- 538. Nævus
- 539. Monstrositas
- 540. Polysarcia
- 541. Ischnosis
- 542. Rhicnosis
- 543. Varus
- 544. Valgus
- 545. Leiopodes
- 546. Apella
- 547. Hypospadiæos
- 548. Urorhæas
- 549. Atreta

- 550. Saniodes
- 551. Cripsorchis
- 552. Hermaphrodites
- 553. Dionysiscus
- 554. Artetiscus
- 555. Nefrendis
- 556. Spanopogon
- 557. Hyperartetiscus
- 558. Galiancon
- 559. Galbulus
- 560. Mola

A Synoptical View of the System of SAGAR.

CLASS I. VITIA.

ORDER I.
MACULÆ.

- 1. Leucoma
- 2. Vitiligo
- 3. Ephelis
- 4. Nævus
- 5. Ecchymoma

ORDER II.
EFFLORESCEN-
TIÆ.

- 6. Pustula
- 7. Papula
- 8. Phlycthæna
- 9. Bacchia
- 10. Varus
- 11. Herpes
- 12. Epinyctis
- 13. Hemeropathos
- 14. Pydracia
- 15. Hydroa

ORDER III.
PHYMATA.

- 16. Erythema
- 17. Oedema
- 18. Emphysema

- 19. Scirrhus
- 20. Inflammatio
- 21. Bubo
- 22. Parotis
- 23. Farunculus
- 24. Anthrax
- 25. Cancer
- 26. Paronychia
- 27. Phimosis

ORDER IV.
EXCRESCENTIÆ.

- 28. Sarcoma
- 29. Condyloma
- 30. Verruca
- 31. Pterygium
- 32. Hordeolum
- 33. Trachelophyma
- 34. Exostosis

ORDER V.
CYSTIDES.

- 35. Aneurysma
- 36. Varix
- 37. Marisca
- 38. Hydatis
- 39. Staphyloma

- 40. Lûpia
- 41. Hydarthrus
- 42. Apostema
- 43. Exomphalus
- 44. Oscheophyma

ORDER VI.
ECTOPIÆ.

- 45. Exophthalmia
- 46. Blepharoptosis
- 47. Hypostaphyle
- 48. Paraglossa
- 49. Proptoma
- 50. Exania
- 51. Exocystis
- 52. Hyteroptosis
- 53. Colpoptosis
- 54. Gastrocele
- 55. Omphalocele
- 56. Hepatocele
- 57. Merocele
- 58. Bubonocèle
- 59. Opodeocèle
- 60. Ischiocele
- 61. Colpocele
- 62. Perinæocèle
- 63. Peritonæorixia

NO

- 64. Encephalocele
- 65. Hysteroloxia
- 66. Parorchydium
- 67. Exarthrema
- 68. Diastasis
- 69. Loxarthrus

- 70. Gibbositas
- 71. Lordosis

ORDER VII. DEFORMITATES.

- 72. Lagostoma

NO

- 73. Apella
- 74. Polymerisma
- 75. Epidosis
- 76. Anchylomerisma
- 77. Hirsuties

CLASS II. PLAGÆ.

ORDER I.

SOLUTIONES, *recentes, cruentæ.*

- 78. Vulnus
- 79. Punctura
- 80. Sclopetoplaga
- 81. Morfus
- 82. Excoriatio
- 83. Contusio
- 84. Ruptura

ORDER II.

SOLUTIONES, *recentes, cruentæ, artificiales.*

- 85. Operatio
- 86. Amputatio
- 87. Sutura
- 88. Paracentesis

ORDER III. SOLUTIONES, *incruentæ.*

- 89. Ulcus
- 90. Exulceratio

- 91. Fistula
- 92. Sinus
- 93. Eschara
- 94. Caries
- 95. Arthrocace

ORDER IV. SOLUTIONES, *anomale.*

- 96. Rhagas
- 97. Ambullio
- 98. Fractura
- 99. Fissura

CLASS III. CACHEXIÆ.

ORDER I. MACIES.

- 100. Tabes
- 101. Phthisis
- 102. Atrophia
- 103. Hæmatoporia
- 104. Aridura

ORDER II. INTUMESCENTIÆ.

- 105. Plethora
- 106. Polyfarcia
- 107. Pneumatosis
- 108. Anasarca
- 109. Phlegmatia
- 110. Physconia
- 111. Graviditas

ORDER III. HYDROGES *partiales.*

- 112. Hydrocephalus

- 113. Physocephalus
- 114. Hydrorachitis
- 115. Ascites
- 116. Hydrometra
- 117. Physometra
- 118. Tympanites
- 119. Meteorismus

ORDER IV. TUBERA.

- 120. Rachitis
- 121. Scrophula
- 122. Carcinoma
- 123. Leontiasis
- 124. Malis
- 125. Framboesia

ORDER V. IMPETIGINES.

- 126. Syphilis
- 127. Scorbutus

- 128. Elephantiasis
- 129. Lepra
- 130. Scabies
- 131. Tinea

ORDER VI. ICTERITIÆ.

- 132. Aurigo
- 133. Melasicterus
- 134. Phoenigmus
- 135. Chlorosis

ORDER VII. ANOMALE.

- 136. Phthiriasis
- 137. Trichoma
- 138. Alopecia
- 139. Elcosis
- 140. Gangræna
- 141. Necrosis

CLASS IV. DOLORES.

ORDER I.
VAGI.
142. Arthritis
143. Ostocopus
144. Rheumatismus
145. Catarrhus
146. Anxietas
147. Lassitudo
148. Stupor
149. Pruritus
150. Algor
151. Ardor

ORDER II.
CAPITIS.
152. Cephalalgia

153. Cephalæa
154. Hemicrania
155. Ophthalmia
156. Otalgia
157. Odontalgia

ORDER III.
PECTORIS.
158. Pyrosis
159. Cardiogmus

ORDER IV.
ABDOMINIS.
160. Cardialgia
161. Gastrodynia

162. Colica
163. Hepatalgia
164. Splenalgia
165. Nephralgia
166. Hysteralgia

ORDER V.
EXTERNARUM.
167. Maltodynia
168. Rachialgia
169. Lumbago
170. Ischias
171. Proctalgia
172. Pudendagra
173. Digitium

CLASS V. FLUXUS.

ORDER I.
SANGUIFLUXUS.
174. Hæmorrhagia
175. Hæmoptylis
176. Stomacace
177. Hæmatemesis
178. Hæmaturia
179. Metrorrhagia
180. Abortus

ORDER II.
ALVIFLUXUS,
sanguinolenti.
181. Hepatirrhœa
182. Hæmorrhœis
183. Dysenteria
184. Melæna

ORDER III.
ALVIFLUXUS,
non sanguinolenti.
185. Nausea
186. Vomitus
187. Ileus
188. Cholera
189. Diarrhœa
190. Cœliaca
191. Lienteria
192. Tenesmus
193. Proctorrhœa

ORDER IV.
SERIFLUXUS.
194. Ephidrosis
195. Epiphora

196. Coryza
197. Ptyalismus
198. Anacatharsis
199. Diabetes
200. Enuresis
201. Pyuria
202. Leucorrhœa
203. Lochiorrhœa
204. Gonorrhœa
205. Galactirrhœa
206. Otorrhœa

ORDER V.
AERIFLUXUS.
207. Flatulentia
208. Aedopsophia
209. Dysodia

CLASS VI. SUPPRESSIONES.

ORDER I.
INGERENDORUM.
210. Adiapneustia
211. Sterilitas
212. Ischuria
213. Dysuria
214. Aglactatio

215. Dyslochia
ORDER II.
INGERENDORUM.
216. Dysphagia
217. Angina

ORDER III.
IMI VENTRIS.
218. Dysmenorrhœa
219. Dystocia
220. Dys hæmorrhœis
221. Obstipatio

CLASS VII. SPAPMI.

ORDER I.
TONICI PARTIA-
LES.

- 222. Strabismus
- 223. Trismus
- 224. Obstipitas
- 225. Contractura
- 226. Crampus
- 227. Priapismus

ORDER II.
TONICI GENERA-
LES.

- 228. Tetanus

229. Catochus

ORDER III.
CLONICI PARTIA-
LES.

- 230. Nyctagmus
- 231. Carphologia
- 232. Subfultus
- 233. Pandiculatio
- 234. Apomytosis
- 235. Convulsio
- 236. Tremor
- 237. Palpitatio
- 238. Claudicatio

ORDER IV.

CLONICI GENE-
RALES.

- 239. Phricasmus
- 240. Eclampsia
- 241. Epilepsia
- 242. Hysteria
- 243. Scelotyrbe
- 244. Beriberia

CLASS VIII. ANHELATIONES.

ORDER I.
SPASMODICÆ.

- 245. Ephialtes
- 246. Sternutatio
- 247. Oscedo
- 248. Singultus

249. Tussis

ORDER II.
SUPPRESSIVÆ.

- 250. Stertor
- 251. Dyspnœa

- 252. Asthma
- 253. Orthopnœa
- 254. Pleurodyne
- 255. Rheuma
- 256. Hydrothorax
- 257. Empyema

CLASS IX. DEBILITATES.

ORDER I.
DYSÆSTHESIÆ.

- 258. Amblyopia
- 259. Caligo
- 260. Cataracta
- 261. Amaurosis
- 262. Anosmia
- 263. Agheusia
- 264. Dysecœa
- 265. Paracusis
- 266. Cophosis
- 267. Anæsthesia

ORDER II.
ANEPITHYMIÆ.

- 268. Anorexia
- 269. Adipsia
- 270. Anaphrodisia

ORDER III.
DYSCINESIÆ.

- 271. Mutitas
- 272. Aphonia
- 273. Psellismus
- 274. Cacophonia
- 275. Paralysis
- 276. Hemiplegia
- 277. Paraplexia

ORDER IV.
LEIPOPSYCHIÆ.

- 278. Asthenia
- 279. Lipothymia
- 280. Syncope
- 281. Asphyxia

ORDER V.
COMATA.

- 282. Catalepsis
- 283. Ecstasis
- 284. Typhomania
- 285. Lethargus
- 286. Cataphora
- 287. Carus
- 288. Apoplexia

CLASS X. EXANTHEMATA.

ORDER I.		ORDER II.
CONTAGIOSA.	291. Pemphigus 292. Purpura 293. Rubeola 294. Scarlatina	NON CONTAGIOSA.
289. Pestis 290. Variola		295. Miliaris 296. Erysipelas 297. Effera 298. Aphtha

CLASS XI. PHLEGMASIÆ.

ORDER I.	ORDER II.	ORDER III.
MUSCULOSÆ.	MEMBRANACEÆ.	PARENCHYMATOSÆ.
299. Phlegmone 300. Cynanche 301. Myositis 302. Carditis	303. Phrenitis 304. Diaphragmitis 305. Pleuritis 306. Gastritis 307. Enteritis 308. Epiploitis 309. Cystitis	310. Cephalitis 311. Peripneumonia 312. Hepatitis 313. Splenitis 314. Nephritis 315. Metritis

CLASS XII. FEBRES.

ORDER I.	ORDER II.	ORDER III.
CONTINUÆ.	REMITTENTES.	INTERMITTENTES.
316. Judicatoria 317. Humoraria 318. Frigeraria 319. Typhus 320. Hæctica	321. Amphimerina 322. Tritæophya 323. Tetartophya.	324. Quotidiana 325. Tertianæ 326. Quartana 327. Erratica

CLASS XIII. VESANIÆ.

ORDER I.	ORDER II.	ORDER III.
HALLUCINATIONES.	MOROSITATES.	DELIRIA.
328. Vertigo 329. Suffusio 330. Diplopia 331. Syrigmos 332. Hypochondriasis 333. Somnambulifinus	334. Pica 335. Bulimia 336. Polydipsia 337. Antipathia 338. Nostalgia 339. Panophobia 340. Satyriasis 341. Nymphomania 342. Tarantismus 343. Hydrophobia 344. Rabies	345. Paraphrosine 346. Amentia 347. Melancholia 348. Dæmonomania 349. Mania
		ORDER IV.
		ANOMALÆ.
		350. Amnesia 351. Agrypnia

Synoptical View of the System of DR. MACBRIDE.

CLASS I. UNIVERSAL DISEASES.

ORDER I.

FEVERS.

1. Continued
2. Intermittent
3. Remittent
4. Eruptive
5. Hectic

ORDER II.

INFLAMMATIONS.

6. External
7. Internal

ORDER III.

FLUXES.

8. Alvine
9. Hæmorrhage
10. Humoral discharge

ORDER IV.

PAINFUL DISEASES.

11. Gout
12. Rheumatism
13. Ostocopus
14. Headach
15. Toothach
16. Earach
17. Pleurodyne

18. Pain in the stomach

19. Colic

20. Lithiasis

21. Ischuria

22. Proctalgia

ORDER V.

SPASMODIC DISEASES.

23. Tetanus

24. Catochus

25. Locked Jaw

26. Hydrophobia

27. Convulsion

28. Epilepsy

29. Ecclampsia

30. Hieranosos

ORDER VI.

WEAKNESSES and PRIVATIONS.

31. Coma

32. Palsy

33. Fainting

ORDER VII.

ASTHMATIC DISEASES.

34. Dyspnœa

35. Orthopnœa

36. Asthma

37. Hydrothorax

38. Empyema

ORDER VIII.

MENTAL DISEASES.

39. Mania

40. Melancholia

ORDER IX.

CACHEXIES, or Humoral Diseases.

41. Corpulency

42. Dropsy

43. Jaundice

44. Emphyema

45. Tympany

46. Physconia

47. Atrophia

48. Osteosarcoma

49. Sarcoftosis

50. Mortification

51. Scurvy

52. Scrophula

53. Cancer

54. Lues Venerea

CLASS II. LOCAL DISEASES.

ORDER I.
OF THE INTER-
NAL SENSES.

- 55. Loss of Memory
- 56. Hypochondriasis
- 57. Loss of Judgment

ORDER II.
OF THE EXTER-
NAL SENSES.

- 58. Blindness
- 59. Depraved sight
- 60. Deafness
- 61. Depraved Hearing
- 62. Loss of Smell
- 63. Depraved Smell
- 64. Loss of Taste
- 65. Depraved Taste
- 66. Loss of Feeling

ORDER III.
OF THE APPE-
TITES.

- 67. Anorexia
- 68. Cynorexia
- 69. Pica
- 70. Polydipsia
- 71. Satyriasis
- 72. Nymphomania
- 73. Anaphrodisia

ORDER IV.
OF THE SECRE-
TIONS AND EX-
CRETIONS.

- 74. Epiphora
- 75. Coryza
- 76. Ptyalism
- 77. Anacatharsis

- 78. Otorrhœa
- 79. Diarrhœa
- 80. Incontinence of U-
rine
- 81. Pyuria
- 82. Dysuria
- 83. Constipation
- 84. Tenesmus
- 85. Dysodia
- 86. Flatulence
- 87. Œdosophia

ORDER V.
IMPEDING DIFFE-
RENT ACTIONS.

- 88. Aphonia
- 89. Mutitas
- 90. Paraphonia
- 91. Dysphagia
- 92. Wryneck
- 93. Angone
- 94. Sneezing
- 95. Hiccup
- 96. Cough
- 97. Vomiting
- 98. Palpitation of the
Heart
- 99. Chorea
- 100. Trismus
- 101. Nyctagmus
- 102. Cramp
- 103. Scelotyrbe
- 104. Contraction
- 105. Paralysis
- 106. Anchylosis
- 107. Gibbositas
- 108. Lordosis
- 109. Hydarthrus

ORDER VI.
OF THE EXTER-
NAL HABIT.

- 110. Tumour
- 111. Excrescence
- 112. Aneurism
- 113. Varix
- 114. Papulæ
- 115. Phlyctænæ
- 116. Pustulæ
- 117. Scabies, or Pfora
- 118. Impetigo
- 119. Leprosy
- 120. Elephantiasis
- 121. Frambœsia
- 122. Herpes
- 123. Maculæ
- 124. Alopecia
- 125. Trichoma
- 126. Scald Head
- 127. Phthiriasis

ORDER VII.
DISLOCATIONS.

- 128. Hernia
- 129. Prolapsus
- 130. Luxation

ORDER VIII.
SOLUTIONS OF
CONTINUITY.

- 131. Wound
- 132. Ulcer
- 133. Fissure
- 134. Fistula
- 135. Burn or Scald
- 136. Excoriation
- 137. Fracture
- 138. Caries

CLASS III. SEXUAL DISEASES.

ORDER I.

GENERAL,
proper to Men.

139. Febris testicularis
140. Tabes dorsalis

ORDER II.

LOCAL,
proper to Men.

141. Dyspermatismus
142. Gonorrhœa simplex
143. Gonorrhœa virulenta
144. Priapism
145. Phymosis

146. Paraphymosis
147. Chrystalline
148. Hernia humoralis
149. Hydrocele
150. Sarcocoele
151. Cirrhcœle

ORDER III.

GENERAL,
proper to Women.

152. Amenorrhœa
153. Chlorosis
154. Leucorrhœa
155. Menorrhagia
156. Hysteralgia
157. Graviditas

158. Abortus
159. Dysstochia
160. Febris puerperalis
161. Mastodynia

ORDER IV.

LOCAL,
proper to Women.

162. Hydrops ovarii
163. Scirrhus ovarii
164. Hydrometra
165. Physometra
166. Prolapsus uteri
167. ——— vaginæ
168. Polypus uteri

CLASS VI. INFANTILE DISEASES.

ORDER I.
GENERAL.

169. Colica meconialis
170. ——— lactentium
171. Diarrhœa infantum.

172. Aphthæ
173. Eclampsia
174. Atrophia
175. Rachitis

ORDER II.
LOCAL.

176. Imperforation
177. Anchyloglossum
178. Aurigo
179. Purpura
180. Crusta lactea

NOSTALGIA, (*Nostalgia*, *a*, *f*, *nostalgia*; from *nostos*, to return, and *algos*, pain). A vehement desire of revisiting one's country. A genus of disease in the class *locales* and order *dysforexia* of Cullen, known by impatience when absent from

one's native home, and a vehement desire to return, attended with gloom and melancholy, loss of appetite, and want of sleep.

NUCHA, (*Nucha*, *a*, *f*). The hind part or nape of the neck.

NUCESTA. See *Nux moschata*.

NUCLEUS, (*Nucleus*, *i*, *m.* *è nuce*, from the nut). A kernel. A fruit enclosed in a hard shell.

NUCULÆ SAPONARIÆ. *Bacca bermudenses*. Soap berries. Bermudas berries. A spherical fruit about the size of a cherry, whose cortical part is yellow, glossy, and so transparent as to show the spherical black nut which rattles within, and which includes a black kernel. It is the produce of the *Sapindus saponaria* of Linnæus. The cortical part has a bitter taste, and no smell; it raises a soapy froth with water, and has similar effects with soap in washing, and it is said to be a medicine of singular and specific virtue in chlorosis.

NUMMULARIA, (*Nummularia*, *a*, *f.* from *nummus*, money; so called because its leaves are round and of the size of the old silver two-pence). *Herundinaria*. Moneywort. This plant, *Lyfimachia nummularia* of Linnæus, is very common in our ditches. It was formerly accounted vulnerary; it possesses antiscorbutic and restraining qualities.

NUT, COCOA. The fruit of the *Cocos nucifera* of Linnæus. Within the nut is found a kernel, as pleasant as an almond, and also a large quantity of liquor resembling milk, which the Indians greedily drink before the fruit is ripe, it being then pleasant, but when the nut is matured, the liquor becomes sour. Some full-grown nuts will contain a pint or more of this milk, the frequent drinking of which seems to have no bad effects upon the Indians; yet Europeans should be cautious of making too free with it at first, for when Lionel Wafer was at a small island in the South Sea, where the tree grew in plenty, some of his men were so delighted with it, that at parting they were resolved to drink their fill, which they did; but their appetites had like to have cost them their lives, for though they were not drunk,

yet they were so chilled and benumbed, that they could not stand, and were obliged to be carried aboard by those who had more prudence than themselves, and it was many days before they recovered. The shells of these nuts being hard, and capable of receiving a polish, they are often cut transversely, when being mounted on stands, and having their edges silvered or gilt, or otherwise ornamented, they serve the purpose of drinking cups. The leaves of the tree are used for thatching, for brooms, baskets, and other utensils; and of the reticular web growing at their base, the Indian women make cauls and aprons.

NUT, BARBADOES. See *Ricinus major*.

NUT, PISTACHIO. See *Pistachionut*.

NUT, PURGING. See *Ricinus major*.

NUTMEG. See *Nux moschata*.

NUTRITION, (*Nutritio*, *onis*, *f.* from *nutrio*, to nourish). Under this title might be considered how the matter both of the fluids and solid of the body is supplied: but, as the chyle supplies blood, and digestion chymification, and chylication effect the formation of chyle, we pass by the consideration of the fluids; and we therefore confine ourselves here to consider in what manner the solid parts obtain their increase of matter and growth, or have their occasional waste repaired. There is no doubt says Dr. Cullen, that the solid are formed of the fluid prepared from our aliment; but it is required now to say what portion of the fluids is employed in nourishing the solids, by what channels the nourishment is conveyed to them, and being applied there, how from fluid it becomes solid. With regard to the first question, we have no doubt in asserting, that in oviparous animals, it is the albumen ovi that is employed in nourishing the chick

and we presume that it is an analogous fluid which is employed in nourishing the bird during the whole time of its growth. We think the analogy may be safely applied with respect to all animals, the solid matter of which is of the same kind with that of the oviparous. This analogous fluid we take to be the gluten of the blood, properly diluted and freed from any adhering saline matter. To determine in what manner this nutritious fluid is applied to the nourishment of the solids, it is necessary to consider what are the simple fundamental solids, of which all the others are formed. It seems to be the opinion of the greater part of modern anatomists, that the solid parts consist entirely of a cellular texture, of various density in the different parts; and indeed, the structure of the greatest part of the solids is evidently of this kind. But at the same time it is also true, that a fibrous structure is to be observed almost every where in the body. It appears in the medullary substance of the brain and nerves, in the muscles and tendons, in the arteries, in the excretories of the glands, in the lymphatic vessels, in the alimentary canal, in the uterus and bladder of urine, in the ligaments, and in most membranes; and it is to be seen in those membranes which are afterwards changed into bones, especially whilst this change is going on. From this view of the universality of a fibrous structure in animal bodies we are disposed to believe, that these fibres are the fundamental part of animal solids: that they are the primordial staminal part of animal bodies; and that the cellular texture is, for the most part, an accretion formed upon these fibres. The consideration of the structure and growth of vegetables seems to illustrate and confirm this opinion. At the same time, from the fibrous parts

being evidently, in most instances, parts of the nervous system, and from the gradual formation of the fœtus in which the nervous system is first formed, we think it probable, that the whole of the fibres in the different parts of the body are a continuation of the nerves; and this again will lead to the conclusion, that the nourishment of the soft and homogeneous solid every where is conveyed to it by the nerves. This supposes also, what is otherwise probable, that the cortical part of the brain, or common origin of the nerves, is a secretory organ, in which the gluten of the blood being freed from all saline matter before adhering to it, becomes fit for the nourishment of the solids, and being poured in a sufficiently diluted state upon the organ of the nerves, it is filtrated along the fibres of these, and is thus conveyed to every staminal fibre of the system. We suppose, at the same time, that the medullary, or what may be called the solid matter of the nerves, is in the living body constantly accompanied with a subtle elastic fluid, which fits them for being the organs of sense and motion, and which probably is also the means by which the nutritious fluid is carried on in the substance of the nerves, from their origin to their extremities. In what manner the nutritious fluid, thus carried to the several parts, is there applied, so as to increase the length of the nervous fibre itself, or to form a cellular texture upon its surface, and in what manner from fluid it becomes solid, we cannot explain; nor can these particulars be explained upon any other supposition that has been formed with respect to nutrition. It is probable, that for a certain time, at its first beginning, the growth of animal bodies proceeds in the same manner as that of vegetables: but it is evident, that at a certain period,

in the growth of animals, a different œconomy takes place; and that afterwards, the growth seems to depend upon an extension of the arteries in length and wideness by the blood propelled into them by the powers. It may be supposed, that this extension of the arteries is applied to every fibre of the body, and that by the extension of these it gives an opportunity to the application and accretion of nutritious matter; to the growth therefore of the fibre itself, and to the growth of cellular texture on its surface. Perhaps the same extension of the arterial system gives occasion to the secretion of fluids, which poured into the cellular texture already formed, according to the disposition of these fluids to concrete more or less firmly, gives the different degrees of density and hardness which appears in different parts of the body. By this extension of the arterial system, the several parts of the body are gradually evolved, some of them sooner, others later, as by the constitution of the original stamina, or after occurrences, they are severally put into the conditions by which they are more or less exposed to the impetus of the blood, and fitted to receive a greater quantity of it. But as the parts by these causes first evolved will increase the most in the density of their solid parts, they will therefore more and more resist their further growth; and by the same resistance, will determine the blood with more force, and in greater quantity, into the parts not then so far evolved. Hence the whole system will be at length evolved, and every part of the solids will, in respect of density and resistance, be in balance with every other, and with the forces to which they are severally exposed. The extension of the arteries depends upon the resistances which occur to the free transmission of the blood through

them: and further, from a resistance in the veins. For, as a considerable portion of the blood does not commonly pass into the smaller branches of the arteries, but must pass very entirely into the veins; so these, by their capacity constantly diminishing as they approach nearer to the heart, and by their coats being of a density and firmness sufficient to prevent further dilatation, considerably resist the free passage of the blood from the arteries into them. While these resistances continue, the arteries, and with them almost every fibre of the body, must be extended at every systole of the heart; and with this extension, the growth of every part will proceed: but as every part, by its receiving an addition of solid matter, becomes more dense and rigid; so it is less easily extended, and perhaps less readily receives an accretion of new matter, than before. Hence it is, that the more the body grows, it admits of any additional growth more slowly; and unless the extending powers increase in the same proportion with the increasing density of the solids, there must be a period at which these two powers will balance each other, and the growth will proceed no farther. But, as it is evident that the bulk and weight of the heart, and probably therefore its force, does not increase with the increasing bulk of the body, and that the action of the heart is the principal extending power in the system; it is also plain that the extending power does not increase in the same proportion with the increasing density of the solids; and therefore, that these two powers will, at a certain period, come to balance each other. But not only is the force of the heart thus constantly diminishing, with respect to the resistance of the arteries; but the force of the heart, though it were still subsisting, has from other causes, less

effect in extending the arteries. The blood is more confined to the arteries, and extends them further in proportion to the resistance in the veins; and this resistance in the veins, and the extension of the arteries depending upon it, will be more or less, according to the respective density of these two sets of vessels. But it appears from the experiments of Sir Clifton Wintringham, that the density and firmness of the veins with respect to their correspondent arteries, is much greater in young animals than in old; and thence it appears, that during the growth of animals, the arteries are acquiring an increase of density in a greater proportion than the veins are at the same time; and therefore, that the resistance in the veins with respect to the arteries, must be constantly diminishing; that the veins will therefore receive a greater proportion of blood; that in the same proportion the arteries will be less extended; and, lastly, that the diminished resistance in the veins, concurring with the diminished force of the heart, will the sooner bring the increasing rigidity of the arteries, and therefore of every fibre of the body, to be in balance with the extending powers: at least so far as to prevent their producing any further growth. This account of the change of the resistances in the arteries and veins, with respect to one another, is agreeable to phenomena, which show that the arteries are larger, and contain more blood in proportion to the veins in young animals, than in old; that arterial hæmorrhagies occur most frequently in young persons; and that congestions in the veins, with hæmorrhagies or hydropic effusions depending upon them, occur most frequently in old age. It is probable, that the resistance both of arteries and veins goes on increasing, while the force of the heart is not increasing at the

same time: but it appears also, that from the diminished force of the heart and the compression which the smaller vessels are constantly exposed to from the distention of the larger, the action of the muscles and other causes, the number of small vessels, and therefore the capacity of the whole system, is constantly diminishing so much, that the heart may still for some time be sufficient for the circulation of the blood. But, while the resistances in the vessels are constantly increasing, the irritability of the moving fibres, and the energy of the brain, are at the same time constantly diminishing; and therefore the power of the heart must at length become unequal to its task, the circulation must cease, and death ensue. The unavoidable death of old persons is thus in part accounted for; but it is, however, still probable, that the same event proceeds chiefly from the decay and total extinction of the excitement or vital power of the nervous system, and that from causes very independent of the circulation of the blood, and arising in the nervous system itself, in consequence of the progress of life. This seems to be proved by the decay of sense, memory, intellect, and irritability, which constantly takes place, as life advances beyond a certain period.

NUX AQUATICA. See *Tribulus aquaticus*.

NUX BARBADENSIS. See *Ricinus major*.

NUX BEEN. See *Ben nux*.

NUX CATHARTICA AMERICANA. See *Ricinus major*.

NUX METELLÆ. See *Nux vomica*.

NUX JUGLANS. See *Juglans*.

NUX MOSCHATA, (*Nux, nucis, f.*). *Nucifera*. *Nux myristica*. The nutmeg. The seed or kernel of the *Myristica moschata*. *Myristica foliis lanceolatis, fructu glabro*. Thunb. Class *Dioecia*. Order *Syngenesia*. It is a spice that is well known, and has

been long used both for culinary and medical purposes. There are three kinds of unctuous substances, called oil of mace, that are really expressed from the nutmeg. The best is brought from the East Indies in stone jars; this is of a thick consistence, of the colour of mace, and has an agreeable fragrant smell; the second sort, which is paler coloured, and much inferior in quality, comes from Holland in solid masses, generally flat, and of a square figure; the third, which is the worst of all, and usually called common oil of mace, is an artificial composition of suet, palm oil, and the like, flavoured with a little genuine oil of nutmeg. The medicinal qualities of nutmeg are supposed to be aromatic, anodyne, stomachic, and adstringent, and hence it has been much used in diarrhoeas and dysenteries. The officinal preparations of nutmeg are a spirit and an essential oil, and the nutmeg in substance, roasted, to render it more adstringent: both the spice itself and the essential oil enter several compositions, as the *confectio aromatica*, *spiritus ammoniac compositus*, &c.

NUX MYRISTICA. See *Nux moschata*.

NUX PISTACIA. See *Pistachio nut*.

NUX PURGANS. See *Ricinus maris*.

NUX VOMICA. *Nux metella*. The *nux vomica*, *lignum colubrinum*, and *fabia sancti ignatii*, have been long known in the *Materia Medica* as narcotic poisons, brought from the East Indies, while the vegetables which produced them were unknown, or at least not botanically ascertained.

By the judicious discrimination of Linnæus, the *nux vomica* was found to be the fruit of the tree described and figured in the *Hortus Malabaricus* under the name of *Caniram*, now called *Strychnos*.

To this genus also, but upon evidence less conclusive, he likewise

justly referred the *colubrinum*. But the *fabia sancti ignatii* he merely conjectured might belong to this family, as appears by the query, *an Strychni species?* which subsequent discoveries have enabled us to decide in the negative; for in the *Suppl. Plant.* it constitutes the new genus *Ignatia*, which Loureiro has lately confirmed, changing the specific name *amara* to that of *philippinica*. The *strychnos* and *ignatia* are however nearly allied, and both rank under the order *Solanaceæ*.

Dr. Woodville has enquired thus far into the botanical origin of these productions, from finding that by medical writers they are generally treated of under the same head, and in a very confused and indiscriminate manner. The seed of the fruit or berry of this tree, *Strychnos nux vomica*, is the officinal *nux vomica*; it is flat, round, about an inch broad, and near a quarter of an inch thick, with a prominence in the middle on both sides, of a grey colour, covered with a kind of woolly matter; and internally hard and tough like horn. To the taste it is extremely bitter, but has no remarkable smell. It consists chiefly of a gummy matter, which is moderately bitter: the resinous part is very inconsiderable in quantity, but intensely bitter; hence rectified spirit has been considered its best menstruum.

Nux vomica is reckoned amongst the most powerful poisons of the narcotic kind, especially to brute animals; nor are instances wanting of its deleterious effects upon the human species. It proves fatal to dogs in a very short time, as appears by various authorities. Hillefeld and others found that it also poisoned hares, foxes, wolves, cats, rabbits, and even some birds, as crows and ducks; and Loureiro relates, that a horse died in four hours after taking a dram of the seed in an half roasted state.

The effects of this baneful drug upon different animals, and even upon those of the same species, appear to be rather uncertain, and not always in proportion to the quantity of the poison given. With some animals it produces its effects almost instantaneously; with others not till after several hours, when laborious respiration, followed by torpor, tremblings, coma, and convulsions, usually precede the fatal spasms or tetanus, with which this drug commonly extinguishes life.

From four cases related of its mortal effects upon human subjects, we find the symptoms corresponded nearly with those which we have here mentioned of brutes; and these, as well as the dissections of dogs killed by this poison, not shewing any injury done to the stomach or intestines, prove that the *nux vomica* acts immediately upon the nervous system, and destroys life by the virulence of its narcotic influence.

The quantity of the seed necessary to produce this effect upon a strong dog, as appears by experiments, need not be more than a scruple; a rabbit was killed by five, and a cat by four grains: and of the four persons to whom we have alluded, and who unfortunately perished by this deleterious drug, one was a girl ten years of age, to whom fifteen grains were exhibited at twice for the cure of an ague. Lofs, however, tells us, that he took one or two grains of it in substance without discovering any bad effect; and that a friend of his swallowed a whole seed without injury.

In Britain, where physicians seem to observe the rule *Saltem non nocere* more strictly than in many other countries, the *nux vomica* has been rarely if ever employed as a medicine. On the continent, however, and especially in Germany, they have certainly been guided more by the axiom, "What is incapable of doing much harm is equally unable to do

much good." The truth of this remark was lately very fully exemplified by the practice of Baron Stoerck, and is farther illustrated by the medicinal character given of *nux vomica*, which, from the time of Gesner till that of a modern date, has been recommended by a succession of authors as an antidote to the plague, as a febrifuge, as a vermifuge, and as a remedy in mania, hypochondriasis, hysteria, rheumatism, gout, and canine madness. In Sweden it has of late years been successfully used in dysentery; but Bergius, who tried its effects in this disease, says, that it suppressed the flux for twelve hours, which afterwards returned again. A woman who took a scruple of this drug night and morning two successive days, is said to have been seized with convulsions and vertigo, notwithstanding which the dysenteric symptoms returned, and the disorder was cured by other medicines; but a pain in the stomach, the effect of the *nux vomica*, continued afterwards for a long time.

Bergius therefore thinks it should only be administered in the character of a tonic and anodyne in small doses, (from five to ten grains), and not till after proper laxatives have been employed. Loureiro recommends it as a valuable internal medicine in fluor albus; for which purpose he roasts it till it becomes perfectly black and friable, which renders its medicinal use safe, without impairing its efficacy.

NYCTALOPIA, (*Nyctalopia*, *α*, f. *νυκταλωπια*, from *νξ*, the night, and *ωψ*, an eye). A defect in vision, by which the patient sees little or nothing in the day, but in the evening and night sees tolerably well. The proximate cause is various: 1. *Nyctalopia* from a periodical amaurosis, or gutta serena, when the blind paroxysm begins in the morning, and terminates in the evening: 2. *Nyctalopia* from

too great a sensibility of the retina, which cannot bear the meridian light. See *Phobotomia*. 3. *Nyctalopia* from an opaque spot in the middle of the crystalline lens. When the light of the sun in the meridian contracts the pupil, there is blindness; about evening, or in more obscure places, the pupil dilates, hence the rays of light pass through the limbus of the crystalline lens. 4. *Nyctalopia*, from a difuse of light; thus persons who are educated in obscure prisons see nothing immediately in open meridian light; but by degrees their eyes are accustomed to distinguish objects in day-light. 5. *Nyctalopia* from an immoveable mydriasis; for in this instance the pupil admits too great a quantity of light, which the immobile pupil cannot moderate, hence the patient, in a strong light, sees little or nothing. 6. *Nyctalopia* from too great a contraction of the pupil. This admits a sufficiency of lucid rays in bright light, but towards night the pupil dilates more, and the patient sees better. 7. *Nyctalopia* endemica. A whole people have been nyctalops, as the *Æthiopians*, *Africans*, *Americans*, and *Asiatics*. A great flow of tears are excreted all the day from their eyes; at night they see objects. 8. *Nyctalopia* from a commotion of the eye; from which a man in the night saw all objects distinctly.

NYMPHÆ, (*Nympha*, *æ*, f. from *νυμφα*, a water nymph; so called because it stands in the water-course). *Labia minora*. Two membranous folds, situated within the *labia majora*, at the sides of the entrance of the vagina uteri.

NYMPHÆA, (*Nymphæa*, *æ*, f. from *νυμφα*, from *νυμφα*, a water nymph, because it grows in watery places). The water lilly.

NYMPHÆA ALBA. *Leuconymphæa*. White water lilly. This beautiful plant, *Nymphæa alba* of Linnæus, was

formerly employed medicinally as a demulcent, and slightly anodyne remedy. It is now laid aside.

NYMPHÆA LUTEA. Yellow water-lilly. *Nymphæa lutea* of Linnæus. This beautiful plant was employed formerly with the same intentions as the white, and, like it, is now fallen into disuse.

NYMPHÆA LOTUS. The Egyptian lotus. An aquatic plant, a native of both Indies. The root is conical, firm, about the size of a middling pear, covered with a blackish bark, and set round with fibres. It has a sweetish taste, and, when boiled or roasted, becomes as yellow within as the yoke of an egg. The plant grows in abundance on the banks of the Nile, and is there much sought after by the poor, who in a short time collect enough to supply their families with food for several days.

NYMPHOMANIA, (*Nymphomania*, *æ*, f. from *νυμφομανια*, from *νυμφα*, *nympha*, and *μανια*, madness). *Furor uterinus*. A genus of disease in the class *locales* and order *dysorexia* of Cullen, characterised by excessive and violent desire for coition in woman.

NYMPHOTOMIA, (*Nymphotomia*; *æ*, f. from *νυμφοτομία*, from *νυμφα*, the *nympha*, and *τεμνω*, to cut). The operation of removing the *nympha* when too large.

NYSTAGMUS, (*Nystagmus*, *i*, m. from *νυσταγμος*, from *νυσσω*, to sleep). A twinkling of the eyes, such as happens when a person is very sleepy. Authors also define *nystagmus* to be an involuntary agitation of the ocular bulb. It is known by the instability or involuntary and constant motions of the globe of the eye from one canthus to another, or in some other directions. Sometimes it is accompanied with an *hippus*, or an alternate and repeated dilatation and constriction of the pupil. The species are, 1. *Nystagmus* from fear,

This agitation is observed under the operation for the cataract; and it is checked by persuasion, and waiting a short space of time. 2. Nyctagmus from sand or small gravel falling in the eye. 3. Nyctagmus from a catarrh, which is accompanied with much inflammation. 4. Nyctagmus from sa-

burra in the primæ viæ, as is observed in infants afflicted with worms, and is known by the signs of saburra. 5. Nyctagmus symptomaticus, which happens in hysteric, epileptic, and sometimes in pregnancy, and is a common symptom accompanying St. Vitus's dance.

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OAK. See *Quercus*.

OAK OF JERUSALEM. See *Botrys vulgaris*.

OAK, SEA. See *Quercus marina*.

OAK, WILLOW LEAVED. See *Quercus Phellos*.

OAT. See *Avena*.

OBLIQUUS ASCENDENS ABDOMINIS. See *Obliquus internus abdominalis*.

OBLIQUUS ASCENDENS INTERNUS. See *Obliquus internus abdominalis*.

OBLIQUUS DESCENDENS ABDOMINIS. See *Obliquus externus abdominalis*.

OBLIQUUS DESCENDENS EXTERNUS. See *Obliquus externus abdominalis*.

OBLIQUUS EXTERNUS ABDOMINIS. This muscle, which is so named by Morgagni, Albinus, and Winslow, is the *obliquus descendens* of Vesalius and Douglas, and the *obliquus major* of Haller and some others. It is a broad, thin muscle, fleshy posteriorly, and tendinous in its middle and lower part, and is situated immediately under the integuments, covering all the other muscles of the

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lower belly. It arises from the lower edges of the eight, and sometimes, though rarely, of the nine inferior ribs, not far from their cartilages, by as many distinct fleshy portions, which indigitate with corresponding parts of the serratus major anticus, and the latissimus dorsi. From these several origins, the fibres of the muscle descend obliquely forwards, and soon degenerate into a broad and thin aponeurosis, which terminates in the linea alba. About an inch and a half above the pubis the fibres of this aponeurosis separate from each other, so as to form an aperture, which extends obliquely inwards and forwards, more than an inch in length, and is wider above than below, being nearly of an oval figure. This is what is sometimes, though erroneously, called the *ring* of the abdominal muscles, for it belongs only to the external oblique, there being no such opening either in the obliquus internus or in the transversalis, as some writers, and particularly Douglas and Cheselden, would give us to understand. This opening, or ring, serves for the passage of the spermatic vessels in men,

and of the round ligament of the uterus in woman, and is of a larger size in the former than in the latter. The two tendinous portions, which, by their separation, form this aperture, are called the *columns* of the ring. The anterior, superior, and inner column, which is the broadest and thickest of the two, passes over the symphysis pubis, and is fixed to the opposite os pubis; so that the anterior column of the right obliquus externus intersects that of the left, and is, as it were, interwoven with it, by which means their insertion is strengthened, and their attachment made firmer. The posterior, inferior, and exterior column, approaches the anterior one as it descends, and is fixed behind and below it to the os pubis of the same side. The fibres of that part of the obliquus externus, which arises from the two inferior ribs, descend almost perpendicularly, and are inserted, tendinous and fleshy, into the outer edge of the anterior half of the spine of the ilium. From the anterior superior spinous process of that bone, the external oblique is stretched tendinous to the os pubis, forming what is called *Poupart's*, and sometimes *Fallopian's* ligament, Fallopius having first described it. Winslow, and many others, name it the *inguinal* ligament. But, after all, it has no claim to this name, it being nothing more than the tendon of the muscle, which is turned or folded inwards at its interior edge. It passes over the blood-vessels of the lower extremity, and is thickest near the pelvis; and in women, from the greater size of the pelvis, it is longer and looser than in men. Hence we find, that women are most liable to crural herniæ; whereas men, from the greater size of the ring of the external oblique, are most subject to the inguinal. From this ligament, and from that part of the tendon which forms the ring, we

observe a detachment of tendinous fibres, which are lost in the *fascia lata* of the thigh. This may, in some measure, account for the pain which, in cases of strangulated herniæ, is felt when the patient stands upright, and which is constantly relieved upon bending the thigh upwards. This muscle serves to draw down the ribs in expiration; to bend the trunk forwards when both muscles act, or to bend it obliquely to one side, and, perhaps, to turn it slightly upon its axis, when it acts singly; it also raises the pelvis obliquely when the ribs are fixed; it supports and compresses the abdominal viscera, assists in the evacuation of the urine and feces, and is likewise useful in parturition.

OBLIQUUS INFERIOR CAPITIS. This muscle is larger than the obliquus superior capitis. It is very obliquely situated between the two first vertebræ of the neck. It arises tendinous and fleshy from the middle and outer side of the spinous process of the second vertebra of the neck, and is inserted, tendinous and fleshy, into the lower and posterior part of the transverse process of the first vertebra. Its use is to turn the first vertebra upon the second, as upon a pivot, and to draw the face towards the shoulder.

OBLIQUUS INFERIOR OCULI. *Obliquus minor oculi* of Winslow. An oblique muscle of the eye, that draws the globe of the eye forwards, inwards, and downwards. It arises by a narrow beginning from the outer edge of the orbital process of the superior maxillary bone, near its junction with the lachrymal bone, and running obliquely outwards, is inserted into the sclerotic membrane of the eye.

OBLIQUUS INTERNUS ABDOMINIS. This muscle, which is the *obliquus ascendens* of Vesalius and Douglas, and the *obliquus minor* of

Haller, is situated immediately under the external oblique, and is broad and thin like that muscle, but somewhat less considerable in its extent. It arises from the spinous processes of the three inferior lumbar vertebræ, and from the posterior and middle part of the os sacrum, by a thin tendinous expansion, which is common to it and to the serratus pecticus inferior; by short tendinous fibres, from the whole spine of the ilium, between its posterior tuberosity and its anterior and superior spinous process; and from two thirds of the posterior surface of what is called Fallopius's ligament, at the middle of which we find the round ligament of the uterus in women, and the spermatic vessels in men, passing under the thin edge of this muscle; and in the latter, it likewise sends off some fibres, which descend upon the spermatic chord, as far as the tunica vaginalis of the testis, and constitute what is called the *cremaster* muscle, which surrounds, suspends, and compresses the testicle. From these origins, the fibres of the internal oblique run in different directions; those of the posterior portion ascend obliquely forwards, the middle ones become less and less oblique, and, at length, run in an horizontal direction, and those of the anterior portion extend obliquely downwards. The first of these are inserted, by very short tendinous fibres, into the cartilages of the fifth, fourth, and third of the false ribs; the fibres of the second, or middle portion, form a broad tendon, which, after being inserted into the lower edge of the cartilage of the second false rib, extends towards the linea alba, and separates into two layers; the anterior layer, which is the thickest of the two, joins the tendon of the obliquus externus, and runs over the two upper thirds of the rectus muscle, to be inserted into the linea alba; the posterior layer runs

under the rectus, adheres to the anterior surface of the tendon of the transversalis, and is inserted into the cartilages of the first of the false, and the last of the true ribs, and likewise into the linea alba. By this structure we may perceive that the greater part of the rectus is inclosed, as it were, in a sheath. The fibres of the anterior portion of the internal oblique, or those which arise from the spine of the ilium and the ligamentum Fallopii, likewise form a broad tendon, which, instead of separating into two layers like that of the other part of the muscle, runs over the lower part of the rectus, and adhering to the under surface of the tendon of the external oblique, is inserted into the fore part of the pubis. This muscle serves to assist the obliquus externus; but it seems to be more evidently calculated than that muscle is, to draw the ribs downwards and backwards. It likewise serves to separate the false ribs from the true ribs, and from each other.

OBLIQUUS MAJOR ABDOMINIS. See *Obliquus externus abdominis*.

OBLIQUUS MAJOR CAPITIS. See *Obliquus inferior capitis*.

OBLIQUUS MAJOR OCULI. See *Obliquus superior oculi*.

OBLIQUUS MINOR ABDOMINIS. See *Obliquus internus abdominis*.

OBLIQUUS MINOR CAPITIS. See *Obliquus superior capitis*.

OBLIQUUS MINOR OCULI. See *Obliquus inferior oculi*.

OBLIQUUS SUPERIOR CAPITIS. Riolanus, who was the first that gave particular names to the oblique muscles of the head, called this muscle *obliquus minor*, to distinguish it from the inferior, which, on account of its being much larger, he named *obliquus major*. Spigelius afterwards distinguished the two, from their situation with respect to each other,

into *superior* and *inferior*; and in this he is followed by Cowper and Douglas. Winslow retains both names. That used by Albinus is here adopted. This little muscle, which is nearly of the same shape as the *recti capitis*, is situated laterally between the occiput and the first vertebra of the neck, and is covered by the complexus and the upper part of the splenius. It arises, by a short thick tendon, from the upper and posterior part of the transverse process of the first vertebra of the neck, and, ascending obliquely inwards and backwards, becomes broader, and is inserted, by a broad flat tendon and some few fleshy fibres, into the os occipitis, behind the back part of the mastoid process, under the insertion of the complexus and splenius, and a little above that of the rectus major. The use of this muscle is to draw the head backwards, and perhaps to assist in its rotatory motion.

OBLIQUUS SUPERIOR OCULI. *Trochlearis.* *Obliquus major* of Winslow. An oblique muscle of the eye, that rolls the globe of the eye, and turns the pupil downwards and outwards. It arises like the straight muscles of the eye from the edge of the foramen opticum at the bottom of the orbit, between the rectus superior and rectus internus, from thence runs straight along the papyraceous portion of the ethmoid bone to the upper part of the orbit, where a cartilaginous trochlea is fixed to the inside of the internal angular process of the os frontis, through which its tendon passes, and runs a little downwards and outwards, inclosed in a loose membranaceous sheath, to be inserted into the sclerotic membrane.

OBSTETRIC, (*Obstetricus*, from *obstetrix*, a nurse). Belonging to midwifery.

OBSTIPATION, (*Obstipatio*, *onis*, f. from *obstipo*, to stop up). Costiveness. A genus of disease in the class

locales, and order *epischemes* of Cullen, comprehending three species: 1. *Obstipatio debiliū*, in weak and commonly dyspeptic persons. 2. *Obstipatio rigidorum*, in persons of rigid fibres and a melancholy temperament. 3. *Obstipatio obstructorum*, from obstructions. See *Colica*.

OBTURATOR EXTERNUS. This is a small flat muscle, situated obliquely at the upper and anterior part of the thigh, between the pectinalis and the fore part of the foramen thyroideum, and covered by the adductor brevis femoris. It arises tendinous and fleshy from all the inner half of the circumference of the foramen thyroideum, and likewise from part of the obturator ligament. Its radiated fibres collect and form a strong roundish tendon, which runs outwards, and after adhering to the capsular ligament of the joint is inserted into a cavity at the inner and back part of the root of the great trochanter. The chief uses of this muscle are to turn the thigh obliquely outwards, to assist in bending the thigh, and in drawing it inwards. It likewise prevents the capsular ligament from being pinched in the motions of the joint.

OBTURATOR INTERNUS. *Mar-supialis*, seu *obturator internus* of Douglas. This is a considerable muscle, a great part of which is situated within the pelvis. It arises, by very short tendinous fibres, from somewhat more than the upper half of the internal circumference of the foramen thyroideum of the os innominatum. It is composed of several distinct fasciculi, which terminate in a roundish tendon that passes out of the pelvis, through the niche that is between the spine and the tuberosity of the ischium, and, after running between the two portions of the gemini in the manner just now described, is inserted into the cavity of the root of the great trochanter, after adhering to the ad-

adjacent part of the capsular ligament of the joint. This muscle rolls the os femoris obliquely outwards, by pulling it towards the ischiatic niche, upon the cartilaginous surface of which its tendon, which is surrounded by a membranous sheath, moves as upon a pulley.

OBTURATOR NERVE. A nerve of the thigh; that is lost upon its inner muscles.

OCCIPITAL BONE. *Os basilare.* This bone, which forms the posterior and inferior part of skull, is of an irregular figure, convex on the outside, and concave internally. Its external surface, which is very irregular, serves for the attachment of several muscles. It affords several inequalities, which sometimes form two semicircular hollows separated by a scabrous ridge. The inferior portion of the bone is stretched forwards in form of a wedge, and hence is called the *cuneiform* process. At the base of this process, situated obliquely on each side of the foramen magnum, are two flat, oblong protuberances, named *condyles*. They are covered with cartilage, and serve for the articulation of the head with the first vertebra of the neck. In the inferior portion of this bone, at the basis of the cranium, and immediately behind the cuneiform process, we observe a considerable hole, through which the medulla oblongata passes into the spine. The *nervi accessorii*, the vertebral arteries, and sometimes the vertebral veins likewise, pass through it. Man being designed for an erect posture, this foramen magnum is found nearly in the middle of the basis of the human cranium, and at a pretty equal distance from the posterior part of the occiput, and the anterior part of the lower jaw; whereas in quadrupeds it is nearer the back part of the occiput. Besides this hole, there are four other smaller foramina, viz. two before, and two

behind the condyles. The former serve for the transmission of the ninth pair of nerves, and the two latter for the veins which pass from the external parts of the head to the lateral sinuses. On looking over the internal surface of the os occipitis, we perceive the appearance of a cross, formed by a very prominent ridge, which rises upwards from near the foramen magnum, and by two transverse sinuities, one on each side of the ridge. This cross occasions the formation of four fossæ, two above and two below the sinuities. In the latter are placed the lobes of the cerebellum, and in the former the posterior lobes of the brain. The two sinuities serve to receive the lateral sinuses. In the upper part of this bone is seen a continuation of the sinus of the longitudinal sinus; and at the basis of the cranium we observe the inner surface of the cuneiform process made concave for the reception of the medulla oblongata. The occipital bone is thicker and stronger than any of the other bones of the head, except the petrous part of the ossa temporum; but it is of unequal thickness. At its lateral and inferior parts, where it is thinnest, it is covered by a great number of muscles. The reason for so much thickness and strength in this bone seems to be, that it covers the cerebellum, in which the least wound is of the utmost consequence; and that it is, by its situation, more liable to be fractured by falls than any other bone of the cranium. For, if we fall forwards, the hands are naturally put out to prevent the forehead's touching the ground; and if on one side, the shoulders in a great measure protect the sides of the head; but if a person fall backwards, the hind part of the head consequently strikes against the earth, and that too with considerable violence. Nature therefore has wisely constructed this bone

so as to be capable of the greatest strength at its upper part, where it is the most exposed to injury. The os occipitis is joined, by means of the cuneiform process, to the sphenoid bone, with which it often ossifies, and makes but one bone in those who are advanced in life. It is connected to the parietal bones by the lambdoidal suture, and to the temporal bones by the additamentum of the temporal suture. The head is likewise united to the trunk by means of this bone. The two condyles of the occipital bone are received into the superior oblique processes of the atlas, or first vertebra of the neck, and it is by means of this articulation that a certain degree of motion of the head backwards and forwards is performed. But it allows only very little motion to either side; and still less of a circular motion, which the head obtains principally by the circumvolution of the atlas on the second vertebra, as is described more particularly in the account of the vertebræ. In the fœtus, the os occipitis is divided by an unossified cartilaginous substance into four parts. One of these, which is the largest, constitutes all that portion of the bone that is above the foramen magnum; two others, which are much smaller, compose the sides of the foramen magnum, and include the condyloid processes; and the fourth is the cuneiform process. This last is sometimes not completely united with the rest so as to form one bone, before the sixth or seventh year.

OCCIPITALIS. See *Occipito-frontalis*.

OCCIPITO-FRONTALIS. *Digastricus cranii.* *Epicranius* of Albinus. *Frontalis et occipitalis* of Winslow. A single broad digastric muscle, that covers the cranium, pulls the skin of the head backwards, raises the eye-brows upwards, and, at the same time, draws up and wrinkles the skin

of the forehead. It arises from the posterior part of the occiput, goes over the upper part of the os parietale and os frontis, and is lost in the eye-brows.

OCCIPUT, (*Occiput, itis, n.*). The hinder part of the head. See *Caput*.

OCHRA, (*Ochra, æ, f.* *ωχρα*, from *ωχρεο*, pale; so named because it is often of a pale colour). Ochre. An argillaceous earth impregnated with iron of a red or yellow colour. The Armenian bole, and other earth, are often adulterated with ochre.

OCIMUM, (*Ocimum, i, n.* *ωκυμον*, from *ωκυς*, swift; so called from its sudden growth). See *Basilicum*.

OCIMUM BASILICUM. The systematic name of the common or citron basil. See *Basilicum*.

OCIMUM CARYOPHYLLATUM. Small or bush basil. This plant is mildly balsamic. Infusions are drank as tea in catarrhus and uterine disorders, and the dried leaves are made into cephalic and sternutatory powders. They are, when fresh, very juicy, of a weak aromatic and very mucilaginous taste, and of a strong and agreeable smell improved by drying.

OCULARIA, (*Ocularia, æ, f.* from *oculus*, the eye, so called from its uses in disorders of the eye.) See *Euphrasia*.

OCULI ADDUCTOR. See *Rectus internus oculi*.

OCULI ATTOLLENS. See *Rectus superior oculi*.

OCULI CANCRORUM. See *Cancer*.

OCULI DEPRESSOR. See *Rectus inferior oculi*.

OCULI ELEVATOR. See *Rectus superior oculi*.

OCULI LEVATOR. See *Rectus superior oculi*.

OCULI OBLIQUUS INFERIOR. See *Obliquus inferior oculi*.

OCULI OBLIQUUS MAJOR. See *Obliquus superior oculi*.

OCULI OBLIQUUS MINOR. See *Obliquus inferior oculi*.

OCULUS BOVIS. See *Bellis major*.

ODONTALGIA, (*Odontalgia*, *α, f.* οδονταλγια, from οδους, a tooth, and αλγος, pain). The toothach.

ODONTALGICA, (*Medicamenta odontalgica*, οδονταλγικα, from οδονταλγια, the toothach). Medicines which relieve the toothach.

ODONTOID PROCESS, (*Processus odontoides*, from οδους, a tooth, and οιδος, form, because it is shaped like a tooth). A process of the second vertebra of the neck. See *Dentatus*.

ODORIFEROUS GLANDS. These glands are situated around the corona glandis of the male, and under the skin of the labia majora and nymphæ of females. They secrete a sebaceous matter, which emits a peculiar odour; hence their name.

OECONOMY, (*Œconomia*, *α, f.* οικονομια, from οικος, a house, and νομος, a law). The conduct of nature in preserving animal bodies is called the animal œconomy.

ŒDĒMA, (*Œdema*, *αῖσις, n.* οιδημα, from οιδειν, to swell). A synonym of anasarca. See *Anasarca*.

OENANTHE, (*Oenanthe*, *es, f.* οινανθη, from οινος, wine, and ανθος, a flower, so called because its flowers smell like the vine). Hemlock dropwort. This umbelliferous plant, *Oenanthe crocata* of Linnæus, is an active poison, and has too often proved fatal, by being eaten in mistake instead of water parsnep. The juice, nevertheless, cautiously exhibited, promises to be an efficacious remedy in inveterate scorbutic eruptions. The root of this plant is not unpleasant to the taste, and esteemed to be most deleterious of all the vegetables which this country produces. Mr. Howel, surgeon at Haverfordwest, relates, that "eleven French prisoners had the liberty of walking in and about the town of Pembroke. Three of them

being in the fields a little before noon, dug up a large quantity of this plant, which they took to be wild celery, to eat with their bread and butter for dinner. After washing it, they all three ate, or rather tasted of the roots. As they were entering the town, without any previous notice of sickness at the stomach, or disorder in the head, one of them was seized with convulsions. The other two ran home and sent a surgeon to him. The surgeon endeavoured first to bleed, and then to vomit him; but those endeavours were fruitless, and he died presently. Ignorant of the cause of their comrade's death, and of their own danger, they gave of these roots to the other eight prisoners, who ate some of them with their dinner. A few minutes afterwards, the remaining two who gathered the plants, were seized in the same manner as the first, of which one died; the other was bled, and a vomit with great difficulty forced down, on account of his jaws being as it were locked together. This operated, and he recovered, but was some time affected with dizziness in his head, though not sick, or the least disordered in his stomach. The other eight being bled and vomited immediately, were soon well. At Clonmel, in Ireland, eight boys, mistaking this plant for water parsnep, ate plentifully of its roots. About four or five hours after, the eldest boy became suddenly convulsed and died; and before the next morning four of the other boys died in a similar manner. Of the other three, one was maniacal several hours, another lost his hair and nails, but the third escaped unhurt. Stalpaart Vander Wiel mentions two cases of the fatal effects of this root; these, however, were attended with great heat in the throat and stomach, sickness, vertigo, and purging; they both died in the course of two or three hours after

eating the root. Allen, in his *Synopsis Medicinæ*, also relates, that four children suffered greatly by eating this poison. In these cases great agony was experienced before the convulsions supervened; vomitings likewise came on, which were encouraged by large draughts of oil and warm water, to which their recovery is ascribed. The late Sir William Watson, who refers to the instances here cited, also says, that a Dutchman was poisoned by the leaves of the plant boiled in pottage. It appears from various authorities, that most brute animals are not less affected by this poison than man; and Mr. Lighfoot informs us, that a spoonful of the juice of this plant given to a dog rendered him sick and stupid; but a goat was observed to eat the the plant with impunity. The great virulence of this plant has not, however, prevented it from being taken medicinally. In a letter from Dr. Poulteney to Sir William Watson we are told, that a severe and inveterate cutaneous disorder was cured by the juice of the root, though not without exciting the most alarming symptoms. Taken in the dose of a spoonful, in two hours afterwards the head was affected in a very extraordinary manner, followed with violent sickness and vomiting, cold sweats, and rigours, but this did not deter the patient from continuing the medicine, in somewhat less doses, till it effected a cure.

OENANTHE CROCATA. The systematic name of the hemlock dropwort. See *Oenanthe*.

ŒSOPHAGUS, (*Œsophagus*, *i. m.* οἰσφάγος, from οἶα, to carry, and φάγω, to eat, because it carries the food into the stomach). The membranous and muscular tube that descends in the neck from the pharynx to the stomach. It is composed of three tunics or membranes, viz. a common, muscular, and mucous. Its

arteries are branches of the œsophageal, which arises from the aorta. The veins empty themselves into the vena azygos. Its nerves are from the eighth pair and great intercostal; and it is every where under the internal or mucous membrane, supplied with glands that separate the mucous of the œsophagus, in order that the masticated bolus may readily pass down into the stomach.

ŒSTRUM VENEREUM, (*Œstrum*, *i. n.* from *æstrus*, a gad-bee, because by its bite or sting it agitates cattle) The venereal orgasm, or pleasant sensation experienced during coition.

OFFICINAL, (*Officinalis*, from *officina*, a shop). Any medicine, directed by the colleges of physicians to be kept in the shops, is so termed.

OIL, (*Oleum*, *i. n.* ελαιον, from *olea*, the olive, this name being at first confined to the oil expressed from the olive). Oils are defined, by modern chemists, to be proper juices of a fat or unctuous nature, either solid or fluid, indissoluble in water, combustible with flame, and volatile in different degrees. They are never formed but by organic bodies; and all substances in the mineral kingdom, which present oily characters, have originated from the action of vegetable or animal life. Oils are distinguished into fat, and essential oils: under the former head are comprehended oil of olives, almonds, rape, ben, linseed, hemp, and cocoa. Essential oils differ from fat oils by the following characters: their smell is strong and aromatic; their volatility is such that they rise with the heat of boiling water, and their taste is very acrid; they are likewise much more combustible than fat oils; they are obtained by pressure, distillation, &c. from strong-smelling plants. The use of fat oils in the arts, and in medicine, is very considerable; they are medicinally prescribed as relaxing, softening, and laxative remedies; they

enter into many medical compounds, such as balsams, unguents, plasters, &c. and they are often used as food on account of the mucilage they contain. See *Oliva*. Essential oils are employed as cordial, stimulant, and antispasmodic remedies.

OIL, ALMOND. See *Amygdala*.

OIL, CASTOR. See *Ricinus*.

OIL OF MACE. See *Oleum macis*.

OIL, OLIVE. See *Oliva*.

OIL, PALM. See *Palm oil*.

OIL, ROCK. See *Petroleum*.

OLĒA EUROPEA. The systematic name of the plant from which the olive oil is obtained. See *Oliva*.

OLĒCRĀNON, (*Olecranon*, i, n. *ωλεκρανον*, from *ωλενν*, the ulna, and *κρανον*, the head. The elbow or head of the ulna, upon which a person leans.

OLENĒ, (*Olene*, es, f. *ωλενη*). The cubit or ulna.

OLĒUM. See *Oil*.

OLEUM ABIETINUM. The resinous juice which exudes spontaneously from the silver and red firs. It is supposed to be superior to that obtained by wounding the tree.

OLĒUM AMYGDĀLÆ. See *Amygdale*.

OLĒUM ANIMĀLE. An empyreumatic substance obtained by distillation from animal substances. It is sometimes exhibited as an antispasmodic and diaphoretic, in the dose of from ten to forty drops.

OLĒUM ANISI ESSENTIĀLE. The essential oil of aniseed possesses all the virtues attributed to the anisum, and is often given as a stimulant and carminative, in the dose of from five to eight drops, mixed with an appropriate vehicle. See *Anisum*.

OLĒUM CAMPHORĀTUM. In retentions of urine, rheumatic pains, distentions of the abdomen from ascites; tension of the skin from abscesses, this is an excellent application.

OLĒUM CARPATHICUM. A fine essential oil, distilled from the fresh,

cones of the tree, which affords the common turpentine. See *Terebinthina vulgaris*.

OLĒUM CARŪI ESSENTIĀLE. The essential oil of carraways is an admirable carminative, diluted with rectified spirit into an essence, and then mixed with any proper fluid.

OLĒUM CARYOPHYLLI AROMATĪCI ESSENTIĀLE. A stimulant and aromatic preparation of the clove.

OLĒUM CEDRĪNUM. *Essentia de cedro*. The oil of the peel of citrons, obtained in a particular manner, without distillation, in Italy.

OLEUM CINNAMOMI ESSENTIĀLE. A warm, stimulant, and delicious stomachic. Given in the dose of from one to three drops, rubbed down with some yolk of egg, in a little wine, it allays violent emotions of the stomach from morbid irritability, and is particularly serviceable in debility of the primæ viæ, after cholera morbus.

OLĒUM CORNU CERVI. This is applied externally as a stimulant to paralytic affections of the limbs.

OLĒUM E SEMINIBUS LINI. Linseed oil is emollient and demulcent, in the dose of from half an ounce to an ounce. It is frequently given in the form of glyster in colics and obstipation. Cold drawn linseed oil, with lime water and extract of lead, forms in many instances the best application for burns and scalds.

OLĒUM E SEMINIBUS RĪCINI. See *Ricinus*.

OLĒUM GABIANUM. See *Petroleum rubrum*.

OLĒUM JUNIPĒRI ESSENTIĀLE. Oil of juniper berries possesses stimulant, carminative, and stomachic virtues, in the dose of from two to four drops, and in a larger dose proves highly diuretic. It is often administered in the cure of dropical complaints, when the indication is to provoke the urinal discharge.

**OLĒUM LAVENDŪLÆ ESSENTI-
ALE.** Though mostly used as a
perfume, this essential oil may be ex-
hibited internally in the dose of from
one to five drops, as a stimulant in
nervous head-aches, hysteria and de-
bility of the stomach.

**OLĒUM LAURI BACCĀRUM EX-
PRESSUM.** An anodyne and anti-
spasmodic application, generally rub-
ed on sprains and bruises unattended
with inflammation.

OLĒUM LAURĪNUM. *Oleum ex-
pressum baccarum lauri.* An almost
insipid fluid oil, obtained by expres-
sing the berries of the bay-tree. It is
principally used as a carminative in
glysters.

OLĒUM LIMŌNIS ESSENTIĀLE.
The essential oil of lemons possesses
stimulant and stomachic powers, but
is principally used externally, mixed
with ointments as a perfume.

OLĒUM LUCĪPISCIS. See *Esox
lucius*.

OLĒUM MACIS. *Oleum myristicæ
expressum.* Oil of mace. A fragrant
sebaceous substance, expressed in the
East Indies from the nutmeg. There
are two kinds. The best is brought
in stone jars, is somewhat soft, of a
yellow colour, and resembles in
smell the nutmeg. The other is
brought from Holland in flat square
cakes. The weak smell and faint
colour warrants our supposing it to be
the former kind sophisticated. Their
use is chiefly external, in form of
plaster, unguent, or liniment.

OLĒUM MALABATHII. An oil
similar in flavour to that of cloves,
brought from the East Indies, where
it is said to be drawn from the leaves
of the cinnamon-tree.

OLĒUM MENTHÆ PIPERITĪDIS.
Essential oil of peppermint possesses
all the active principle of the plant.
It is mostly used to make the simple
water: mixed with rectified spirit it
forms an essence, which is put into a
variety of compounds, as sugar drops

and trochisches, which are exhibit-
ed as stimulants, carminatives, and sto-
machics.

OLĒUM MENTHÆ SATIVÆ. This
essential oil is mostly in use for
making the simple water, but may
be exhibited in the dose of from two
to five drops as a carminative, sto-
machic, and stimulant.

OLĒUM NEROLI. *Essentia neroli.*
The essential oil of the flowers of the
seville orange tree. It is brought to
us from Italy and France.

**OLĒUM MYRISTICÆ ESSENTI-
ĀLE.** The essential oil of nutmegs is
an excellent stimulant and aromatic,
and may be exhibited in every case
where such remedies are indicated,
with advantage.

**OLĒUM MYRISTICÆ EXPRES-
SUM.** This is commonly called oil
of mace. See *Oleum macis*.

OLĒUM OLIVÆ. See *Oliva*.

OLĒUM ORIGĀNI ESSENTIĀLE.
A very acrid and stimulating essential
oil. It is employed for alleviating
the pain arising from caries of the
teeth, and for making the simple wa-
ter of marjoram.

OLĒUM PALMÆ. See *Palm oil*.

OLĒUM PETRÆ. See *Petroleum*.

OLĒUM PIMENTO ESSENTIĀLE.
A stimulant and aromatic oil.

OLĒUM PULEGII ESSENTIĀLE.
A stimulant and antispasmodic oil,
which may be exhibited in hysterical
and nervous affections.

**OLĒUM RORIS MARINI ESSEN-
TIĀLE.** The essential oil of rosemary
is an excellent stimulant, and may be
given with great advantage in ner-
vous and spasmodic affections of the
stomach.

OLĒUM SABINÆ ESSENTIĀLE.
A stimulating emmenagogue: it is
best administered with myrrh, in the
form of bolus.

OLĒUM SASSAFRAS. An agree-
able stimulating stomachic carminative
and sudorific.

OLĒUM SINAPĒOS. This is an

emollient oil, the acrid principle of the mustard remaining in the seed.

OLĒUM SUCCINI. Oil of amber is mostly used externally as a stimulating application to paralytic limbs, or those affected with cramp and rheumatism. Hooping cough, and other convulsive diseases, are said to be relieved also by rubbing the spine with this oil.

OLĒUM SUCCINI RECTIFICATUM. Stimulant, diaphoretic, and antispasmodic virtues, reside in this preparation, which is given in the dose of from ten to twenty drops, or more, in hysterical affections, epilepsy, and other convulsive diseases.

OLĒUM SULPHURATUM. This, which was formerly called simple balsam of sulphur, is an acrid and stimulating preparation, and much praised by some in the cure of coughs and other phthisical complaints.

OLĒUM SYRIÆ. A fragrant essential oil, obtained by distillation from the balm of gilead plant. See *Moluccavica*.

OLĒUM TEMPLINUM. *Oleum templinum verum.* A terebinthinate oil obtained from the fresh cones of the *Pinus abies* of Linnæus.

OLĒUM TERRÆ. See *Petroleum*.

OLĒUM TEREBINTHINÆ. Bruises, sprains, rheumatic pains, and some affections of the joint, are relieved by liniments in which this is the chief article. Mixed with ointments it is employed as a stimulating detergent.

OLĒUM TEREBINTHINÆ RECTIFICATUM. Stimulant, diuretic, and sudorific virtues are attributed to this preparation, in the dose of from ten drops to twenty, which are given in rheumatic pains of the chronic kind, especially sciatica. Its chief use internally, however, is as an anthelmintic and styptic. Uterine, pulmonary, gastric, intestinal, and other hemorrhages, when passive, are more

effectually relieved by its exhibition than by any other medicine.

OLĒUM VINI. Stimulant and anodyne in the dose of from one to four drops.

OLĒUM VITRIOLI. See *Sulphureus acid*.

OLFACTORY NERVES, (*Nervi olfactorii*; from *olfactus*, the sense of smelling). The first pair of nerves are so termed, because they are the organs of smelling. They arise from the corpora striata, perforate the ethmoid bone, and are distributed very numerously on the pituitary membrane of the nose.

OLIBANUM, (*Olibanum*, *i*, *n.* *لبان*; from *lebona*, Chald.). *Thus. Frankincense.* The gum-resin that is so called is the juice of the *Juniperus lycia*. *Juniperus foliis ternis undique imbricatis ovatis obtusis.* Class *Dioecia*. Order *Monadelphia*. It is said to ooze spontaneously from the bark of the tree, appearing in drops or tears of a pale yellowish, and sometimes of a reddish colour. Olibanum has a moderately strong and not very agreeable smell, and a bitterish, somewhat pungent taste: in chewing it sticks to the teeth, becomes white, and renders the saliva milky. It is esteemed as an astringent, and though not in general use, is by many considered as a valuable medicine in fluor albus, and debilities of the stomach and intestines: applied externally in form of plaster, it is said to be corroborant, &c. and with this intention it forms the basis of the *emplastrum thuris*.

OLIVA. The olive. The fruit of the *Olea europea* of Linnæus. *Olea foliis lanceolatis integerrimis; racemis axillaribus coarctatis.* Hort. Kew. Class *Monandria*. Order *Monogynia*. The olive-tree, in all ages, has been greatly celebrated, and held in peculiar estimation, as the bounteous gift of heaven; it was formerly exhibited in the religious ceremonies of the Jews,

and is still considered as emblematic of peace and plenty. The utility of the fruit is very extensive. Pickled olives, which are of two kinds, Spanish and French, are extremely grateful to many stomachs, and said to excite appetite and promote digestion; they are prepared from the green unripe fruit, which is repeatedly steeped in water, to which some quick-lime or alkaline salt is added, in order to shorten the operation: after this they are washed and preserved in a pickle of common salt and water, to which an aromatic is sometimes added. The principal consumption, however, of this fruit is in the preparation of the common salad oil, or *oleum olivæ* of the pharmacopœias, which is obtained by grinding and pressing them when thoroughly ripe: the finer and purer oil issues first by gentle pressure, and the inferior sorts on heating what is left, and pressing it more strongly. The best olive oil is of a bright pale amber colour, bland to the taste, and without any smell: it becomes rancid by age, and sooner if kept in a warm situation. With regard to its utility, oil, in some shape, forms a considerable part of our food, both animal and vegetable, and affords much nourishment. With some, however, oily substances do not unite with the contents of the stomach, and are frequently brought up by eructation; this happens more especially to those whose stomachs abound with acid. Oil, considered as a medicine, is supposed to correct acrimony, and to lubricate and relax the fibres; and therefore has been recommended internally, to obviate the effects of various stimuli, which produce irritation, and consequent inflammation: on this ground it has been generally prescribed in coughs, catarrhal affections, and erosions. The oil of olives is successfully used in Switzerland against the *tenia of-*

culis superficialibus, and it is in very high estimation in this and other countries against mephitic pain, spasms, cholic, constipation of the bowels, &c. Externally it has been found an useful application to bites and stings of various poisonous animals, as the mad dog, several serpents, &c. also to burns, tumours and other affections, both by itself or mixed in liniments or poultices. Oil rubbed over the body is said to be of great service in dropsies, particularly ascites. Olive oil enters several officinal compositions, and when united with water, by the intervention of alkali, is usually given in coughs and hoarsenesses.

OLIVES. See *Oliua*.

OLIVE, SPURGE. See *Mezerium*.

OMENTĪTIS, (*Omentitis*, *idis*, from *omentum*, the cawl). Inflammation of the omentum, a species of peritonitis.

OMENTUM, (*Omentum*, *i*, n. from *omen*, a guess; so called because the soothsayers prophesied from an inspection of this part). *Epiploon*. The caul. An adipose membranous viscus of the abdomen, that is attached to the stomach, and lies on the anterior surface of the intestines. It is thin and easily torn, being formed of a duplicature of the peritoneum with more or less of fat interposed. It is distinguished into the great omentum and the little omentum.

The great omentum, which is also termed *gastrocolicum*, arises from the whole of the great curvature of the stomach, even as far as the spleen from whence it descends loose behind the abdominal parietes, and over the intestines to the navel, and sometimes into the pelvis. Having descended thus far, its inferior margin turns inwards and ascends again and is fastened to the colon and the spleen, where its vessels enter.

The small omentum, or *hepaticæ*

stria, arises posteriorly from the transverse fissure of the liver. It is composed of a duplicature of peritoneum, passes over the duodenum and small lobe of the liver; it also passes by the lobulus spigelii and pancreas, proceeds into the colon and small curvature of the stomach, and is implanted ligamentous into the oesophagus. It is in this omentum that Winslow discovered a natural opening, which goes by his name. Air may be blown in at the foramen of Winslow, which is always found behind the lobulus spigelii, between the right side of the liver and hepatic vessels, the vena portarum and duodenum, the cavity of the omentum, and all its sacs may be distended.

The omentum is always double, and between its lamellæ closely connected by very tender cellular substance, the vessels are distributed and the fat collected. Where the top of the right kidney, and the lobulus spigelii of the liver, with the adjacent large vessels, form an angle with the duodenum, there the external membrane of the colon, which comes from the peritoneum joining with the membrane of the duodenum, which also arises immediately from the peritoneum lying upon the kidney, enters back into the transverse fissure of the liver for a considerable space, is continuous with its external coat, contains the gall-bladder, supports the hepatic vessels, and is very yellow and slippery. Behind this membranous production, betwixt the right lobe of the liver, hepatic vessels, vena portarum, biliary ducts, aorta, and adjacent duodenum, there is the natural opening just mentioned, by which air may be blown extensively into all the cavity of the omentum. From thence, in a course continuous with this membrane from the pylorus and the smaller curvature of the stomach, the external membrane of the liver

joins in such a manner with that of the stomach, that the thin membrane of the liver is continued out of the fossa of the venal duct across the little lobe into the stomach stretched before the lobe and before the pancreas. This little omentum, or *hepatico-gastricum*, when inflated, resembles a cone, and gradually becoming harder and emaciated, it changes into a true ligament, by which the oesophagus is connected to the diaphragm. But the larger omentum, the *gastrocolicum*, is of a much greater extent. It begins at the first accession of the right gastro-epiploic artery to the stomach, being continued there from the upper plate of the transverse mesocolon; and then from the whole great curve of the stomach, as far as the spleen, and also from the right convex end of the stomach towards the spleen, until it also terminates in a ligament, that ties the upper and back part of the spleen to the stomach: this is the anterior lamina. Being continued downward, sometimes to the navel, sometimes to the pelvis, it hangs before the intestines, and behind the muscles of the abdomen, until its lower edge being reflected upon itself, ascends, leaving an intermediate vacuity between it and the anterior lamina, and is continued to a very great extent into the external membrane of the transverse colon, and lastly, into the sinus of the spleen, by which the large blood vessels are received, and it ends finally on the oesophagus, under the diaphragm. Behind the stomach, and before the pancreas, its cavity is continuous with that of the smaller omentum. To this the omentum colicum is connected, which arises farther to the right than the first origin of the omentum gastrocolicum from the mesocolon, with the cavity of which it is continuous, but produced solely

from the colon and its external membrane, which departs double from the intestine; it is prolonged, and terminates by a conical extremity, sometimes of longer, sometimes of shorter extent, above the intestinum cæcum. For all the blood which returns from the omentum and mesocolon, goes into the vena portarum, and by that into the liver itself. The omentum gastrocolicum is furnished with blood from each of the gastro-epiploic arteries, by many descending articulated branches, of which the most lateral are the longest, and the lowest anastomose by minute twigs with those of the colon. It also has branches from the splenic, duodenal, and adipose arteries. The omentum colicum has its arteries from the colon, as also the smaller appendices, and also from the duodenal and right epiploic. The arteries of the small omentum come from the hepatics, and from the right and left coronaries. The omentum being fat and indolent, has very small nerves. They arise from the nerves of the eighth pair, both in the greater and lesser curvatures of the stomach. The arteries of the mesentery are in general the same with those which go to the intestine, and of which the smaller branches remain in the glands and fat of the mesentery. Various small accessory arteries go to both mesocolons from the intercostals, spermatics, lumbar, and capsular, to the transverse portion from the splenic artery and pancreato-duodenalis, and to the left mesocolon, from the branches of the aorta going to the lumbar glands. The veins of the omentum in general accompany the arteries, and unite into similar trunks; those of the left part of the gastrocolic omentum into the splenic, and also those of the hepatogastric, which likewise sends its blood to the trunk of the vena portarum: those from the larger and right part of the gastro-

colic omentum, from the omentum colicum, and from the appendix epiploides, into the mesenteric trunk. All the veins of the mesentery meet together in one wick in the trunk of the large vena portarum, being collected first into two large branches of which the one, the mesenteric, receives the gastro-epiploic vein, the colicæ mediæ, the iliocolica, and all those of the small intestines as far as the duodenum; the other, which going transversely inserts itself into the former, above the origin of the duodenum, carries back the blood of the left gastric veins, and those of the rectum, except the lowermost which belongs partly to those of the bladder, and partly to the hypogastric branches of the pelvis. The vein which is called hæmorrhoidalis interna is sometimes inserted rather into the splenic than into the mesenteric vein. Has the omentum also lymphatic vessels? Certainly there are conglomerate glands, both in the little omentum and in the gastrocolicum; and ancient anatomists have observed pellucid vessels in the omentum; and a modern has described them for lacteals of the stomach.

OMENTUM GASTRO-COLICUM.
See *Omentum*.

OMENTUM HEPATICO-GASTRICUM. See *Omentum*.

OMO. Names compounded with this word belong to muscles which are attached to the scapula; from *opus*, the shoulder. As,

OMO-HYOIDEUS. *Coraco-hyoideus* of Albinus and Douglas. A muscle situated between the os hyoides and shoulder, that pulls the os hyoides obliquely downwards. It arises broad, thin, and fleshy from the superior costa of the scapula, near the semilunar notch, and from the ligament that runs across it; thence ascending obliquely, it becomes tendinous below the sternocleido-mastoideus, and growing fleshy

gain, is inserted into the base of the s hyoides.

OMOPLĀTA, (*Omoplata*, *a*, f. *ομοπλάτη*; from *ομος*, the shoulder, and *πλατύς*, broad). See *Scapula*.

OMPHĀLOCĒLE, (*Omphalocele*, *es*, *ομφαλοκήλη*; from *ομφαλος*, the navel, and *κήλη*, a tumour). An umilical hernia. See *Hernia*.

ONEIRODYNĪA, (*Oneirodynia*, *a*, *ονειροδυνία*; from *ονειρος*, a dream, and *δύω*, anxiety). Disturbed imagination during sleep. A genus of disease in the class *neuroses*, and order *vesania* of Cullen, containing two species: 1. *Oneirodynia activa*, walking in the sleep. 2. *Oneirodynia gravis*, the incubus or night-mare. See *Night-mare*.

ONION. See *Cepa*.

ONION, SEA. See *Scilla*.

ONISCUS, (*Oniscus*, *i*, *ονισκος*; from *ονος*, an ass; so called because like the ass it requires much beating before it is useful). The stock-fish. Also the slow-worm.

ONISCUS ASELLUS. The systematic name of the woodlouse. See *Millipedes*.

ONONIS, (*Ononis*, *is*, f. *ωνωνίς*; from *ονος*, an ass, because it interrupts asses when at plough). *Resta bovis*. *Arresta bovis*. *Remora aratri*. Rest harrow. The roots of this plant, *Ononis spinosa*, vel *arvensis* of Linnæus, have a faint unpleasant smell, and a sweetish, bitterish, somewhat nauseous taste. Their active matter is confined to the cortical part, which has been sometimes given in powder, or other forms, as an aperient and diuretic.

ONONIS ARVENSIS. The systematic name of the rest harrow. See *Ononis*.

ONONIS SPINOSA. The systematic name of the rest harrow. See *Ononis*.

ONOSMA ECHIOIDES. The systematic name of the plant whose root is called *anchusa lutea* in some phar-

macopœias. It is supposed to possess menagogue virtues.

ONOPORDIUM ACANTHIUM, (*Onopordium*, *i*, n. *ονοπόρδιον*; from *ονος*, an ass, and *περδω*, to break wind; so named from its being much coveted by asses, and from the noise it makes upon pressure, and *acanthium*, from *ακανθιος*, thorny). The systematic name of the cotton thistle. See *Carduus tormentosus*.

ONYX, (*Onyx*, *ichis*, m. & f. *ονυξ*). *Unguis*. An abscess, or collection of pus between the lamella of the cornea; so called from its resemblance to the stone called onyx. The diagnostic signs are, a white spot or speck, prominent, soft, and fluctuating. The species are: 1. *Abscessus superficialis*, arising from inflammation, not dangerous, for it vanishes when the inflammation is resolved by the use of astringent collyria. 2. *Abscessus profundus*, or a deep abscess, which is deeper seated between the lamellæ of the cornea, sometimes breaking internally, and forming an hypopium: when it opens externally it leaves a fistula upon the cornea; whenever the pus is exsiccated, there remains a leucoma.

OPHIORRHIZA MUNGOS. The systematic name of the plant whose root is called *radix serpentum* in the pharmacopœias. See *Mungos radix*.

OPHIOXYLUM SERPENTINUM. The systematic name of the tree whose wood is termed *lignum serpentinum*. See *Serpentinum lignum*.

OPHTHALMĪA, (*Ophthalmia*, *a*, f. *οφθαλμία*; from *οφθαλμος*, the eye). An inflammation of the membranes of the eye, or of the whole bulb of the eye, distinguishable by redness, heat, pain, and tension of the parts, accompanied with intolerance of light, and effusion of tears. It is a genus of disease in the class *pyrexia*, and order *phlegmasia* of Cullen; and comprehends two species: 1. *Ophthalmia membranarum*, inflammation

of the coats of the eye. 2. *Ophthalmia tarfi*, in which small ulcers are seen of the sebaceous glands of the tarsus, discharging a glutinous matter.

OPHTHALMIC GANGLION. *Ganglion ophthalmicum*. Lenticular ganglion. This ganglion is formed in the orbit, by the union of a branch of the third or fourth pair with the first branch of the fifth pair of nerves.

OPHTHALMIC NERVE. *Nervus ophthalmicus*. Orbital nerve. The first branch of the ganglion or expansion of the fifth pair of nerves. It is from this nerve that a branch is given off, to form, with a branch of the sixth, the great intercostal nerve.

OPHTHALMODŶNĪA, (*Ophthalmodynia*, *α*, f. *οφθαλμοδυνια*, from *οφθαλμος*, an eye, and *οδυνη*, pain). A vehement pain in the eye, without, or with very little redness. The sensation of pain is various, as itching, burning, or as if gravel were between the globe of the eye and lids. The species are: 1. *Ophthalmodynia rheumatica*, which is a pain in the muscular expansions of the globe of the eye, without redness in the albuginea. The rheumatic inflammation is serous, and rarely produces redness. 2. *Ophthalmodynia periodica*, is a periodical pain in the eye, without redness. 3. *Ophthalmodynia spasmodica*, is a pressing pain in the bulb of the eye, arising from spasmodic contractions of the muscles of the eye, in nervous, hysteric, and hypochondriac persons. It is observed to terminate by a flow of tears. 4. *Ophthalmodynia from an internal inflammation* of the eye. In this disorder, there is a pain and sensation as if the globe was pressed out of the orbit. 5. *Ophthalmodynia hydrophthalmica*. After a great pain in the inferior part of the os frontis, the sight is obscured, the pupil is dilated, and the bulb of the eye appears larger, pressing on the lid. This species is likewise perceived from an incipient hydrophthalmia

of the vitreous humour. 6. *Ophthalmodynia arenosa*, is an itching and sensation of pain in the eye, as if sand or gravel were lodged between the globe and lid. 7. *Ophthalmodynia symptomatica*, which is a symptom of some other eye disease, and is to be cured by removing the exciting cause. 8. *Ophthalmodynia cancrosa*, which arises from cancerous acrimony deposited in the eye, and is rarely curable.

OPHTHALMOPTŌSIS, (*Ophthalmoptosis*, *is*, f. *οφθαλμοπτωσις*, from *οφθαλμος*, an eye, and *πτωσις*, a fall). A falling down of the globe of the eye on the cheek, canthus, or upwards the globe itself being scarce altered in magnitude. The cause is a relaxation of the muscles, and ligamentous expansions of the globe of the eye. The species are: 1. *Ophthalmoptosis violenta*, which is generated by a violent contusion or strong stroke, as happens sometimes in boxing. The eye falls out of the socket on the cheek or canthus of the eye, and from the elongation and extension of the optic nerve occasions immediate blindness. 2. *Ophthalmoptosis*, from a tumour within the orbit. An exostosis, topus, abscess, encysted tumours, as, atheroma, hygroma, or scirrhus, forming within the orbit, induration of the orbital adeps, may throw the bulb of the eye out of the socket upwards, downwards, or towards either canthus. 3. *Ophthalmoptosis paralytica*, or the paralytic ophthalmoptosis, which arises from a paralysis or palsy of the recti muscles, from hence a stronger power in the oblique muscles of the bulb. 4. *Ophthalmoptosis staphylomatica*, when the staphyloma depresses the inferior eyelid and extends on the cheek.

OPIATES. *Medicamenta opiate*. Medicines that procure sleep, &c. See *Anodynes*.

OPISTHŌTŌNOS, (*Opisthotonus*, *i*, m. *οπισθοτονος*, from *οπισθεν*, backwards, and *τεινω*, to draw). A clonic spasm of several muscles, so as to keep the

body in a fixed position, and bent backwards. Cullen considers it as a variety of tetanus. See *Tetanus*.

OPÍUM, (*Opium*, *i*, n. *οπίον*, from *πας*, juice, or rather from *opi*, Arab.). A gummy juice obtained by incisions from the head of the *papaver omniferum* of Linnæus. *Papaver corymbosum capsulisque glabris, foliis amplexicaulis incisis*. Class *Polyandria*. Order *Monogynia*; in Persia, Arabia, and other warm regions of Asia. It is imported into Europe in flat cakes, covered with leaves to prevent their sticking together; it has a reddish brown colour, and a strong peculiar smell; its taste at first is nauseous and bitter, but soon becomes acrid, and produces a slight warmth in the mouth. The use of this celebrated medicine, though not known to Hippocrates, can be clearly traced back to Diagoras, who was nearly his cotemporary, and its importance has ever since been gradually advanced by succeeding physicians of different nations. Its extensive practical utility, however, has not been long well understood; and in this country perhaps may be dated from the time of Sydenham. Opium is the chief narcotic now employed; it acts directly upon the nervous power, diminishing the sensibility, irritability, and mobility of the system; and, according to Cullen, in a certain manner suspending the motion of the nervous fluid to and from the brain, and thereby inducing sleep, one of its principal effects. From this sedative power of opium, by which it allays pain, inordinate action, and restlessness, it naturally follows, that it may be employed with advantage in a great variety of diseases. Indeed, there is scarcely any disorder in which, under some circumstances, its use is not found proper; and though in many cases it fails of producing sleep, yet, if taken in a full dose, it occasions a pleasant tranquillity of

mind, and a drowsiness, which approaches to sleep, and which always refreshes the patient. Besides the sedative power of opium, it is known to act more or less as a stimulant, when given in a larger dose, exciting the motion of the blood. By a certain conjoined effort of this sedative and stimulant effect, opium has been thought to produce intoxication, a quality for which it is much used in eastern countries. It is frequently employed in fevers where there is no inflammatory diathesis; in hæmorrhages, dysentery, diarrhœas, cholera, and pyrosis; colic, tetanus, and all convulsive disorders. Respecting the external application of opium, authors seem not sufficiently agreed. Some allege, that when applied to the skin it allays pain and spasm, procures sleep, and produces all the salutary or dangerous effects which result from its internal use; while others say, that thus applied it has little or no effect whatever. It has also been asserted, that when mixed with caustic it diminishes the pain which would otherwise ensue; and if this be true, it is probably by decreasing the sensibility of the part. Injected by the rectum, it has all the effect of opium taken into the stomach; but to answer this purpose, double the quantity is to be employed. Applied to the naked nerves of animals, it produces immediate torpor and loss of power in all the muscles with which the nerves communicate. Opium, taken into the stomach in immoderate doses, proves a narcotic poison, producing vertigo, tremors, convulsions, delirium, stupor, stertor, and finally, fatal apoplexy. In the year 1779, opium was introduced into practice as a specific against the lues venerea. It was employed in several of the military hospitals, where it acquired the reputation of a most efficacious remedy; and Dr. Michaelis, physician of the Hessian forces, published

an account of a great number of successful experiments made with it, in the first volume of the Medical Communications in the year 1784. Opium was afterwards given as an antivenereal remedy in some foreign hospitals. Many trials were also made of its virtues in several of the London hospitals, and in the Royal Infirmary at Edinburgh. Very favourable reports of its efficacy in removing venereal complaints were published by different practitioners; but, at the same time, so many deductions were to be made, and so many exceptions were to be admitted, that it required little sagacity to discover, that most of the advocates for this medicine reposed but a slender and fluctuating confidence in its antivenereal powers. Mr. Pearson made several experiments on the virtues of opium in lues venerea at the Lock Hospital in the year 1784 and 1785; and published a narrative of its effects, in the second volume of the Medical Communications.

The result of my experiments, says he, was very unfavourable to the credit of this new remedy; and I believe that no surgeon in this country relies on opium as a specific against the venereal virus. I have been long accustomed to administer opium with great freedom during the venereal course; and the experience of nearly twenty years has taught me, that when it is combined with mercury, the proper efficacy of the latter is not in any measure increased; that it would not be safe to rely upon a smaller quantity of the mineral specific, not to contract the mercurial course within a shorter limit than where no opium has been employed. This representation will not, I presume, admit of controversy; yet we frequently hear people expressing themselves upon this head, as if opium manifested some peculiar qualities in venereal complaints, of a distinct nature from its well known narcotic

properties, and thus afforded an important aid to mercury in the removal of lues venerea. Perhaps it may not be useless to disentangle this subject from the perplexity in which such indefinite language necessarily involves it. Opium, when given in conjunction with mercury, by diminishing the sensibility of the stomach and bowels, prevents many of those inconveniences which this mineral is apt to excite in the primæ viæ; and thus its admission into the general system is facilitated. Mercury will likewise often produce a morbid irritability, accompanied with restlessness and insomnia, and it sometimes renders venereal sores painful and disposed to spread. These accidental evils, not necessarily connected with the venereal disease, may be commonly alleviated, and often entirely removed, by a judicious administration of opium; and the patient will consequently be enabled to persist in using the mineral specific. It, however, must be perfectly obvious, that opium, in conferring this sort of relief, communicates no additional virtues to mercury; and that, in reality, it assists the constitution of the patient, not the operation of the medicine with which it is combined. The salutary effects of mercury as an antidote, may be diminished or lost by the supervention of vomiting, dysentery, &c. Opium will often correct these morbid appearances, and so will spices, wine, an appropriate diet, &c. yet it would be a strange use of words to urge, wherever these articles of food were beneficial to a venereal patient, that they concurred in augmenting the medicinal virtues of mercury. It may be supposed that the majority of medical men would understand by the terms, "to assist a medicine in curing a contagious disease," that the drug conjoined with the specific actually increased its medicinal efficacy; whereas, in the

instances before us, it is the human body only which has been aided to resist the operation of certain noxious powers, which would render a preference in the antidote prejudicial or impossible. The soothing qualities of this admirable medicine can scarcely be estimated too highly. Yet we must beware of ascribing effects to them which have no existence; since a confidence in the antivenereal virtues of opium would be a source of greater mischief, than its most valuable properties would be able to compensate. The officinal preparations of this drug are, *opium purificatum*, *pilule ex opio*, *pulvis opiatus*, *tinctura opii*, and *tinctura opii camphorata*: it is also an ingredient in the *pulvis sudorificus*, *balsamum anodynum*, *electuarium japonicum*, *pulvis e creta compositus*, &c.

OPOBALSAMUM. See *Balsamum Gileadense*.

OPODELDOC, A term of no meaning, invented by Paracelsus. Formerly it signified a plaster for all external injuries, but now is confined to a camphorated soap liniment.

OPÖPANAX, (*Opopanax*, *âcis*, *οπωπαναξ*, from *οπος*, juice, and *παναξ*, the panacea). The gummi-resinous juice of the *Pastinaca opopanax* of Linnæus, (*Pastinaca foliis pinnatis, foliolis basi antica excisis*. Class *Pentandria*. Order *Digynia*), obtained by means of incisions made at the bottom of the stalk of the plant, from which it gradually exudes, and by undergoing spontaneous concretion, assumes the appearance under which we have it imported from Turkey and the East Indies, viz. sometimes in little drops or tears, more commonly in irregular lumps, of a reddish yellow colour on the outside, with specks of white; internally of a paler colour, and frequently variegated with large white pieces. Opopanax has a strong disagreeable smell, and a bitter, acrid, somewhat nause-

ous taste. It is only employed in the present practice as an antispasmodic, in combination with other medicines, although it was formerly in high estimation as an attenuant, deobstruent, and aperient. Its antispasmodic virtues are less powerful than galbanum, and more so than ammoniacum. It has no place in the Edinburgh Pharmacopœia, but is directed by the London College in the *pilule e gummi*.

OPPONENS POLLICIS. See *Flexor ossis metacarpi pollicis*.

OPTIC NERVES, (*Nervi optici*, from *ὀσφουαι*, to see; because they are the organs of sight). They are the second pair of nerves of the brain, arise from the thalami nervorum opti-corum, perforate the bulb of the eye, and in it form the retina.

OPUNTIA, (*Opuntia*, *e*, f. *ab opunte*, from the city *Opus*, near which it flourished). The prickly leaves of this plant, *Cactus opuntia* of Linnæus, abound with a mucilaginous matter, which is esteemed in its native countries as an emolient, in the form of poultice.

ORACHE, STINKING. See *Atriplex fetida*.

ORANGE, *Aurantium*. China or sweet orange. *Aurantium sinensis*. *Aurantia dulcis*. This delicious fruit possesses all the virtues ascribed to the summer fruits, see *Fruits, summer*; and is of infinite utility in the cure of scurvy.

ORANGE, SEVILLE. See *Aurantium*.

ORANGE, SHADDOCK. See *Shaddock*.

ORBICULARE OS, (*Orbicularis*, shaped like a ring, from *orbiculus*, a little ring). A very small round bone, not larger than a pin-head, that belongs to the internal ear.

ORBICULARIS ORIS, (*Musculus orbicularis oris*, from *orbiculus*, a little ring; so called from its shape). *Sphincter labiorum* of Douglas. *Semi*

orbicularis of Winslow. *Constrictor oris* of Cowper. A muscle of the mouth, formed in a great measure by those of the lips; the fibres of the superior descending, those of the inferior ascending and decussating each other about the corner of the mouth, they run along the lip to join those of the opposite side, so that the fleshy fibres appear to surround the mouth like a sphincter. Its use is to shut the mouth, by contracting and drawing both lips together, and to counteract all the muscles that assist in forming it.

ORBICULARIS PALPÆBRARUM, (*Orbicularis, scil. musculus*). A muscle common to both the eyelids. It arises by a number of fleshy fibres from the outer edge of the orbital process of the superior maxillary bone, and from a tendon near the inner angle of the eye; these fibres run a little downwards and outwards, over the upper part of the cheek, below the orbit, covering the under eyelid, and surround the external angle, being closely connected only to the skin and fat; they then run over the superciliary ridge of the os frontis, towards the inner canthus, where they mix with the fibre of the occipito-frontalis and corrugator supercilii; then covering the upper eyelid, they descend to the inner angle opposite to their inferior origin, and firmly adhere to the internal angular process of the os frontis, and to the short round tendon which serves to fix the palpebræ and muscular fibres arising from it. It is inserted into the nasal process of the superior maxillary bone by a short round tendon, covering the anterior and upper part of the lachrymal sac, which tendon can be easily felt at the inner canthus of the eye. The use of this muscle is to shut the eye, by drawing both lids together, the fibres contracting from the outer angle towards the inner, press the eyeball, squeeze the lachrymal gland, and

convey the tears towards the puncta lachrymalia.

ORBITS, (*Orbita, æ, f.*). The two conoid cavities under the forehead, in which the eyes are situated, are so termed. The angles of the orbits are called *canthi*. Each orbit is composed of seven bones, viz. the frontal, maxillary, jugal, lachrymal, ethmoid, palatine, and sphæmoid. The use of this bony socket is to maintain and defend the organ of sight, and its adjacent parts.

ORCHIS, (*Orchis, is, m. ὄρχις*, from ὀρεσθῆναι, to desire). A testicle. Also a plant whose roots resemble the testicles.

ORCHIS BIFOLIA. The systematic name of the butterfly orchis. See *Satyrium*.

ORCHIS MASCULA. The systematic name of the male orchis. See *Satyrium*.

ORCHIS MORIO. The systematic name of the orchis from whose root the ialep is made. See *Salep*.

ORCHITIS, (*Orchitis, idis, f. ὄρχιτις*, from ὄρχις, a testicle). *Inflammatio testis*. *Hernia humoralis*. An inflammation of the testicle.

ORCHOTOMY, (*Orchotomia, æ, f. ὀρχολομία*, from ὄρχις, a testicle, and τέμνω, to cut). Castration. The operation of extracting a testicle.

OREOSELINUM. (*Oreoselinum, i, n. ὀρεοσελίον*, from ὄρος, a mountain, and σελίον, parsley, so named because it grows wild upon mountains). Black mountain parsley. The root and seed of this plant, *Athaminta oreoselinum*; *foliolis divaricatis* of Linnæus, as well as the whole herb, were formerly used medicinally. Though formerly in so high estimation as to obtain the epithet of *polychresta*, this plant is seldom used in the practice of the present day. An extract and tincture prepared from the root were said to be attenuant, aperient, deobstruent, and lithontriptic. The oil obtained by distillation from the seed was esteemed to allay the toothach;

and the whole was recommended as an antiscorbutic and corroborant.

ORIGANUM, (*Origanum*, *i*, n. *οριγανον*, from *ορος*, a mountain, and *γανω*, to rejoice; so called because it grows upon the side of mountains). Wild marjoram. *Origanum vulgare* of Linnæus. *Origanum spicis subrotundis paniculatis conglomeratis, bracteis calyce longioribus ovatis*. Class *Didynamia*. Order *Gymnospermia*. This plant grows wild in many parts of Britain. It has an agreeable aromatic smell, approaching to that of marjoram, and a pungent taste, much resembling thyme, to which it is likewise thought to be more readily allied in its medicinal qualities, and therefore deemed to be emmenagogue, tonic, stomachic, &c. The dried leaves used instead of tea, are said to be exceedingly grateful. They are also employed in medicated baths and fomentations.

ORIGANUM CRETICUM. See *Dictamnus creticus*.

ORIGANUM DICTAMNUS. The systematic name of the dittany of Crete. See *Dictamnus creticus*.

ORIGANUM MAJORANA. The systematic name of sweet marjoram. See *Marjorana*.

ORIGANUM SYRIACUM. The systematic name of the Syrian herb mastich. See *Marum*.

ORIGANUM VULGARE. The systematic name of the wild marjoram. See *Origanum*.

ORIS CONSTRICTOR. See *Orbicularis oris*.

ORLEANA TERRA, (*Orleana*, so named from the place where it grows). The substance so called is a ceraceous mass obtained from the seeds of the *Bixa orleana* of Linnæus. In Jamaica and warm climates it is considered as a useful remedy in dysentery, possessing adstringent and stomachic qualities.

ORNITHOGALUM MARITIMUM, (*Ornithogalum*, *i*, n. *ορνιθογαλον*, from *ορνις*, a bird, and *γαλα*, milk, so called

from the colour of its flowers which are like the milk found in eggs). A kind of wild onion. See *Scilla*.

ORNITHOGLOSSUM, (*Ornithoglossum*, *i*, n. *ορνιθογλωσσαι*, from *ορνις*, a bird, and *γλωσσα*, a tongue, so called from its shape). Birds tongue. The seeds of the ash tree, as sometimes so called.

ORNITHOLOGY, (*Ornithologia*, *a*, f. *ορνιθολογια*, from *ορνις*, a bird, and *λογος*, a discourse). That part of natural history which treats of birds.

OROBUS, (*Orobus*, *i*, m. *οροβος*, from *ερεπρω*, to eat). See *Ervum*.

OROBUS TUBEROSUS. The heath pea. The root of this plant is said to be nutritious. The Scotch Highlanders hold them in great esteem, and chew them like tobacco.

ORPINE. See *Faba crassa*.

ORPIMENT. Native orpiment is found in yellow, brilliant, and, as it were, talky masses, often mixed with realgar, and sometimes of a greenish colour. See *Arsenic*.

ORTHOPNOEA, (*Orthopnoea*, *a*, f. *ορθοπνοια*, from *ορθρος*, erect, and *πνοη*, breathing). A very quick and laborious breathing, during which the person is obliged to be in an erect posture.

ORRIS, COMMON. See *Iris nostras*.

ORRIS, FLORENTINE. See *Iris florentina*.

ORYZA, (*Oryza*, *a*, f. *οριζα*, from *ορεζ*, Arab.). Rice. The seeds of the *Oryza sativa* of Linnæus. Rice is the principal food of the inhabitants in all parts of the East, where it is boiled and eaten, either alone or with their meat. Large quantities of it are annually sent into Europe, and it meets with a general esteem for family purposes. The people of Java have a method of making puddings of rice, which seems to be unknown here, but is not difficult to put in practice if it should merit attention. They take a conical earthen pot, which is

open at the large end, and perforated all over: this they fill about half full with rice, and putting it into a larger earthen pot of the same shape, filled with boiling water, the rice in the first pot soon swells, and stops the perforations so as to keep out the water; by this method the rice is brought to a firm consistence, and forms a pudding, which is generally eaten with butter, oil, sugar, vinegar, and spices. The Indians eat stewed rice with good success against the bloody flux; and in most inflammatory disorders they cure themselves with only a decoction of it. The spirituous liquor called arrack is made from this grain. Rice grows naturally in moist places; and will not come to perfection, when cultivated, unless the ground be sometimes overflowed, or plentifully watered. The grain is of a grey colour when first reaped; but the growers have a method of whitening it before it is sent to market. The manner of performing this, and beating it out in Egypt, is thus described by Hasselquist: They have hollow iron cylindrical pestles, about an inch diameter, lifted by a wheel worked with oxen. A person sits between the pestles, and, as they rise, pushes forward the rice, whilst another winnows and supplies fresh parcels. Thus they continue working until it is entirely free from chaff. Having in this manner cleaned it, they add one thirtieth part of salt, and rub them both together, by which the grain acquires a whiteness; then it is passed through a sieve, to separate the salt again from it. In the island of Ceylon they have a much more expeditious method of getting out the rice; for, in the field where it is reaped they dig a round hole, with a level bottom, about a foot deep, and eight yards diameter, and fill it with bundles of corn. Having laid it properly, the women drive about half a dozen oxen continually round the pit; and thus they will

tread out forty or fifty bushels a-day. This is a very ancient method of treading out corn, and is still practised in Africa upon other sorts of grain.

ORYZA SATIVA. The systematic name of the rice plant. See *Oryza*.

OSCHEOCELE, (*Oscheccele*, *es*, f. *oschecele*, from *osche*, the scrotum, and *cele*, a tumour). This term is sometimes given to a tumour of the scrotum, from an accumulation of water, (see *Hydrocele*); and sometimes to a scrotal hernia, (see *Hernia*).

OSCITATIO, (*Oscitatio*, *onis*, f. from *oscito*, to gape.) Yawning. Gaping.

OSCILLATION OF BOERHAAVE. See *Irritability*.

OSCULUM, (*Osculum*, *i*, n. dim. of *os*, a mouth). A little mouth.

OSMUNDA REGALIS. The systematic name of the osmund royal. Its root possesses astringent and styptic virtues.

OSMUND ROYAL. See *Osmunda regalis*.

Os, (*Os*, *ossis*, n.). See *Bone*.

OSSA SPONGIOSA. The spongy bones are two in number, and are called *ossa spongiosa inferiora*. The ethmoid bone has two turbinated portions, which are sometimes called the superior spongy bones. These bones, which from their shape are sometimes called *ossa turbinata*, have, by some anatomists, been described as belonging to the ethmoid bone; and by others, as portions of the *ossa palati*. In young subjects, however, they are evidently distinct bones. They consist of a spongy lamella in each nostril. The convex surface of this lamella is turned towards the septum narium, and its concave part towards the maxillary bone, covering the opening of the lachrymal duct into the nose. From their upper edge arise two processes: the posterior of these, which is the broadest, hangs as it were upon the edge of the *antrum Highmorianum*; the anterior

one joins the os unguis, and forms a part of the lachrymal duct. These bones are complete in the fetus. They are lined with the pituitary membranæ; and, besides their connection with the ethmoid bone, are joined to the ossa maxillaria superiora, ossa palati, and ossa unguis. Besides these ossa spongiosa inferiora, there are sometimes two others, situated lower down, one in each nostril. These are very properly considered as a production of the sides of the maxillary sinus turned downwards. In many subjects, likewise, we find other smaller bones, standing out into the nostrils, which, from their shape, might also deserve the name of *turbinata*, but they are uncertain in their size, situation, and number.

OSSICULA AUDITUS. The small bones of the internal ear are four in number, viz. the malleus, incus, stapes, and os orbiculare; and are situated in the cavity of the tympanum. See *Malleus, Incus, Stapes, and Orbiculare os.*

OSSIFICATION, (*Ossificatio, onis, f.* from *os*, a bone, and *facio*, to make). See *Bone.*

OSSIFRAGA, (*Ossifraga, æ, f.* from *os*, a bone, and *frango*, to break). A petrified root, called the bone binder, from its supposed virtues in uniting fractured bones.

OSSIFRAGUS. See *Osteocolla.*

OSTEITES, (*ὀστεΐτης, from ὀστέον, a bone*). The bone binder. See *Osteocolla.*

OSTEOCOLLA, (*Osteocolla, æ, f.* *ὀστοκόλλα, from ὀστέον, a bone, and κόλλω, to glue*). *Ossifragus. Osteites. Ammosteus. Osteolithos. Stelochites. Bone binder.* A particular carbonate of lime, found in some parts of Germany, particularly in the Marché of Bandenburg, and in other countries. It is met with in loose sandy grounds, spreading from near the surface to a considerable depth, into a number of ramifications, like

the roots of a tree; it is of a whitish colour, soft whilst under the earth, friable when dry, rough on the surface, for the most part either hollow within, or filled with a solid wood, or with a powdery white matter. It was formerly celebrated for promoting the coalition of fractured bones, and the formation of callus; which virtues are not attributed to it in the present day.

OSTEOCOPUS, (*Osteocopus, i, m.* *ὀστεοκόπτης, from ὀστέον, a bone, and κόπτης, uneasiness*). A very violent fixed pain in any part of the bone.

OSTEOGENY, (*Osteogenia, æ, f.* *ὀστεογενεΐα, from ὀστέον, a bone, and γενεΐα, generation*). The growth of bones. See *Bone.*

OSTEOGRAPHY, (*Osteographia, æ, f.* *ὀστεογραφία, from ὀστέον, a bone, and γράφω, to describe*). The description of the bones. See *Bone.*

OSTEOLITHOS, (*Osteolithos, i, m.* *ὀστεολίθος, from ὀστέον, a bone, and λίθος, a stone*). See *Osteocolla.*

OSTEOLOGY, (*Osteologia, æ, f.* *ὀστεολογία, from ὀστέον, a bone, and λόγος, a discourse*). The doctrine of the bones. See *Bone.*

OSTREUM, (*Ostreum, i, n.* *ὀστρέον, from ὀστράκον, a shell*). The oyster. The shell of this fish is occasionally used medicinally; its virtues are similar to those of the carbonate of lime. See *Creta.*

OSTRUTHIUM, (*Ostruthium, i, n.* Blanchard calls it a corruption from *Laserpitium*). See *Imperatoria.*

OTALGIA, (*Otalgia, æ, f.* *ὀταλγία, from ὄς, the ear, and ἀλγος, pain*). The ear-ache.

OTITIS, (*Otitis, idis, f.* *ὀτίτις, from ὄς, the ear*). Inflammation of the internal ear. It is known by pyrexia, and an excruciating and throbbing pain in the internal ear, that is sometimes attended with delirium.

OVARIUM, (*Ovarium, i, n. dim.* of *ovum*, an egg). The ovaria are two flat oval bodies, about one inch in

length, and rather more than half in breadth and thickness, suspended in the broad ligaments, at about the distance of one inch from the uterus behind, and a little below the Fallopian tubes. To the ovaria, according to the idea of their structure entertained by different anatomists, various uses have been assigned, or the purpose they answer has been differently explained. Some have supposed that their texture was glandular, and that they secreted a fluid equivalent to, and similar to the male semen; but others, who have examined them with more care, assert that they are ovaria in the literal acceptation of the term, and include a number of vesicles, or ova, to the amount of twenty-two of different sizes, joined to the internal surface of the ovaria by cellular threads or pedicles; and that they contain a fluid which has the appearance of thin lymph. These vesicles are, in fact, to be seen in the healthy ovaria of every young woman. They differ very much in their number in different ovaria, but are very seldom so numerous as has just been stated. All have agreed that the ovaria prepare whatever the female supplies towards the formation of the foetus; and this is proved by the operation of spaying, which consists in the extirpation of the ovaria, after which the animal not only loses the power of conceiving, but desire is for ever extinguished. The outer coat of the ovaria, together with that of the uterus, is given by the peritonæum; and whenever an ovum is passed into the Fallopian tube, a fissure is observed at the part through which it is supposed to have been transferred. These fissures healing, leave small longitudinal cicatrices on the surface, which are said to enable us to determine, whenever the ovary is examined, the number of times a woman has conceived. The corpora lutea are oblong glandular

bodies of a yellowish colour, found in the ovaria of all animals when pregnant, and, according to some, when they are salacious. They are said to be calyces, from which the impregnated ovum has dropped; and their number is always in proportion to the number of conceptions found in the uterus. They are largest and most conspicuous in the early state of pregnancy, and remain for some time after delivery, when they gradually fade and wither till they disappear. The corpora lutea are extremely vascular, except at their centre, which is whitish; and in the middle of the white part is a small cavity, from which the impregnated ovum is thought to have immediately proceeded. The ovaria are the seat of a particular kind of dropsy, which most commonly happens to women at the time of the final cessation of the menses, though not unfrequently at a more early period of life. It is of the encysted kind, the fluid being sometimes limpid and thin, and at others discoloured and gelatinous. In some cases it has been found to be contained in one cyst, often in several, and in others the whole tumefaction has been composed of hydatids not larger than grapes. The ovaria are also subject, especially a short time after delivery, to inflammation, terminating in suppuration, and to scirrhus and cancerous diseases, with considerable enlargement. In the former state, they generally adhere to some adjoining part, as the uterus, rectum, the bladder, or the external integuments, and the matter is discharged from the vagina by stool, by urine, or by an external abscess of the integuments of the abdomen.

OVIDUCT, (*Oviductus*, from *ovum*, an egg, and *ductus*, a canal). The Fallopian tube, or canal, which runs from the ovary to the bottom of the womb.

OVIPAROUS, (from *ovum*, an egg,

and *pario*, to bring forth). Animals which exclude their young in the egg, which are afterwards hatched.

OVUM, (*Ovum*, *i*, *n*.) See *Egg*.

OXALATS, (*Oxalas, tis*, *m*.) Salts formed by the combination of the oxalic acid with different bases; thus, *oxalat of ammoniac*, &c.

OXALIC ACID. *Acidum oxalicum*. Salt of sorrel. Acid of sugar. This acid is obtained by evaporating the fresh juice of sorrel almost to the consistence of honey, when it is to be poured into a glass vessel with a narrow neck, and covered with a stratum of the oil of olives. After some weeks the sides of the bottle are invested with a crust, which is the salt of sorrel, or *oxalas potassa acidulus*. The salt of sorrel is then to be dissolved in boiling water, and a small quantity of the nitrate of barytes added to it, when the barytes will unite with the oxalic acid, and the potash with the nitric acid. The oxalat of barytes, which is precipitated, is then to be decomposed by digestion with sulphuric acid, by which means the oxalic acid is let loose. Formerly this acid was considered as different from that of sugar, but it is now proved by experiments to be the same in all its properties.

OXALIS, (*Oxalis, idis*, *f*. *οξυς*, from *οξυς*, sharp, so called from the sharpness of its juice). Wood sorrel.

OXALIS ACETOCELLA, (*Acetofella, e*, *f*. dim. of *acetosa*). The systematic name of the wood sorrel. See *Lugula*.

OX-EYE-DAISY. See *Bellis major*.

OX'S-TONGUE. See *Picris echioides*.

OXYACANTHA GALĒNI, (*Oxyacantha, a*, *f*. *οξυακανθα*, from *οξυς*, sharp, and *ακανθα*, a thorn, so called from the acidity of its fruit). The Bar-berry. See *Berberis*.

OXYCOCOS, (*Oxycoccus, i*, *f*.

οξυκοκκος, from *οξυς*, acid, and *κοκκος*, a berry, so named from its acidity). The cranberry. The berries of the *Vaccinium oxycoccus* of Linnæus, are so termed in some pharmacopœias. They are about the size of our haws, and are pleasantly acid, with which intention they are used medicinally in Sweden. In this country they are mostly preserved and made into tarts.

OXYD, (*Oxydum, i*, *n*.) *Calx*. A substance formed by the union of oxygen with a basis: thus, *oxyd of iron*, *oxyd of copper*, &c.

OXYDATION. Oxygen gaz, that is, vital air, is decomposed by metals, and some other bodies, at a higher or lower temperature; they combine with its basis or oxygen, and form various compounds, the caloric being at the same time disengaged, passes off in the state of sensible heat. The operation by which this is effected is termed oxydation, and the compound bodies thus obtained are called *oxydes*.

OXYDUM ARSENICI ALBUM. *Arsenicum calcinatum*. *Arsenicum album*. *Calx arsenici*. This is a most powerful caustic and poison. Internally it is said to be given with advantage in elephantiasis, and obstinate diseases of the skin, cancer, agues, and dropsies. It cannot be too carefully administered. The antidotes against it, when taken as a poison, are, solutions of ammoniacal sulphuret, potash, or soda, the carbonate of potash or soda, soap, milk, fixed oils, and mucilages. See *Arsenic*.

OXYDUM CUPRI VIRIDE ACETATUM. See *Ærugo Æris*.

OXYDUM FERRI LUTEUM. See *Rubigo ferri*.

OXYDUM FERRI RUBRUM. *Colcothar vitrioli*. *Calx ferri rubra*. *Crocus martis*. This oxyd of iron is principally used as an external remedy to lax ulcers and condylomata.

OXYDUM HYDRARGYRI NIGRUM. *Æthops per se*. *Pulvis mer-*

curialis cinereus. Mercurius cinereus. Turpethum nigrum. Mercurius præcipitatus niger. There are four preparations of this oxyd in high estimation: 1. The *oxydum hydrargyri gummosum*, made by rubbing mercury with mucilage of gum arabic. Plenck, of Vienna, has written a treatise on the superior efficacy of this medicine. It is very troublesome to make; and does not appear to possess more virtues than some other mercurial preparations. 2. The *oxydum hydrargyri saccharatum*, made by triturating equal parts of sugar and mercury together. 3. The *oxydum hydrargyri mellitum*, composed of equal parts of honey and hydrargyrus purificatus. 4. The *oxydum hydrargyri unguinosum*, called *unguentum hydrargyri fortius* in the shops. All these preparations possess antihelmintic, antisypilitic, alterative, sialagogue, and deobstruent virtues, and are exhibited in the cure of worms, syphilis, amenorrhœa, diseases of the skin, chronic diseases, obstructions of the viscera, &c.

OXYDUM HYDRARGYRI RUBRUM. A red oxyd of mercury may be obtained either by simple exposure to heat and air, or by the nitric acid. See *Hydrargyrus calcinatus*, and *Hydrargyrus nitratus ruber*.

OXYDUM PLUMBI ALBUM. See *Cerussa*.

OXYDUM PLUMBI RUBRUM. *Minium. Calx plumbi rubra.* Red lead. The red oxyd of lead possesses adstringent and sedative virtues if cautiously exhibited. Its use in the present day is in form of powder or ointment, in the cure of ulcers, prurities, and some diseases of the skin.

OXYDUM PLUMBI SEMIVITRÆUM. *Lithargyrus. Lithargyrum.* This preparation of lead is employed to make the *Aqua lithargyri acetata*, whose use is very extensive in the practice of surgery. See *Aqua lithargyri acetati*.

OXYDUM STIBII ALBUM. See *Antimonium calcinatum*.

OXYDUM STIBII SEMIVITRÆUM. *Vitrium antimonii.* This preparation of antimony is employed to make antimonial wine.

OXYDUM STIBII SULPHURATUM. *Hepar antimonii. Crocus metallorum. Crocus antimonii.* This preparation of antimony was formerly exhibited in the cure of fevers and atonic diseases of the lungs. Its principal use now is in preparing other medicines.

OXYDUM ZINCI ALBUM. See *Tutia*.

OXYDUM ZINCI SUBLIMATUM. See *Zincum calcinatum*.

OXYDUM ZINCI VITRIOLATUM. See *Zincum vitriolatum*.

OXYGEN, (*Oxygenium*, *i*, *n*. from *ὄξος*, acid, and *γενεσθαι*, to generate, on account of the property it possesses of changing a great number of substances with which it unites into the state of acid). Vital air. Basis of vital air. Acidifying principle. Empyrean principle. Sorbile principle. Dephlogisticated air. Vital air was first discovered by the celebrated Priestley. Mixed with azot it constitutes the atmospheric air. See *Atmospheric air*. It is the most general agent in the operations of nature; exists in combination with various substances; and it is by their decomposition that it may be extracted and procured. All acids have vital air for their basis. Messrs. Priestley, Ingenhousz, and Sennebier discovered nearly at the same time, that vegetables exposed to the light of the sun emit vital air. Oxygenous gaz exhibits certain properties, according to its degree of purity, which depends in general upon the substances which afford it: viz. 1. It is more ponderous than the air of the atmosphere; the cubic foot of atmospheric air weighing 720 grains, while that of pure air weighs 765. 2. Oxygenous gaz is the only proper fluid for combustion, which caused Scheele to call it the air of fire; and it is ascertained, that combustion never

takes place without it; that in every combustion there is an absorption of vital air; that there is an augmentation of weight in the products of combustion, equal to the weight of the vital air that is absorbed; and that in all combustions there is a disengagement of light and heat. 3. It is the only gaz proper for respiration, hence it is termed vital air. It has long been known, that animals cannot live without the assistance of air, but the phenomena of respiration have been very imperfectly known until lately. Modern philosophers have established a number of interesting experiments concerning it; and it is now ascertained, that, during the passage of the blood through the lungs, there is an absorption of oxygen into that which is contained in the pulmonary veins. 4. The basis of vital air, united to the basis of inflammable gas, constitutes water. 5. It discolours vegetable and animal substances. This air, mixed in a certain proportion with atmospheric air, has been exhibited with success in putrid fevers, hysteria, ulcers of the legs, &c. and all debilitated cases.

OXYGENATED MURIATIC ACID. *Acidum muriaticum oxygenatum.* Take one part of the native oxyd of manganese, one of red precipitate of mercury or red lead, put it into a glass retort, and add four parts of concentrated muriatic acid. This, on distillation, affords a quantity of yellow aeriform fluid, which is oxygenated muriatic acid gaz, and by agitating it with water it combines and forms oxygenated muriatic acid. Oxygenated muriatic acid gaz has a yellow transparent colour, and possesses a peculiar and suffocating smell. It extinguishes bodies inflamed, and is the most noxious to the lungs of all the gazes with which we are acquainted.

OXYLAPATHUM, (*Oxylapathum*, *i.* *οξύλαπαθος*, from *οξύ*, acid, and

λαπαθον, the dock, so named from its acidity). *Lapathum acutum.* *Rumex acutus* of Linnæus. Sharp pointed dock. *Rumex floribus hermaphroditis; valvula dentatis graniferis, foliis cordato oblongis acuminatis.* The decoction of the root of this plant is used in Germany to cure the itch; and it appears to have been used in the time of Dioscorides in the cure of leprous and impetigenous affections, both alone and boiled with vinegar.

OXYMEL ÆRUGINIS. This preparation is ordered in the place of *Mel Ægyptiacum*; it is applied externally as a detergent to keep down fungus flesh. When sufficiently diluted, it serves as an useful application to scrophulous sores, and is often of service to venereal ulceration of the mouth and fauces. When employed as a collutory, great care is required lest any be swallowed.

OXYMEL COLCHICI. Oxymel of meadow saffron is an acrid medicine, but is nevertheless employed for its diuretic virtues in dropsies.

OXYMEL SCILLÆ. A very useful expectorant.

OXYOPŌIA, (*Oxyopia*, *α*, *φ.* *οξύωπια*, from *οξύς*, acute, and *οψις*, vision). The faculty of seeing more acutely than usual. Thus there have been instances known of persons who could see the stars in the daytime. The proximate cause is a preternatural sensibility of the retina. It has been known to precede the gutta serena; and it has been asserted, that prisoners who have been long detained in darkness, have learned to read and write in darkened places.

OXYPHOENICON. See *Tamarindus*.

OXYS ALBA. See *Ligula*.

OYSTER. See *Ostreum*.

OYSTERSHEL. See *Ostreum*.

OZÆNA, (*Ozæna*, *α*, *φ.* *οζæνα*, from *οζή*, a stench). A malignant ulcer in the nostrils.

P.

P Æ

P. A contraction of *pugillus*, a pugil, or eighth part of a handful.

P. Æ. A contraction of *partes æquales*.

PABULUM, (*Pabulum*, *i*, *n.* from *pasco*, to feed). Food, aliment. The animal heat and animal spirits are called *pabulum vitæ*, the food of life.

PACCHIONIAN GLANDS. See *Glandulæ Pacchionæ*.

PADUS. The wild cluster cherry, or bird's cherry. *Prunus padus* of Linnæus. The bark and berries of this shrub are used medicinally. The former, when taken from the tree, has a fragrant smell, and a bitter, subastringent taste, somewhat similar to that of bitter almonds. Made into a decoction, it cures intermittents, and it has been recommended in the cure of the several forms of dysentery. The latter are said to cure the dysentery.

PÆONIA, (*Pæonia*, *æ*, *παῖον*, from *Pæon*, who first applied it to medicinal purposes). Common peony. Male and female peony. This plant, *Pæonia officinalis*; *foliis oblongis* of Linnæus, has long been considered as a powerful medicine; and, till the late revision by the London College, it had a place in the catalogue of the *Materia Medica*; in which the two common varieties of this plant are indiscriminately directed for use: and, on the authority of

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G. Bauhin, improperly distinguished into male and female peony.

The roots and seeds of peony have, when fresh, a faint, unpleasant smell, somewhat of the narcotic kind, and a mucilaginous, subacid taste, with a slight degree of bitterness and adstringency. In drying, they lose their smell, and part of their taste. Extracts made from them by water are almost insipid, as well as inodorous; but extracts made by rectified spirit are manifestly bitterish, and considerably adstringent. The flowers have rather more smell than any of the other parts of the plant, and a rough, sweetish taste, which they impart, together with their colour, both to water and spirit.

The roots, flowers, and seeds of peony, have been esteemed in the character of an anodyne and corroborant, but more especially the roots; which since the days of Galen have been very commonly employed as a remedy for the epilepsy. For this purpose, it was usual to cut the root into thin slices, which were to be attached to a string, and suspended about the neck as an amulet; if this failed of success, the patient was to have recourse to the internal use of this root, which Willis directs to be given in the form of powder, and in the quantity of a drachm, two or three times a day, by which, as we are informed, both infants and adults were cured of this disease. Other

authors recommended the expressed juice to be given in wine, and sweetened with sugar, as the most effectual way of administering this plant. Many writers, however, especially in modern times, from repeated trials of the peony in epileptic cases, have found it of no use whatever; though Professor Home, who gave the radix *peoniae* to two epileptics at the Edinburgh infirmary, declares that one received a temporary advantage from its use. Of the good effects of this plant in other disorders we find no instances recorded.

PEONIA OFFICINALIS. The systematic name of the common peony. See *Peonia*.

PAIGIL. See *Primula veris*.

PAIN, (*Dolor, oris, m.*). Any unpleasant sensation or irritation.

PALATE. *Palatum.* The roof of the mouth.

PALATI CIRCUMFLEXUS. See *Circumflexus*.

PALATI LEVATOR. See *Levator palati*.

PALATI OSSA, (*Palatum, i, n.* from *palo*, to hedge in, because it is flaked in as it were by the teeth). These bones are of a very irregular figure. They are placed between the *ossa maxillaria superiora* and the *os sphenoides*, at the back part of the roof of the mouth, and extend from thence to the bottom of the orbit. Each of these bones may be divided into four parts; viz. the inferior or square portion, the pterygoid process, the nasal lamella, and orbital process. The first of these, or the square part of the bone, helps to form the palate of the mouth. The upper part of its internal edge rises into a spine, which makes part of the septum narium. The pterygoid process, which is smaller above than below, is so named from its being united with the pterygoid processes of the sphenoid bone, with which it

helps to form the pterygoid fossæ. It is separated from the square part of the bone, and from the nasal lamella, by an oblique fossa, which, applied to such another in the *os maxillare*, forms a passage for a branch of the fifth pair of nerves. The *nasal* lamella is nothing more than a very thin bony plate, which arises from the upper side of the external edge of the square part of the bone. Its inner surface is concave, and furnished with a ridge which supports the back part of the *os spongiosum inferius*. Externally, it is convex, and firmly united with the maxillary bone. The *orbital* process is more irregular than any other part of the bone. It has a smooth surface where it helps to form the orbit; and, when viewed in its place, we see it contiguous to that part of the orbit which is formed by the *os maxillare*, and appearing as a small triangle at the inner extremity of the orbital process of this last mentioned bone. This fourth part of the *os palati* likewise helps to form the zygomatic fossa on each side, and there its surface is concave. Between this orbital process and the sphenoid bone, a hole is formed, through which an artery, vein, and nerve, are transmitted to the nostrils. The *ossa palati* are complete in the fœtus. They are joined to the *ossa maxillaria superiora*, *os sphenoides*, *os ethmoides*, *ossa spongiosa inferiora*, and vomer.

PALATI TENSOR. See *Circumflexus*.

PALATO-PHARYNGÆUS. *Musculus palato-pharyngeus. Thyro-staphilinus* of Douglas. *Thyro-pharyngo-staphilinus* of Winslow. A muscle situated at the side of the entry of the fauces. It arises by a broad beginning from the middle of the *velum pendulum palati* at the root of the uvula posteriorly, and from the ten-

dinous expansion of the circumflexus palati. The fibres are collected within the posterior arch behind the tonsils, and run backwards to the top and lateral part of the pharynx, where the fibres are scattered and mixed with those of the stylo-pharyngeus. It is inserted into the edge of the upper and back part of the thyroid cartilage. Its use is to draw the uvula and velum pendulum palati downwards and backwards, and at the same time to pull the thyroid cartilage and pharynx upwards, and shorten it; with the *constrictor superior pharyngis* and tongue, it assists in shutting the passage into the nostrils; and in swallowing, it thrusts the food from the fauces into the pharynx.

PALATO-STAPHYLINUS. See *Staphylinus*.

PALM OIL. *Oleum palma*. This oil is produced chiefly from the fruit of the *Cocos butyracea inernis, frondibus pennatis: foliolis simplicibus* of Linnæus, by bruising and dissolving the kernels of the fruit in water, without the aid of heat, by which the oil is separated, and rises to the surface, and on being washed two or three times is rendered fit for use. When brought into this country it is of the consistence of an ointment, and of an orange yellow colour, with little taste, and of a strong, though not disagreeable smell. Its use is confined to external applications in pains, tumours, and sprains; but it appears to possess very little if any advantage over other bland oils.

PALMA CHRISTI. See *Ricinus*.

PALMARIS BREVIS, (*Palmaris*, from *palma*, the hand). A small, thin, cutaneous flexor muscle of the hand, situated on the fore arm, between the wrist and the little-finger. Fallopius tells us, that it was discovered by Cananus. Winslow names it *palmaris cutaneus*. It arises from

a small part of the internal annular ligament, and inner edge of the aponeurosis palmaris, and is inserted by small bundles of fleshy fibres into the os pisiforme, and into the skin and fat that cover the abductor minimi digiti. This muscle seems to assist in contracting the palm of the hand.

PALMARIS CUTANEUS. See *Palmaris brevis*.

PALMARIS LONGUS. *Ulnaris gracilis* of Winslow. A flexor muscle of the arm situated on the fore arm, immediately under the integuments. It arises tendinous from the inner condyle of the os humeri, but soon becomes fleshy, and after continuing so about three inches, terminates in a long slender tendon, which near the wrist, separates into two portions, one of which is inserted into the internal annular ligament, and the other loses itself in a tendinous membrane, that is nearly of a triangular shape, and extends over the palm of the hand, from the carpal ligament to the roots of the fingers, and is called *aponeurosis palmaris*. Some of the fibres of this expansion adhere strongly to the metacarpal bones, and separate the muscles and tendons of each finger. Several anatomical writers have considered this aponeurosis as a production of the tendon of this muscle, but seemingly without reason, because we now and then find the latter wholly inserted into the carpal ligament, in which case it is perfectly distinct from the aponeurosis in question; and, in some subjects, the palmaris longus is wanting, but the aponeurosis is always to be found. Rhodius indeed says that the latter is now and then deficient, but there is good reason to think that he was mistaken. This muscle bends the hand, and may assist in its pronation; it likewise serves to stretch the aponeurosis palmaris.

PALPĒBRÆ, (*Palpebra*, *æ*, f.).

The eyelids, distinguished into upper and under: at each end they unite and form the canthus.

PALPĒBRÆ SUPERIORIS LEVĀTOR. See *Levator palpebræ superioris*.

PALPĒBRUM APERIENS RECTUS. See *Levator palpebræ superioris*.

PALPITATIO, (*Palpitatio*, *onis*, f.). Palpitation of the heart, which is either constant or frequently returning. A genus of disease in the class *neuroses*, and order *spasmi* of Cullen.

PALSY. See *Hemiplegia*, *Paraplegia*, *Paralysis*, &c.

PANACĒA, (*Panacea*, *æ*, f. *πανακεια*; from *παν*, all, and *ακεραια*, to make well). An epithet given by the ancients to those remedies which they conceived would cure every disease. Unfortunately for those of the present day, there are no such remedies.

PANADA, (dim. of *pane*, bread, Ital.). Bread boiled in water to a proper consistence for feeding children or infirm persons with.

PANARIS, (*Panaris*, corrupted from *paronychia*). See *Paronychia*.

PANAX, (*παναξ*, from *πας*, all, and *ακος*, a cure). Hercules's alchemical wound wort. The seeds and roots of this plant, *Laserpitium chironium* of Linnæus, are warm, and similar in flavour and qualities to those of the parsnip. The roots and stalks have a much stronger smell, which resembles that of opoponax, and Boerhaave relates, that on wounding the plant in the summer, he obtained a yellow juice, which being inspissated a little in the sun, agreed perfectly in both respects with that exotic gum resin.

PANAX QUINQUEFOLIUM. The systematic name of the plant which affords the ginseng root. See *Ginseng*.

PANCREAS, (*Pancreas*, *ātis*, n.

πανκρεας; from *πας*, all, and *κρεας*, flesh; so called from its fleshy consistence). A glandular viscus of the abdomen, of a long figure, compared to a dog's tongue, situated in the epigastric region under the stomach. It is composed of innumerable small glands, the excretory ducts of which unite and form one duct, called the pancreatic duct, which perforates the duodenum with the ductus communis choledochus, and conveys a fluid, in its nature similar to saliva, into the intestines. The pancreatic artery is a branch of the splenic. The veins evacuate themselves into the splenic vein. Its nerves are from the par vagum and great intercostal. The use of the pancreas is to secrete the pancreatic juice, which is to be mixed with the chyle in the duodenum. The quantity of the fluid secreted is uncertain; but it must be very considerable, if we compare it with the weight of the saliva, the pancreas being three times larger, and seated in a warmer place. It is expelled by the force of the circulating blood, and of the incumbent viscera in the full abdomen; as the liver, stomach, spleen, mesenteric and splenic arteries, and the aorta. Its great utility appears from its constancy, being found in almost all animals; nor is it refuted by the few experiments in which a part of it was cut out from a robust animal, without occasioning death; because the whole pancreas cannot be removed without the duodenum: for even a part of the lungs may be cut out without producing death, but they are not therefore useless. It seems principally to dilute the viscid cystic bile, to mitigate its acrimony, and to mix it with the food. Hence it is poured into a place remote from the cystic duct, as often as there is no gall-bladder. Like the rest of the intestinal humours, it dilutes and resolves

the mass of aliments, and performs every other office of the saliva.

PANCREATIC DUCT. See *Ductus pancreaticus*.

PANDEMIC, (*Pandemicus*: from παν, all, and δειν, the people). A synonym of epidemic. See *Epidemic*.

PANICUM, (*Panicum*, i, n. a *paniculus*, from its many particles; a herb whose spike consists of innumerable thick seeds, disposed in many panicles). Common panic.

PANICUM ITALICUM. The systematic name of the plant which affords the millet seed. See *Millet seed*.

PANICUM MILIACEUM. The systematic name of the plant which affords the Indian millet seed. See *Millet seed Indian*.

PANOPHOBIA, (*Panophobia*, α, f. πανοφοβία; from παν, all, and φοβ, fear). That kind of melancholy which is attended with groundless fears. The moderns consider it as symptomatic.

PANSIES. See *Viola tricolor*.

PAPĀVER ALBUM, (*Papaver*, ἔρις, n. from πάπα, pap; so called because nurses used to mix this plant in children's food to relieve the colic and make them sleep). The white poppy. *Papaver somniferum* of Linnæus. *Papaver calycibus capsulisque glabris, foliis amplexicaulibus incis.* Class *Polyandria*. Order *Monogynia*. It is from heads of this plant that the opium is obtained. See *Opium*. They are also directed for medicinal use in the form of fomentation, and in the *syrupus papaveris albi*, a useful anodyne, which often succeeds in procuring sleep where opium fails; it is, however, more especially adapted to children. The seeds of this species of poppy contain a bland oil, and in many places are eaten as food; as a medicine, they have been usually given in the form of emulsion in catarrhs, stranguries, &c.

PAPĀVER ERRATICUM. Red or corn poppy. *Papaver rhæas* of Linnæus. *Papaver capsulis glabris globosis caule piloso multifloro, foliis pennatisfidatis incis.* Class *Polyandria*. Order *Monogynia*. The heads of this species, like those of the *somniferum* contain a milky juice of a narcotic quality; from which an extract is prepared, that has been successfully employed as a sedative. The flowers have somewhat of the smell of opium and a mucilaginous taste, accompanied with a slight degree of bitterness. A syrup of these flowers is directed in the London pharmacopœia, which has been thought useful as an anodyne and pectoral, and is therefore prescribed in coughs and catarrhal affections.

PAPĀVER NIGRUM. The seed and heads of the *papaver somniferum* are called in some pharmacopœia *semina* and *capitula papaveris nigra*. See *Papaver album*.

PAPĀVER RHÆAS. The systematic name of the red corn poppy. See *Papaver erraticum*.

PAPĀVER SOMNIFERUM. The systematic name of the white poppy. See *Papaver album*.

PAPAW. The fruit of the *Carica papaya* of Linnæus, a native of both Indies, and Guinea coast of Africa. When the roundish fruit are nearly ripe, the inhabitants of India boil and eat them with their meat, as we do turnips. They have somewhat the flavour of a pompion. Previous to boiling, they soak them for some time in salt and water, to extract the corrosive juice, unless the meat they are to be boiled with should be very salt and old, and then this juice being in them will make it as tender as a chicken. But they mostly pick the long fruit, and thus they make no bad succedaneum for mango. The buds of the female flowers are gathered, and made into a sweet meat; and the inhabitants are suc

good husbands of the produce of this tree, that they boil the shells of the ripe fruit into a repast, and the infides are eaten with sugar in the manner of melons.

PAPILLA, (*Papilla*, *a*, f.). The nipple of the breast. See *Nipple*.

PAPILLÆ. This term is applied by anatomists to the fine terminations of nerves, &c. as the nervous papillæ of the tongue, skin, &c.

PAPILLARIS HERBA. See *Lampfana*.

PAPPUS, (*Pappus*, *i*, m.). The hair on the middle of the chin. See *Carillus*.

PAPULÆ, (*Papula*, *a*, f. dim of *pappi*, a dug or nipple). Very small and acuminate elevations of the cuticle, with an inflamed base, not containing a fluid, nor tending to suppuration. The duration of papulæ is uncertain, but they terminate for the most part in scurf.

PAR VAGUM, (*Par*, *pāris*, n. a pair.). The eighth pair of nerves. They arise from the corpora olivaria of the medulla oblongata, and proceed into the neck, thorax, and abdomen. In the neck the par vagum gives off two branches, the lingual and superior laryngeal; and, in the thorax, four branches, the recurrent laryngeal, the cardiac, the pulmonary, and the œsophageal plexuses. At length the trunks of the nervi vagi, adjacent to the mediastinum, run into the stomach, and there form the stomachic plexus, which branches to the abdominal plexuses.

PARACENTESIS, (*Paracentesis*, *is*, f. *παρακεντησις*; from *παρακεντεω*, to pierce through). The operation of tapping to evacuate the water in ascites, dropsy of the ovarium, uterus, &c.

PARACŪSIS, (*Paracusis*, *is*, f. *παράκουσις*; from *παρα*, wrong, and *ακουω*, to hear). Hearing depraved. Singing in the ears. A genus of dis-

ease in the class *locales*, and order *dysæsthesiæ* of Cullen: species, 1. *Paracusis imperfecta*, when existing sounds are not heard as usual. 2. *Paracusis imaginaria*, when imaginary sounds are heard.

PARADISI GRANA. See *Grana paradisi*.

PARALYSIS, (*Paralysis*, *is*, et *eos*, f. *παράλυσις*; from *παρالىω*, to loose). The palsy. A genus of disease in the class *neuroses*, and order *comata*, of Cullen, known by a loss of the power of voluntary motion, affecting certain parts: species 1. *Paralysis partialis*, partial, or palsy of some particular muscles. 2. *Paralysis hemiplegica*, palsy of one side. 3. *Paralysis paraplegica*, palsy of one half of the body. *Paralysis venenata*, from the sedative effects of poisons. Paralysis is also symptomatic of several diseases, as worms, scrophula, syphilis, &c.

PARALYSIS HERBA, (*Paralysis*, *eos*, et *is*, f. *παράλυσις*; from *παρολυνω*, to weaken; so called from its use in paralytic disorders). The cowslip and primrose are sometimes so termed. See *Primula veris*, and *Primula vulgaris*.

PARAPHYMOSIS, (*Paraphymosis*, *is*, f. *παράφωμισις*; from *παρα*, about, and *φωμιω*, to bend). The paraphymosis is a disorder wherein the prepuce, being retracted toward the root of the penis, cannot be returned again over the glans, but makes a sort of ligature behind the corona. This disease is easily known; the glans is uncovered, the skin tumefied on the corona, and above it forms a circular collar or stricture, which, from the skin being unequally extended, becomes indented, and makes several rings round the part. This disease may proceed from two causes; as first from the imprudence of young people, and sometimes also of grown persons, who having the end of their prepuce too straight,

Cannot uncover their glans without Pain, and when they have done it, neglect returning it so soon as they ought; and thus the contracted part of the prepuce forms a constriction behind the glans. Soon after, the glans and penis swell, and the prepuce being consequently very much distended, is affected in the same manner; an inflammation seizes upon both, and swellings quickly appear upon the stricture formed by the prepuce, so that the whole may be liable to a gangrene, if not speedily relieved. The second thing that may produce a paraphymosis, is a venereal virus. In adults, whose glans is uncovered, there frequently arise venereal chancres in the prepuce after impure coition, which before they digest, are generally attended with inflammation, more or less considerable. This inflammation is alone sufficient to render the prepuce too strait for the size of the penis, in consequence of which a swelling or inosculation may ensue like that before mentioned; and this is what is termed a paraphymosis.

PARAPHŌNIA, (*Paraphonia*, *a*, f. *παράφωνια*; from *παρα*, wrong, and *φωνή*, sound). Alteration of the voice. A genus of disease in the class *locales*, and order *dyscinesia* of Cullen, comprehending six species, viz. *paraphonia puberum*, *paraphonia rauca*, *paraphonia resonans*, *paraphonia palatina*, *paraphonia clangens*, and *paraphonia comatosa*.

PARAPHRENITIS, (*Paraphrenitis*, *idis*, f. *παράφρενιτις*; from *παρα*, dim. and *φρεν*, the mind). *Diaphragmitis*. An inflammation of the diaphragm. A genus of disease in the class *pyrexia* and order *phlegmasia* of Cullen, known by delirium, with difficulty of breathing, and pain in the region of the diaphragm.

PARAPLEGIA, (*Paraplegia*, *a*, f. *παράπληγια*; from *πα*, *απλῆσσω*, to

strike inharmoniously). Palsy of one half of the body taken transversely. A species of paralysis. See *Paralysis*.

PARASITIC. Animals, &c. are so termed, that receive their nourishment in the bodies of others, as worms, polypes, hydatids, &c.

PARATHENAR, (*παράθεναρ*; from *παρά*, near, and *θεναρ*, the sole of the foot). A muscle situated near the sole of the foot.

PARATHENAR MINOR. See *Flexor brevis minimi digiti pedis*.

PARÉGORICS, (*Medicamenta parégorica*, *παρηγορητικός*; from *παράγομαι*, to mitigate, to assuage). Medicines that allay pain are so termed.

PARENCHYMA, (*Parenchyma*, *atis*, n. *παρεγχυμα*; from *παρέχω*, to strain through, because the ancients believed the blood was strained through it). The spongy and cellular substance that connects parts together. It is now only, in anatomy, applied to the connecting medium of the substance of the lungs.

PARĒSIS, (*Paresis*, *is*, f. *παρεσις*; from *παρίμι*, to relax). An imperfect palsy.

PARIĒRA BRAVA, (*Pariera*, *a*, f. Span.). The root of this plant, *Cissampelos pareira*, *foliis pellatis cordatis emarginatis* of Linnæus, Class *Dioecia*. Order *Monadelphia*, a native of South America and the West Indies, has no remarkable smell, but to the taste it manifests a notable sweetness of the liquorice kind, together with a considerable bitterness, and a slight roughness covered by the sweet matter. The facts adduced on the utility of the *radix pareiræ bravæ* in nephritic and calculous complaints, are principally mentioned by foreigners, and no remarkable instances of its efficacy are recorded by English practitioners.

PARIETAL BONES, (*Parietalis*, from *paries*, a wall, because they de-

send the brain like walls). *Ossa verticis*. *Ossa syncipitis*. *Ossa verticalia vel bregmatis*. Two arched and somewhat quadrangular bones, situated one on each side of the superior part of the cranium. Each of these bones forms an irregular square. They are thicker above than below; but are somewhat thinner, and at the same time more equal and smooth than the other bones of the cranium. The only foramen we observe in them, is a small one towards the upper and posterior part of each. It has been named the parietal foramen, and serves for the transmission of a small vein to the longitudinal sinus. In many subjects this foramen is wanting. On the inner surface of these bones are the marks of the vessels of the dura mater, and of the convoluted surface of the brain. On the inside of their upper edge we may likewise observe a considerable furrow, which corresponds with the longitudinal sinus of the dura mater; and lower down, towards their posterior and inferior angle, is a smaller one for part of the lateral sinuses. These bones are joined to each other by the sagittal suture; to the os sphenoides, and ossa temporum, by the squamous suture; to the os occipitis by the lambdoidal suture; and to the os frontis by the coronal suture. Their connection with this latter bone is well worthy our attention. We shall find, that in the middle of the suture, where the os frontis, from its size and flatness, is the most in danger of being injured, it rests upon the arch formed by the parietal bones; whereas at the sides, the parietal bones are found resting upon the os frontis, because this same arch is there in the greatest danger from pressure. In new-born infants, the ossa parietalia are separated from the middle of the divided os frontis by a por-

tion of the cranium, then unossified. When the finger is applied to this part, the motion of the brain, and the pulsation of the arteries of the dura mater, may be easily distinguished. In general, the whole of this part is completely ossified before we are seven years of age.

PARIETĀRIA, (*Parietaria*, *a*, *f*. from *paries*, a wall, because it grows upon old walls, and among rubbish). Wall pelitory. *Parietaria officinalis* of Linnæus. *Parietaria foliis lanceolatis-obatis, pedunculis dichotomis, calycibus diphyllis*. Class *Polygamia*. Order *Monoecia*. This plant has no smell, and its taste is simply herbaceous. In the practice of the present day it is wholly laid aside, although it was formerly in high estimation as a diuretic.

PARIETĀRIA OFFICINĀLIS. The systematic name of the wall pelitory. See *Parietaria*.

PARIS, (*Paris*, *idis*, *f*. so called in reference to the youth of that name who adjudged the golden apple to Venus, this herb bearing but one seed). The herb Paris. The herb true love. *Paris quadrifolia* of Linnæus. The colour and smell of this plant indicate its possessing narcotic powers. The leaves and berries are said to be efficacious in the cure of whooping cough, and to act like opium. Great caution is requisite in their exhibition, as convulsions and death are caused by an overdose. The root possesses emetic qualities.

PARIS QUADRIFOLIĀ. The systematic name of the herb paris. See *Paris*.

PARONYCHĪA, (*Paronychia*, *a*, *f*. *παρονυχία*; from *παρά*, about, and *ονύξ*, the nail). *Panaris*. *Panaritium*. A whitlow, or whitloe. Any collection of pus formed in the fingers is termed by authors panaris or whitloe, and is an abscess of the same nature with those arising in other

parts of the body. These abscesses are situated more or less deep, which has induced the writers upon the subject to divide them into several species: accordingly they have ranged them under four heads, agreeable to the places where they are formed. The first kind of panaris is formed under the cuticle, on one side of the nail, and sometimes all round it. The second is seated in the fat lying under the skin, between that and the sheath which involves the flexor tendons. The third is described by authors to be formed within the sheath; and they still add a fourth species, arising between the periosteum and the bone.

PARORCHIDIUM, (*Parorchidium*, *i*, n. παρορχιδιον; from *παρε*, and *ορχις*, a testicle). A tumour in the groin, occasioned by the testicle, which is passing into the scrotum.

PAROTID GLAND, (*Glandula parotidea*, from *παρα*, about, and *ε*, the ear). A large conglomerate and salival gland, situated under the ear, between the mamillary process of the temple bone, and the angle of the lower jaw. The excretory duct of this gland opens in the mouth, and is called, from its discoverer, the *Stenonian duct*.

PAROXYSM, (*Paroxysmus*, *i*, m. παροξυσμος; from *παροξυνω*, to aggravate). A periodical exacerbation or fit of a disease.

PARSLEY, BLACK MOUNTAIN. See *Oreoselinum*.

PARSLEY, COMMON. See *Petroselinum*.

PARSLEY, MACEDONIAN. See *Petroselinum macedonicum*.

PARSNIP. See *Pastinaca*.

PARSNIP, WATER. See *Sium*.

PARULIS, (*Parulis*, *is*, f. παρυλις; from *παρα*, and *ουλον*, the gum). A gum boil.

PARTHENIUM, (*Parthenium*, *i*, n. παρθενιον; from *παρθενος*, a virgin; so

called because of its uses in diseases of young women). See *Matricaria*.

PARTHENIUM MAS. See *Tanacetum*.

PASSA MINOR. See *Uva passa minor*.

PASSIFLORA LAURIFOLIA. Bay-leaved passion flower. A native of Surinam. The fruit have a delicious smell and flavour, and are excellent for quenching thirst, abating heat of the stomach, increasing the appetite, recruiting the spirits, and allaying the heat in burning fevers.

PASSIFLORA MALIFORMIS. Apple-shaped granadelle. The fruit of this species of passion flower is esteemed a delicacy in the West Indies, where it is served up at table in deserts: they are not unwholesome.

PASSION CÆLIAC. See *Diarrhœa*.

PASSION HYSTERIC. See *Hysteria*.

PASSULÆ MAJORES. See *Uva passa major*.

PASTINACA, (*Pastinaca*, *a*, f. *a pasta*, from its usefulness as a food). The parsnip. The wild plant is sometimes called *Elaphoboscum*; the cultivated or garden parsnip is the *Pastinaca sativa*, *foliolis simpliciter pinnatis* of Linnæus. Its roots are sweet and nutritious, and in high esteem as an article of food. They possess an aromatic flavour, more especially those of the wild plant, and are exhibited in calculous complaints for their diuretic and sheathing qualities.

PASTINACA OPOPANAX. The systematic name of the plant which yields opopanax. See *Opopanax*.

PASTINACA SATIVA. The systematic name of the parsnip. See *Pastinaca*.

PATELLA, (*Patella*, *a*, dim. of *patina*, a dish; so named from its shape). *Rotula*. The knee-pan. A small flat bone, which in some

measure resembles the common figure of the heart with its point downwards, and is placed at the fore part of the joint of the knee. It is thicker in its middle part than at its edge. Anteriorly, it is a little convex, and rough for the insertion of muscles and ligaments; posteriorly, it is smooth, covered with cartilage, and divided by a middle longitudinal ridge, into two slightly concave surfaces, of which the external one is the largest and deepest. They are both exactly adapted to the pulley of the os femoris. The edges of this posterior surface are rough and prominent, where the capsular ligament is attached, and below is a roughness at the point of the bone, where the upper extremity of a strong tendinous ligament is fixed, which joins this bone to the tuberosity at the upper end of the tibia. This ligament is of considerable thickness, about an inch in breadth, and upwards of two inches in length. The rotula is composed internally of a cellular substance, covered by a thin bony plate; but its cells are so extremely minute, that the strength of the bone is, upon the whole, very considerable. In new-born children it is entirely cartilaginous. The use of this bone seems to be, to defend the articulation of the joint of the knee from external injury. It likewise tends to increase the power of the muscles which act in the extension of the leg, by removing their direction farther from the center of motion, in the manner of a pulley. When we consider the manner in which it is connected with the tibia, we find that it may very properly be considered as an appendix to the latter, which it follows in all its motions, so as to be to the tibia what the olecranon is to the ulna; with this difference, however, that the rotula is moveable, whereas the olecranon is a

fixed process. Without this mobility the rotatory motion of the leg would have been prevented.

PATHEŦICI, (*Patheticus*, from *παθος*, an affection, because they direct the eyes to express the passions of the mind). *Trochleatores*. The fourth pair of nerves. They arise from the crura of the cerebellum laterally, and are distributed in the musculus obliquus superior seu trochlearis.

PATHOGNOMONIC, (*Pathognomonicus*, *παθognomonikos*; from *παθος*, a disease, and *γνωσκα*, to know). A term given to those symptoms which are peculiar to a disease. They are also termed proper or characteristic symptoms.

PATHOLOGY, (*Pathologia*, *α, f.* *παθολογια*; from *παθος*, a disease, and *λογος*, a discourse). The doctrine of diseases. It comprehends *nosology*, *etiology*, *symptomatology*, and *therapia*.

PATIENTIA, (*Patientia*, *α, f.* from *patior*, to bear or suffer). The name of the herb monk's rhubarb, from its gentle purging qualities). See *Rhabarbarum*.

PATIENCE, GARDEN. See *Rhabarbarum monachorum*.

PAUL'S BETONY. See *Veronica*.

PAVANÆ LIGNUM. See *Lignum pavana*.

PEACH. See *Perfica*.

PEAGLE. See *Primula veris*.

PEARL. See *Margarita*.

PEARL-ASHES. Purified potash. See *Potash*.

PEARL BARLEY. See *Hordeum*.

PECHURIM CORTEX. An highly aromatic bark, the produce of a species of *Laurus*. It is extremely fragrant, like unto that of cinnamon, which it greatly resembles in its properties. In Lisbon it is much esteemed in the cure of dysenteries, and for allaying obstinate vomitings.

PECHURIUM FABAE. See *Faba pechurim*.

PECHURIS. See *Pechurim*.

PECQUET'S DUCT. *Ductus pequetii*. See *Thoracic duct*.

PECTINĀLIS, (*Pectinalis*, sc. *musculus*, so named from its arising at the *pecten*, or pubis). *Pectinaeus* of Albinus. This is a small flat muscle, situated obliquely between the pubis and the little trochanter, at the upper and anterior part of the thigh. It arises broad and fleshy from all the anterior edge of the os pectinis, or pubis, as it is more commonly called, as far as its spine, and descending obliquely backwards and outwards, is inserted by a short and broad tendon, into the upper and anterior part of the linea aspera of the os femoris a little below the lesser trochanter. This muscle serves to bend the thigh, by drawing it upwards and inwards, and likewise assists in rolling it outwards.

PECTINĀTIMUSCŪLI, (*Pectinatus*, from *pecten*, a comb; so named from their supposed resemblance). The fasciculated muscular fibres of the right auricle of the heart.

PECTINÆUS. See *Pectinalis*.

PECTORĀLIS. See *Pectoralis major*.

PECTORĀLIS MAJOR, (*Musculus pectoralis*; from *pectus*, the breast). *Pectoralis* of Albinus. This is a broad, thick, fleshy, and radiated muscle, situated immediately under the integuments, and covering almost the whole anterior part of the breast. Winslow calls it *pectoralis major*, to distinguish it from the *ferratus anticus*, which he has named *pectoralis minor*. It arises from the cartilaginous extremities of the fifth and sixth ribs, from the last of which its tendinous fibres descend over the upper part of the obliquus externus and rectus abdominis, helping to form a part of the sheath in which the latter is included. It likewise springs

from almost the whole length of the sternum by short tendinous fibres, which evidently decussate those on the other side; and tendinous and fleshy from more than a third of the anterior part of the clavicle. From these origins the fibres run in a folding manner towards the axilla, and are inserted by a broad tendon into the os humeri, above the insertion of the deltoid muscle, and at the outer side of the groove which lodges the tendon of the long head of the biceps: some of its fibres likewise extend into that groove; and, from the lower part of this tendon, which is spread near two inches along the os humeri, we find it sending off other fibres, which help to form the fascia that covers the muscles of the arm. It often happens, that that part of the pectoralis which arises from the clavicle, is separated from the inferior portion, so as to appear like a distinct muscle. This has induced Winslow to divide it into parts, one of which he calls the *clavicular*, and the other the *thoracic* portion. Sometimes these two portions are inserted by separate tendons, which cross one another at the upper and inner part of the os humeri, the tendon of the thoracic portion being inserted at the outer edge of the bicipital groove, immediately behind the other. This muscle, and the latissimus dorsi, form the cavity of the axilla or arm-pit. The use of the pectoralis is to move the arm forwards, or to raise it obliquely towards the sternum. It likewise occasionally assists in moving the trunk upon the arm; thus, when we exert any efforts with the hand, as in raising ourselves from off an arm chair, or in sealing a letter, the contraction of this muscle is particularly observable. To these uses Haller adds that of assisting in respiration, by raising the sternum and ribs. He tells us he well remembers, that when

this muscle was affected by rheumatism, his breathing was incommoded: and that, when troubled with difficulty of respiration, he has often found himself greatly relieved by raising and drawing back his shoulders, keeping his arms at the same time firmly fixed. Winslow, however, has denied this use, and Albinus has omitted it, probably because it does not take place in a natural state.

PECTORĀLIS MINOR. *Serratus anticus* of Albinus. Douglas calls this muscle *serratus minor anticus*, and Winslow gives it the name of *pectoralis minor*. It is a fleshy and pretty considerable muscle, situated at the anterior and lateral part of the thorax, immediately under the pectoralis major. It arises from the upper edges of the third, fourth, and fifth ribs, near where they join with their cartilages by an equal number of tendinous and fleshy digitations, which have been compared to the teeth of a saw, whence this and some other muscles, from their having a similar origin or insertion, have gotten the name of *ferrati*. From these origins it becomes thicker and narrower as it ascends, and is inserted by a flat tendon into the upper part of the coracoid process of the scapula. The principal use of this muscle is to draw the scapula forwards and downwards; and when that is fixed, it may likewise serve to elevate the ribs.

PECTORALS, (*Medicamenta pectoralia*, from *pectus*, the breast). Medicines that relieve disorders of the chest.

PECTUS, (*Pectus, oris, n.*). The breast. See *Thorax*.

PEDES HIPPOCAMPI, (*Pes, dis, m. pl. pedes*). Two columns at the end of the fornix of the brain, which diverge posteriorly. They are so named from their resemblance to the feet of the *hippocampus*, or sea-horse.

PEDICŪLĀRĪA, (*Pedicularia, a, f.* from *pediculus*, a louse; so called from its use in destroying lice). The herb staves-acre. See *Staphisagria*.

PEDILUVIUM, (*Pediluvium, i, n.* from *pedes*, the feet, and *lavo*, to wash). A bath for the feet.

PELAGRA. The disease called the *pelagra*, does not appear to have been noticed by any of our nosologists. Indeed few accounts of it have hitherto been published, although the peculiar symptoms with which it is attended, and the fatal consequences which generally ensue from it, render it equally curious and important. In certain districts, as Milan and Padua in Italy, where it is peculiarly prevalent, it is computed to attack five inhabitants out of every hundred. The following account of this singular disease is extracted from Dr. Jansen's treatise on the subject who had seen the disease at Milan.

About the month of March or April, when the season invites the farmers to cultivate their fields, it often happens that a shining red spot suddenly arises on the back of the hand, resembling the common erysipelas, but without much itching or pain, or indeed any other particular inconvenience. Both men and women, girls and boys, are equally subject to it. Sometimes this spot affects both hands, without appearing on any other part of the body. Not uncommonly it arises also on the shins, sometimes on the neck, and now and then, though very rarely, on the face. It is sometimes also seen on the breasts of women, where they are not covered by the clothes, but such parts of the body as are not exposed to the air, are very seldom affected; nor has it ever been observed to attack the palm of the hand, or the sole of the foot. This red spot elevates the skin a little,

producing numerous small tubercles of different colours; the skin becomes dry and cracks, and the epidermis sometimes assumes a fibrous appearance. At length it falls off in white furfuraceous scales; but the shining redness underneath still continues, and in some instances remains through the following winter. In the meantime, excepting this mere local affection, the health is not the least impaired, the patient performs all his rural labours as before, enjoys a good appetite, eats heartily, and digests well. The bowels are generally relaxed at the very commencement of the disease, and continue so throughout its whole course. All the other excretions are as usual; and, in females, the menses return at their accustomed periods, and in the proper quantity. But what is most surprising is, that in the month of September, when the heat of the summer is over, in some cases sooner, in others later, the disorder generally altogether disappears, and the skin resumes its natural healthy appearance. This change has been known to take place as early as the latter end of May or June, when it has only been in its earliest stage. The patients, however, are not now to be considered as well; the disease hides itself, but is not eradicated: For no sooner does the following spring return, but it quickly reappears, and generally is accompanied with severer symptoms. The spot grows larger, the skin becomes more unequal and hard, with deeper cracks. The patient now begins to feel uneasiness in his head, becomes fearful, dull, less capable of labour, and much wearied with his usual exertions. He is exceedingly affected with the changes of the atmosphere, and impatient both of cold and heat. Nevertheless, he generally gets through his ordinary labour, with less vigour and cheerfulness indeed than

formerly, but still without being obliged to take to his bed: and, as he has no fever, his appetite continues good, and the chylopoietic viscera perform their proper functions. When the pelegra has even arrived at this stage, the returning winter, nevertheless, commonly restores the patient to apparent health; but the more severe the symptoms have been, and the deeper root the disease has taken, the more certainly does the return of spring produce it with additional violence. Sometimes the disease in the skin disappears, but the other symptoms remain notwithstanding. The powers both of the mind and body now become daily more enfeebled; peevishness, watchings, vertigo, and at length complete melancholy supervene. Nor is there a more distressing kind of melancholy any where to be seen, than takes place in this disease. "On entering the hospital at Legnano," says Dr. Jansen, "I was astonished at the mournful spectacle I beheld, especially in the women's ward. There they all sat, indolent, languid, with downcast looks, their eyes expressing distress, weeping without cause, and scarcely returning an answer when spoken to; so that a person would suppose himself to be among fools and mad people: and indeed with very good reason; for gradually this melancholy increases, and at length ends in real mania.

Many, as I had an opportunity of observing in this hospital, were covered with a peculiar and characteristic sweat, having a very offensive smell, which I know not how better to express than by comparing it to the smell of mouldy bread. A person accustomed to see the disease would at once recognize it by this single symptom. Many complained of a burning pain at night in the soles of the feet, which often deprived

them of sleep. Some with double vision; others with fatuity; others with visceral obstructions; others with additional symptoms. Nevertheless, fever still keeps off, the appetite is unimpaired, and the secretions are regularly carried on. But the disease goes on increasing, the nerves are more debilitated, the legs and thighs lose the power of motion, stupor or delirium come on, and the melancholy terminates in confirmed mania. In the hospital at Legnano, I saw both men and women in this maniac state. Some lay quiet; others were raving, and obliged to be tied down to the bed, to prevent them from doing mischief to themselves and others. In almost all these the pulse was small, slow, and without any character of fever. One woman appeared to have a slight degree of furor uterinus; for at the sight of men she became merry, smiled, offered kisses, and by her gestures desired them to come towards her. Some were occupied in constant prayers; some pleased themselves with laughter, and others with other things. But it was remarkable, that all who were in this stage of the disease had a strong propensity to drown themselves. They now begin to grow emaciated, and the delirium is often followed by a species of tabes. A colliquative diarrhœa comes on, which no remedy can stop, as also has been observed in nostalgia. Sometimes in the pelagra the diarrhœa comes on before the delirium, and the delirium and stupor mutually interchange with each other. The appetite often suddenly failed, so that the sick will sometimes go for near a week without tasting food. Not uncommonly it returns as suddenly, so that they eagerly devoured whatever was offered them, and this even at times when they are horribly con-

vulsed. The convulsions with which they are attacked are most shocking to see, and are of almost every kind, catalepsy excepted, which has been described by writers. I saw one girl in bed, who was violently distorted by opisthotonos every time she attempted to rise. Some are seized with emprosthotonos; and others with other species of tetanus. At length syncope and death close the tragedy, often without any symptom of fever occurring through the whole course of the disease. The first stage of the pelagra, in which the local affection only takes place, Dr. Jansen observes, continues in some instances for a great length of time; persons being occasionally met with in whom it has lasted six or eight, or even fifteen years, disappearing regularly every winter, or returning again in the spring. This occasions some of the inhabitants to pay little attention to it; although, in other cases, it reaches its greatest height after the second or third attack. It appears that this disease is not infectious, and that the causes producing it are yet unascertained. It has been supposed by some to arise from the heat of the sun's rays; and hence it is now and then called *mal de sole*; but this does produce any similar disease in other parts of the world, where it is in an equal or even much greater degree than at Milan; no disease in any respect resembling it having hitherto been noticed in such regions, except the lepra asturienfis described by Thiery, and after him by Sauvages. In this a tremour of the head and trunk of the body takes place, which does not happen in the pelagra. This, however, is the principal difference in the two diseases.

PELATO-SALPINGEUS. See *Circumflexus*.

PELITORY, BASTARD. See *Ptar-mica*.

PELLITORY OF SPAIN, See *Pyrethrum*.

PELLITORY, WALL. See *Parietaria*.

PELVIS, (*Pelvis*, is, from *πελός*, a basin, because it is shaped like a basin used in former times). The cavity below the belly. It is composed of four bones, viz. two ossa innominata, the sacrum, and os coccygis, which see. It contains the organs of generation, the bladder, and the rectum. See *Uterus*, *Ovaria*, *Vagina*, *Vesica urinaria*, *Prostate gland*, *Rectum*, &c.

PELVIS, LIGAMENTS, OF. The articulation of the os sacrum with the last lumbar vertebra, and with the ossa innominata, is strengthened by means of a strong transverse ligament, which passes from the extremity and lower edge of the last lumbar vertebra, to the posterior and internal surface of the spine of the ilium. Other ligaments are extended posteriorly from the os sacrum to the os ilia on each side, and, from the direction of their fibres, may be called the lateral ligaments. Besides these, there are many shorter ligamentous fibres, which are seen stretching from the whole circumference of the articulating surfaces of these two bones. But the most remarkable ligaments of the pelvis are the two *sacro-ischiatic* ligaments, which are placed towards the posterior and inferior part of the pelvis. One of these may be called the greater, and the other the lesser sacro-ischiatic ligament. The first of these is attached to the posterior edge of the os sacrum, to the tuberosity of the ilium, and to the first of the three divisions of the os coccygis. Its other extremity is inserted into the inner surface of the tuberosity of the ischium. At its upper part it is of considerable breadth, after which it becomes narrower, but expands again

before its insertion into the ischium, and, extending along the tuberosity of that bone to the lower branch of the os pubis, where it terminates in a point, forms a kind of falx, one end of which is loose, while the other is fixed to the bone. The lesser sacro-ischiatic ligament is somewhat thicker than the former, and is placed obliquely before it. It extends from the transverse processes of the os sacrum, and the tuberosity of the spine of the ilium on each side, to the spine of the ischium. These two ligaments not only serve to strengthen the articulation of the ossa innominata with the os sacrum, but to support the weight of the viscera contained in the pelvis, the back and lower part of which is closed by these ligaments. The posterior and external surface of the greater ligament likewise serves for the attachment of some portions of the *gluteus maximus* and *gemini* muscles. The symphysis pubis is strengthened internally by a transverse ligament, some of the fibres of which are extended to the obturator ligament.

PEMPHIGUS, (*Pemphigus*, *i*, m. *πεμφίγος*, from *πέμψω*, a bubble). A fever attended by successive eruptions of vesicles about the size of almonds, which are filled with a yellowish serum, and in three or four days subside. The fever may be either synocha or typhus. It is a genus of disease in the class *pyrexia* and order *exanthemata* of Cullen.

PEMPHIGUS MAJOR. See *Pemphigus*.

PEMPHIGUS MINOR. In this species the vesicles are no larger than garden peas.

PENEA MUCRONATA. The systematic name of the plant which affords the *sarcocolla*. See *Sarcocolla*.

PENGUIN. See *Brumelia karwinskii*.

PENIS, (*Penis*, is, m. à pendendo, from its hanging down). *Membrum virile*. The cylindrical part that hangs down, under the mons veneris before the scrotum of males. It is divided by anatomists into the root, body, and head called the *glans penis*. It is composed of common integuments, two corpora cavernosa, and one corpus spongiosum, which surrounds a canal, the *urethra*, that proceeds from the bladder to the apex of the penis, where it opens by the *meatus urinarius*. See *Urethra*. The fold of the skin that covers the glans penis is termed the prepuce. The arteries of the penis are from the hypogastric and ischiatic. The vein of the penis, *vena magna ipsius penis*, empties itself into the hypogastric vein. The absorbents of this organ are very numerous, and run under the common integuments to the inguinal glands: absorbents also are found in great plenty in the urethra. The glands of the penis are, Cowper's glands, the prostate, muciparous, and odoriferous glands. The nerves of the penis are branches of the sacral and ischiatic.

PENIS ERECTOR. See *Erector penis*.

PENNYROYAL. See *Pulegium*.

PENNYROYAL, HARTS. See *Pulegium cervinum*.

PENTAPHYLLUM, (*Pentaphyllum*, i, n. πενταφύλλον, from πέντε, five, and φύλλον, a leaf; so named because it has five leaves on each stalk). Common cinquefoil, or five-leaved grass. The roots of this plant, *Potentilla reptans*; *foliis quinatis, caule repente, pedunculis unifloris* of Linnæus. Class *Icosandria*. Order *Polygynia*; have a bitterish styptic taste. They were used by the ancients in the cure of intermittents; but the medicinal quality of cinquefoil is confined, in the present day, to stop diarrhœas and other fluxes.

PEONY, COMMON. See *Pœonia*.

PEPO, (*Pepo, onis*, m. πεπω, from πετω, to ripen). See *Cucurbita*.

PEPPER, BLACK. See *Piper nigrum*.

PEPPER, GUINEA. See *Piper indicum*.

PEPPER, JAMAICA. See *Pimento*.

PEPPER, LONG. See *Piper longum*.

PEPPER, POORMAN'S. See *Hydropiper*.

PEPPER, WALL. See *Illecebra*.

PEPPER, WATER. See *Hydropiper*.

PEPPER, WHITE. See *Piper nigrum*.

PEPPERMINT. See *Mentha piperitis*.

PEPPERWORT. See *Lepidium*.

PERFOLIATA, (*Perfoliata, æ*, f. from *per* and *folium*, so called because the leaves surround the stem, like those of the cabbage). Round-leaved hare's ear, or therow wax. This plant, *Bupleurum rotundifolium* of Linnæus, was formerly celebrated for curing ruptures, mixed into a poultice with wine and oatmeal.

PERFORANS. See *Flexor profundus perforans*.

PERFORATUS. See *Flexor brevis digitorum pedis*, and *Flexor sublimis perforatus*.

PERIBLEPSIS, (*Periblepsis, is*, f. περιβλεψις, from περιβλεπω, to stare about). That kind of wild look which is observed in delirious persons.

PERIBRŌSIS, (*Peribrosis, is*, f. περιβρωσις). An ulceration or erosion at the corners or uniting parts of the eyelids. This disorder most frequently affects the internal commissura of the eyelids. The species are, 1. *Peribrosis*, from the acrimony of the tears, as may be observed in the epiphora. 2. *Peribrosis*, from an ægylops, which sometimes extends to the commissura of the eyelids.

PERICARDĪTIS, (*Pericarditis*, *itis*, f. *περικαρδίτις*, from *περικαρδιον*, the pericardium). Inflammation of the pericardium.

PERICARDĪUM, (*Pericardium*, *i*, n. *περικαρδιον*, from *περι*, about, and *καρδια*, the heart). The membranous bag that surrounds the heart. Its use is to secrete and contain the vapour of the pericardium, which lubricates the heart, and thus preserves it from concreting with the pericardium.

PERICHONDRIUM, (*Perichondrium*, *i*, n. *περιχονδριον*, from *περι*, about, and *χονδρος*, a cartilage). The membrane that covers a cartilage.

PERICRANIUM, (*Pericranium*, *i*, n. *περικρανιον*, from *περι*, and *κρανιον*, the cranium). The membrane that is closely connected to the bones of the head.

PERINÆUS TRANSVERSUS. See *Transversus perinei*.

PERINÆUM, (*Perinaum*, *i*, n. from *περινω*, to flow round, because that part is generally moist). The space between the anus and organs of generation.

PERIOSTEUM, (*Periosteum*, *i*, n. *περιοστέον*, from *περι*, about, and *οστος*, a bone). The membrane which invests the external surface of all the bones except the crowns of the teeth. It is of a fibrous texture, and well supplied with arteries, veins, nerves, and absorbents. It is called *pericranium* on the cranium; *periorbita* on the orbits; *perichondrium* when it covers cartilage; and *peridesmium* when it covers ligament. Its use appears to be, to distribute the vessels on the external surfaces of bones.

PERIPNEUMŌNĪA, (*Peripneumonia*, *a*, f. *περιπνευμονια*, from *περι*, and *πνευμων*, the lung). Peripneumony, or inflammation of the lungs. See *Pneumonia*.

PERIPNEUMŌNĪA NOTHA. Bastard or spurious peripneumony. Practitioners, it would appear, do not all

affix this name to the same disease; some affirming it is a rheumatic affection of the respiratory muscles, while others consider it as a mild peripneumony. It is characterised by difficulty of breathing, great oppression at the chest, with obscure pains, cough, and occasionally an expectoration.

PERISTALTIC MOTION, (*Peristalticus*, *περισταλτικος*, from *περιστελλω*, to contract). The vermicular motion of the intestines, by which they contract and propel their contents. A similar motion takes place in the Fallopian tubes, after conception, by means of which the ovum is translated from the ovarium into the uterus.

PERISTERIUM, (*Peristerium*, *i*, n. *περιστεριον*, from *περιστερον*, a pigeon, so called because pigeons cover it). The herb vervain. See *Verbena*.

PERISYSTOLE, (*Perisystole*, *es*, f. *περισυστολη*, from *περιστελλω*, to compress). The intermission or time between the contraction and dilatation of the heart.

PERITONAEUM, (*Peritoneum*, *i*, n. *περιτοναιον*, from *περιτενω*, to extend round). A strong simple membrane, by which all the viscera of the abdomen are surrounded. It has an exceedingly smooth, exhaling, and moist internal surface. Outwardly, it is every where surrounded by cellular substance, which, towards the kidneys, is very loose and very fat; but is very short at the lower tendon of the transverse muscles. It begins from the diaphragm, which it completely lines; and, at the last fleshy fibres of the ribs, and the external lumbar fibres, it completes the septum, in conjunction with the pleura, with which it is continuous through the various intervals of the diaphragm. Posteriorly it descends before the kidneys; anteriorly, behind the abdominal muscles; it dips into the pelvis; from the bones of the pubis, passes over

the bladder, and descends behind; and being again carried backwards at the entrance of the ureters in two lunar folds, it rejoins upon the intestinum rectum, that part of itself which invests the loins, and in this situation lies before the rectum. The cellular texture, which covers the peritonæum on the outside, is continued into sheaths in very many places; of which one receives the testicle on each side, another the iliac vessels of the pelvis, viz. the obturatoria, those of the penis, bladder, and aorta, and, ascending to the breast, accompany the œsophagus and vertebræ; by means of which, there is a communication between the whole body and the peritonæum, well known in dropical people. It has various prolongations, for covering the viscera. The shorter productions of this membrane are called ligaments; and are formed by a continuous reduplication of the peritonæum, receding from its inner surface, inclosing cellular substance, and extending to some viscus, where its plates separate, and, having diverged, embrace the viscus; but the intermediate cellular substance always accompanies this membranaceous coat, and joins it with the true substance of the viscus. Of this short kind of production, three belong to the liver, one or two to the spleen, and others to the kidneys, and to the sides of the uterus and vaginâ. By this means, the tender substance of the viscera is defended from injury by any motion or concussion, and their whole mass is prevented from being misplaced by their own weight, and from injuring themselves, being securely connected with the firm sides of the peritonæum.

PERITONĪTIS, (*Peritonitis*, *idis*, *περιτονιτις*, from *περιτοναϊον*, the peritonæum). An inflammation of the peritonæum. A genus of disease in the class *pyrexia* and order *phleg-*

massa of Cullen, known by the presence of pyrexia, with pain in the abdomen, that is increased when in an erect position. When the inflammation attacks the peritoneum of the viscera, it takes the name of the viscus: thus, *peritonitis hepatis*, *peritonitis intestinalis*, *peritonitis omentalis*, or *epiploitis*, or *omentalis*, *peritonitis mesenterii*.

PERLA, (*Perla*, *a*, f. Ital. and Span. *perl*, Welch, *perlen*, Germ.). See *Margarita*.

PERLÆ. See *Margarita*.

PERLS. See *Margarita*.

PERNĪO, (*Pernio*, *onis*, m.). A chilblain. A species of *erythema* of Cullen.

PERONÆUS ANTĪCUS. See *Peroneus brevis*.

PERONÆUS BREVIS, (*Peroneus*, sc. *musculus*, *περοναιος*, from *perone*, the fibula). This muscle, which is in a great measure covered by the last described muscle, is the *peroneus secundus* seu *anticus* of Douglas, and the *peroneus medius* seu *anticus*, of Winslow. It arises by an acute, thin, and fleshy origin from the anterior and outer part of the fibula, its fibres continuing to adhere to the lower half of that bone. Its round tendon passes through the groove in the malleolus externus, along with that of the peroneus longus, after which it runs in a separate groove to be inserted into the upper and posterior part of the tubercle at the basis of the metatarsal bone, that supports the little toe. Its use is to assist the peroneus longus.

PERONÆUS LONGUS. This muscle, which is the *peroneus primus* seu *posticus* of Douglas, and the *peroneus maximus* seu *posterior* of Winslow, is situated somewhat anteriorly along the outer side of the leg. It arises tendinous and fleshy from the external lateral part of the head of the tibia, and likewise from the upper anterior surface and outer side of the

perone or fibula, its fibres continuing to adhere to the outer surface of the latter to within three or four inches of the malleolus externus. It terminates in a long round tendon, which runs obliquely behind the malleolus internus, where it passes through a cartilaginous groove in common with the peroneus brevis, being bound down by an annular ligament. When it has reached the os calcis, it quits the tendon of the peroneus brevis, and runs obliquely inwards along a groove in the os cuboides, under the muscles on the sole of the foot, to be inserted into the outside of the posterior extremity of the metatarsal bone that supports the great toe. Near the insertion of this muscle we find a small *bursa mucosa*. This muscle draws the foot outwards, and likewise assists in extending it.

PERONEUS MAXIMUS. See *Peroneus longus*.

PERONEUS MEDIUS. See *Peroneus brevis*.

PERONEUS POSTICUS. See *Peroneus longus*.

PERONEUS PRIMUS. See *Peroneus longus*.

PERONEUS TERTIUS. This is the name given by Albinus to a muscle which, by some writers, is called *nonus Vesalii*, or Vesalius's ninth muscle of the foot; but by most considered in the present day as a portion of the extensor longus digitorum pedis. It is situated at the anterior, inferior, and outer part of the leg, along the outer edge of the last described muscle, to which it is intimately united. It arises fleshy from the anterior surface of the lower half of the fibula, and from the adjacent part of the interosseous ligament. Its fibres run obliquely downwards, towards a tendon which passes under the annular ligament, and then running obliquely outwards, is inserted into the root of the metatarsal bone that supports the little toe.

This muscle assists in bending the foot.

PERONEUS SECUNDUS. See *Peroneus brevis*.

PERRENIAL WORM GRASS. See *Spigelia*.

PERSICA, (*Persica*, *a*, f. *περσικη*, from *Persia*, its native soil). The peach. The fruit of the *Amygdalus persica* of Linnæus. It is known to be grateful and wholesome, seldom disagreeing with the stomach, unless this organ is not in a healthy state, or the fruit has been eaten to excess, when effects similar to those of the other dulco acid summer fruits may be produced. The flowers, including the calyx, as well as the corolla, are the parts of the persica used for medicinal purposes. These have an agreeable but weak smell, and a bitterish taste. Boulduc observes "that when distilled, without addition, by the heat of a water bath, they yield one-sixth their weight, or more, of a whitish liquid, which communicates to a considerable quantity of other liquids a flavour like that of the kernels of fruits. These flowers have a cathartic effect, and, especially to children, have been successfully given, in the character of a vermifuge; for this purpose, an infusion of a dram of the flowers dried, or half an ounce in their recent state, is the requisite dose. The leaves of the Persica are also found to possess an anthelmintic power, and from a great number of experiments appear to have been given with invariable success both to children and adults. However, as the leaves and flowers of the persica manifest in some degree the quality of those of the laurocerasus, they ought to be used with caution.

PERSICARIA, (*Persicaria*, *a*, f. from *persica*, the peach-tree, so called because its blossoms are like those of the peach). *Persicaria mitis*. *Plumbago*. Arsnart. This plant, *Polygonum persicaria* of Linnæus, is said to possess vulnerary and antiseptic.

tie properties; with which intentions it is given in wine, to restrain the progress of gangrene.

PERSICARIA MITIS. See *Perficaria*.

PERSICARIA URENS. See *Hydropiper*.

PERSONATA, (*Personata*, æ, f. from *persona*, a disguised person, because, according to Pliny, the ancient actors used to mask themselves with the leaves of this plant). The great burdock. See *Bardana*.

PERSPIRATION, (*Perspiratio*, onis, f.). The vapour that is secreted by the extremities of the cutaneous arteries from the external surface of the body. It is distinguished into *sensible* and *insensible*. The former is separated in the form of an invisible vapour, the latter so as to be visible in the form of very little drops adhering to the epidermis. The *secretory organ* is composed of the extremities of the cutaneous arteries. The *smell* of the perspirable fluid, in an healthy man, is fatuous and animal; its *taste* manifestly salt and ammoniacal. In *consistence* it is vaporous and aqueous; and its *specific gravity* is greater than water. For the most part it is yellowish, from the passage of the subcutaneous oil, and sebaceous matter of the subcutaneous glands. Sometimes it is reddish, from the globules of the cruor passing through, especially under the axillæ. The *quantity* is sometimes so profuse, as not only conspicuously to moisten the linen, but also the thicker garments.

The *constituent principles* of the perspirable fluid appear to be, 1. *Water*, attenuated into vapour, by the matter of heat. 2. *Animal gaz*, or carbonated hydrogen. As the production of carbonated air with the oxygen of the atmosphere shews. 3. *Azotic gas*. For water, in which a man has bathed soon becomes putrid. Carbonated hydrogen, chemically combined with azot, would appear to

constitute *putrid miasma*. May not this be the origin of putrid fever, in those narrow confined chambers in which there are many persons? 4. The *glandular smegma* and *subcutaneous oil*; hence linen is stained with a yellowish colour, and leanness is brought on. 5. The *serum of the blood*. This affords an immense quantity of water, and the albuminous and saline part of the sweat. It makes the linen of a viscid rigidity, and of a salt taste. Glass-blowers sometimes excrete so acrid a sweat, that salt has been seen collected in crystals on their faces.

Perspiration varies in respect to, 1. The *temperature of the atmosphere*. Thus men have a more copious, viscid, and higher coloured sweat on summer days, and in warm countries, than in colder regions. 2. *Sex*. The sweat of a man is said to smell more acrid than that of a woman. 3. *Age*. The young are more subject to sweat than the aged, who during the excessive heat of the summer scarcely sweat at all. 4. *Ingesta*. An alliaceous sweat is perceived from eating garlic; a leguminous from peas; an acid from acids; a fetid from animal food only; and a rancid sweat from fat foods, as is observed in Greenland. A long abstinence from drink causes a more acrid and coloured sweat; and the drinking a great quantity of cold water in summer, a limpid and thin sweat. 5. *Medicines*. The sweat of those who have taken musk, even moderately, and assafoetida, or sulphur, smells of their respective natures. 6. *Region of the body*. The sweat of the head is greasy; on the forehead it is more aqueous; under the axillæ very unguinous; and in the interstices of the toes, it is very fetid, forming in the most healthy man blackish fordes. 7. *Diseases*. In this respect it varies very much, in regard to quantity, smell, and colour; for the sweat of gouty persons

is said to turn vegetable juices to a red colour, and is of a cretaceous nature. Some men also have a lucid sweat, others a sweat tinging their linen of a cærulean colour.

The use of the insensible perspiration are, 1. To *liberate* the blood from superfluous animal gas, azot, and water. 2. To eliminate the noxious and heterogeneous excrements; hence the acid, rancid, leguminous, or putrid perspiration of some men. 3. To *moisten* the external surface of the body, lest the epidermis, cutis, and its nervous papillæ be dried up by the atmospheric air. 4. To *counter-balance* the suppressed pulmonary transpiration of the lungs; for when it is suppressed, the cutaneous is encreased: hence the nature of both appears to be the same.

The use of the sensible perspiration or sweat, in an healthy man, is scarcely observable, unless from an error of the six non-naturals. Its first effect on the body is always prejudicial, by exhausting and drying it; although it is sometimes of advantage. 1. By supplying a watery excretion: thus when the urine is deficient, the sweat is often more abundant. In this manner an aqueous diarrhæa is frequently cured by sweating. 2. By eliminating at the same time, any morbid matter. Thus various miasmata are critically expelled, in acute and chronic diseases, with the sweat.

PERTUSSIS, (*Pertussis*, *is*, *f.* from *per*, much, and *tussis*, cough). The whooping cough. A genus of disease in the class *neuroses*, and order *spasmi* of Cullen; known by a convulsive strangulating cough, with whooping, relieved by vomiting, and being contagious.

PERUVIAN BARK. See *Cinchona*.

PERUVIANUS CORTEX. Peruvian bark. See *Cinchona*.

PERUVIANUS CORTEX FLAVUS. See *Cinchona*.

PERUVIANUS CORTEX RUBER. See *Cinchona*.

PERVIGILIUM, (*Pervigilium*, *i*, *n.* from *per*, much, and *vigilo*, to watch). Watching, or a want of sleep. See *Vigilance*.

PES ALEXANDRINUS. See *Pyrethrum*.

PES CATI. See *Gnaphalium*.

PES COLUMBINUS. See *Geranium columbinum*.

PES LEONIS. The ladies mantle is sometimes so called. See *Alchemilla*.

PESSARY, (*Pessarum*, *i*, *n.* from *πῆσσω*, to soften). An instrument that is introduced into the vagina to support the uterus.

PESTILENT WORT. See *Petasites*.

PESTIS, (*Pestis*, *is*, *f.*). The plague. A genus of disease in the class *pyrexia* and order *exanthemata* of Cullen, characterized by typhus, which is contagious in the extreme, prostration of strength, buboes, and carbuncles, petechiæ, hæmorrhage, and colliquative diarrhœa.

PETASITES, (*Petasites*, *a*, *f.* *πετασίτης*; from *πετασος*, a hat, so named because its leaves are shaped like a hat). Butterbur. Pestilentwort. *Tussilago petasites* of Linnæus. The roots of this plant are recommended as aperient and alexipharmic, and promise, though now forgotten, to be of considerable activity. They have a strong smell, and a bitterish acrid taste, of the aromatic kind, but not agreeable.

PETECHIÆ, (*Petechia*, *a*, *f.* from the Italian *petechio*, a flea bite, because they resemble the bites of fleas). Red or purple spots that mostly appear in contagious diseases.

PETRAPYUM, (*Petrapium*, *i*, *n.* from *petra*, a rock, and *apium*, parsley, so called because it grows in stoney

places). See *Petroselinum macedonicum*.

PETROLĒUM, (*Petroleum*, *i*, *n*. from *petra*, a rock, and *oleum*, oil). The name of petroleum is given to a liquid bituminous substance which flows between rocks, or in different places at the surface of the earth. The more fluid species are distinguished by the name of *naphtha*, and the thicker by those of *pissaphaltum* and *pissellum*. See *Naphtha*, *Mineral pitch*, &c.

PETROLĒUM BARBADENSE. Barbadoes tar. This is chiefly obtained from the island of Barbadoes, and is sometimes employed externally in paralytic diseases.

PETROLĒUM RUERUM. *Oleum gabianum*. Red petroleum. A species of rock oil of a blackish red colour, of a thicker consistence, less penetrating and more disagreeable smell than the other kinds of petroleum. It abounds about the village of Gabian in Languedoc.

PETROLĒUM SULPHURĀTUM. A stimulating balsamic remedy given in coughs, asthmas, and other affections of the chest.

PETROSELĪNUM, (*Petroselinum*, *i*, *n*. from *πτρα*, a rock, and *σέλινον*, parsley). *Petroselinum vulgare*. *Apium hortense*. Common parsley. *Apium petroselinum* of Linnæus. *Apium foliis caulinis linearibus, involucellis minutis*. Class *Pentandria*. Order *Digynia*. Both the root and seeds of this plant are directed by the London College for medicinal use: the former have a sweetish taste, accompanied with a slight warmth or flavour, somewhat resembling that of carrot; the latter are in taste warmer and more aromatic than any other part of the plant, and manifest considerable bitterness. The roots are said to be aperient and diuretic, and have been employed in nephritic pains and obstructions of urine. The seeds possess aromatic and carminative powers, but are seldom prescribed.

PETROSELĪNUM MACEDONICUM.

Apium petraum. *Petrapium*. Macedonian parsley. This plant, *Bubon macedonicum* of Linnæus, is similar in quality to the common parsley, but weaker and less grateful. The seeds enter the celebrated compounds mithridate and theriaca.

PETROSELĪNUM VULGĀRE. See *Petroselinum*.

PETROSILEX, (*Petrosilex, icis*, *f.*). A species of coarse flint, of a deep blue or yellowish green colour. It is interspersed in veins through rocks; and from this circumstance derives its name.

PETRO - SALPINGO - STAPHILĪNUS. See *Levator palati*.

PEUCEDĀNUM, (*Peucedanum*, *i*, *n*. *πευκεδάριον*, from *πευκη*, the pine-tree; so called from its leaves resembling those of the pine-tree). *Marathrum sylvestre*. *Marathrophyllum*. *Pinas-tellum*. *Henialeum porcinum*. Hog's fennel. Hore's tongue. Sulphurwort. The plant which bears this name in the pharmacopœias is the *Peucedanum officinale*; *foliis quinque partitis, filiformibus, linearibus* of Linnæus. The root is the officinal part; it has a strong fetid smell, somewhat resembling that of sulphureous solutions, and an acrid, unctuous, bitterish taste. Wounded when fresh in the spring or autumn, particularly in the former season, in which the root is most vigorous, it yields a considerable quantity of yellow juice, which soon dries into a solid gummy resin, which retains the taste and strong smell of the root. This, as well as the root, is recommended as a nervine and anti-hysterical remedy.

PEUCEDĀNUM OFFICINĀLE. The systematic name of the hog's fennel. See *Peucedanum*.

PEUCEDĀNUM SILĀUS. The systematic name of the meadow saxifrage. See *Saxifraga vulgaris*.

PEYER'S GLANDS. *Glandule peyerianæ*. The glands of the intestines. See *Brunner's glands*.

PEZIZA AURICŪLA. The systematic name of the elder fungus. See *Auricula judæ*.

PHACEDÆNA; (*Phagedæna*, *æ*, f. φαγεδαινα; from φαγω, to eat). A species of ulcer that spreads very rapidly.

PHAGEDÆNICS. Applications that destroy fungous flesh.

PHALANX, (*Phalanx*, *gis*, f. from φαλανξ, a battalion). The small bones of the fingers and toes, which are distinguished into the first, second, and third phalanx.

PHĀLĀRIS CANARIËNSIS, (*Phalaris*, *idis*, f. φαλαρίς; from φαλος, white, shining, so named from its white shining seed, and *canariensis*, from its being the principal food of the canary birds). Canary grass. The seed of this plant is well known to be the common food of canary birds. In the Canary islands the inhabitants grind it into meal, and make a coarse sort of bread with it.

PHALLUS ESCULENTUS. The systematic name of the morel fungus. See *Morel*.

PHARMACY, (*Pharmacia*, *æ*, f. φαρμακία; from φαρμακον, a medicine, or drug). The art of preparing medicines. By pharmacy is to be understood that branch of the medical art which treats of the preparation and composition of medicines. It is then perfectly distinct from therapeutics. To enter into any full detail even of the general heads of enquiry on this subject, would here be improper. But, at the same time, it is well known that the virtues of medicines are greatly affected by preparation. Hence, the general rules respecting the pharmaceutical treatment of substances employed for the purposes of medicine must be intimately connected with the general doctrines of cure. From the definition given of pharmacy, it is evident that this subject may pro-

perly be divided into two distinct parts. The first of these treats of the preparation of medicines. Under this will fall to be mentioned all those rules, by the proper observance of which medicines may be exhibited in the most commodious and efficacious form of which their nature will admit. The second treats of the composition of medicines. Under this must be comprehended the directions necessary to be observed, when different articles are to be combined together with a view of acquiring properties which they did not possess when taken singly. Preparation and composition then must necessarily be marked out as the most general heads of enquiry.

Many substances employed in medicine can be collected only at particular seasons. Some of these, if left in the state in which they are found, would in a short time either change their nature, or be entirely destroyed. Others are not only in this situation, but must be brought from distant countries, and undergo various changes of temperature. By this means they are still farther exposed, either to have their qualities altered, or to be totally destroyed. Hence an essential part of preparation consists in the means of preservation.

With a view to determine the means by which the preservation of substances may be effected, it is first necessary to investigate the causes which induce either destruction or a change of qualities. The alterations produced in substances which we would wish to prevent, most frequently depend upon the nature and proportion of some of their component parts. Thus, for example, nothing is more common than to observe an intestine motion landing in putrefaction induced by a large proportion of aqueous particles entering the composition of any substance. One means, therefore, by which

substances may be preserved is, by diminishing the quantity of these parts when in a high proportion.

This, indeed, cannot in every case be effected, without in some degree impairing the virtues of the substance. But, on the other hand, it will often be the most effectual means of heightening and concentrating virtues. Hence, in considering the means of preserving substances, the first subject of enquiry will naturally be concerning the methods of removing those parts which have a tendency to produce a change in their nature.

Fermentation and putrefaction, inducing an alteration or destruction of the qualities of medicines, are often occasioned by the action of external bodies. Water, externally applied, will frequently insinuate itself into substances employed as medicines, and produce the same effects as their native juices. The access of air is well known to be a circumstance, in a great measure, essentially necessary, before putrefaction can take place. Heat, if not altogether requisite to putrefaction, has, at least, a remarkable tendency to promote it. Cold, although in its own nature a strong antiseptic, yet when applied in an intense degree to many substances, destroys their texture, and entirely deprives them of their former qualities. Insects of different kinds, by preying upon substances, frequently produce changes of a similar nature. From all this it appears, that the action of a variety of external matters is highly adverse to preservation.

All these, however, cannot in every case be totally excluded. In many, their total exclusion would be improper. It becomes then necessary to consider how far and by what means their action may be most advantageously restrained. Under the head of preservation, therefore, a second subject of enquiry will be,

concerning the means of preventing the influence of external accidents.

In some cases, the means of preservation, which fall under the two heads of enquiry already suggested, cannot be employed. In others, all the effects which they are capable of producing will be insufficient for obtaining the end proposed. Hence it becomes necessary to have recourse to means of preservation of a different nature.

While some substances are naturally prone to putrefaction, others are known to possess remarkable powers in resisting it. In consequence of this, they are employed for preserving substances, as well for the purposes of medicine as of diet. With this intention, salts, sugar, spirits, vinegar, and many other antiseptics are in daily use. From a variety of circumstances, the propriety of employing any one of these, the proper choice of the individual to be employed, and the method of employing it, must be determined. Hence, to the two subjects of investigation which have already been pointed out under the general title of preservation, an enquiry concerning the addition of antiseptics may be added as a third. Under these three heads the general rules respecting preservation, and the means by which it can best be obtained, may be fully investigated.

Some substances can be employed for the purposes of medicine in the state in which they are presented to us by nature. But considering the great number of medicines which are in use, this may be said to be the case with a few only. By much the greatest part of them must undergo some preparation at least, before they can be conveniently exhibited in the cure of diseases. Hence, under the general head of preparation, a second subject of investigation naturally suggested, is an enquiry with regard

to the different forms in which medicines may be most advantageously employed.

The different forms in which medicines are exhibited are very numerous. This, therefore, must be a most extensive subject of enquiry. Hence proper subdivisions are here particularly necessary, abridging an investigation which would otherwise be very tedious. With this view, the different forms of medicines, according as they are intended for internal or for external use, will afford a foundation for separate subjects of enquiry.

Many of the forms of medicines which are taken internally are introduced into the stomach in a solid state. Of the various preparations which may be referred to this division, the forms of powders and pills may be esteemed the two extremes. The former is the loosest texture in which any substance is taken into the stomach, and the latter the most firm. For the proper preparation of powders, the principal requisite seems to be a minute division of parts. For that of pills, such a consistence as, while it gives a proper cohesion, is not incapable of solution in the alimentary canal. But many particulars, which are necessary to be attended to in preparation, are in common to both these forms. Besides this, from the rules and directions applicable to the extremes, many of those circumstances which deserve attention in the employment of forms of an intermediate texture, may be readily understood. Hence, a proper knowledge of the rules which are applicable to those solid forms in general, which are used internally, will supersede the necessity of many repetitions under particular forms. An enquiry, therefore, concerning the forms of medicines which are taken internally in a solid state, may be marked out as one subject of investigation.

From the subject of enquiry which has now been pointed out, another is naturally suggested. After considering the general directions respecting the forms of medicines which are to be employed internally in a solid state, it next follows that those should be treated of which respect the forms used in a fluid state.

The different modes of preparation which will fall under this head, are even more numerous than those which can be referred to the last. They may be divided into two kinds; either they are naturally fluid, or they acquire their fluidity by the application of art. Those medicines which are naturally fluid, when they are to be exhibited in the same form, in general require no preparation at all. When they do require it, they stand in need of nothing farther than being freed from extraneous matters. This must be effected on different principles, according to the nature of the substances which it is necessary to separate. Hence, though this be not a field for extensive enquiry, yet it will at least merit some attention.

Where fluidity is to be artificially acquired, it is chiefly, if not always, obtained in one of two ways; either by expression, or by the addition of fluid matters. These, therefore, naturally suggest themselves as separate heads of enquiry.

That any medicine may be a fit subject for expression, several circumstances are requisite. It is not only necessary that it contain a considerable proportion of fluid, but that this fluid be in such a state as to be capable of being detached from it without great difficulty. Besides, that in this way an efficacious remedy be obtained, it is necessary that the active powers of the medicine should reside in its fluid parts. These conditions, however, are rarely united. Hence, this is a method of preparation applicable to few substances only. Where it

can be applied, the chief thing requisite is to prevent the admixture of foreign matters. The rules and observations, therefore, which are necessary with regard to it, need not to be numerous.

The variety of preparations which may be formed by the addition of fluid matters is very great. In different medicines there are many active matters capable of being dissolved. Each of these active matters may be dissolved by different menstrua. Besides this, the medicines formed by any menstruum will be much diversified by the method in which it has been applied. The active parts of medicines which are principally capable of being dissolved are, saline, mucilaginous, oily, balsamic, and resinous matters. The menstrua which are chiefly employed are, water, spirit, wine, and vinegar. From these, by different methods of application, are formed infusions, decoctions, tinctures, and many other forms of medicines. The number of preparations, then, is a sufficient ground for concluding that the directions falling under this head must be numerous.

The efficacy of all medicines obtained by the application of fluid matters, will greatly depend upon the menstrua being properly adapted to the ingredients from which active powers are to be extracted. Thus, water is best fitted for dissolving saline and mucilaginous matters. Spirit, on the other hand, is the proper menstruum for oily, balsamic, and resinous substances. Wine and vinegar in some degree combine the solvent powers of the two other menstrua. They are often preferable to water, as covering taste, heightening colour, and giving a stronger impregnation; and to spirit, as not being so highly stimulant. Hence, directions will be necessary for determining the choice of the men-
stru-

um, by means of which any of these fluid preparations are to be formed.

From what has been said, then, it appears, that under the head now mentioned, many particulars must be comprehended. Hence, in treating of preparation, it must be looked upon as an essential subject of enquiry. With this head, the observations to be offered on the different forms of medicines which are intended for being used internally, may be concluded.

Having pointed out the enquiries necessary to be prosecuted in considering the different forms of medicines which are used internally, the only remaining branch of this subject respects the consideration of those intended for external use. The different forms of medicines which can be used in this way are indeed less numerous than those which can be referred to the preceding head. They must, however, be considered as admitting of considerable variety; and the rules applicable to the different forms intended for internal use will not apply to them. The footing, therefore, on which they require a separate consideration from the former head, is manifest. It must, however, be allowed, that many observations made with regard to the one will likewise hold good concerning the other. Hence, from a full investigation of the former head, the enquiries on this subject will be much abridged.

To the head of preparations intended for external use, are to be referred fomentations, ointments, washes, plasters, and many others. It is evident, therefore, that the division formerly pointed out is likewise naturally suggested on this subject. Hence, in treating of the medicines used externally, the forms in a solid or in a fluid state will afford a foundation for separate enquiries.

The preparation of medicines being thus considered, the only subject of enquiry now remaining respects their composition. This was formerly pointed out as one grand branch of the art of pharmacy. The advantages which are aimed at in composition are no less obvious than those which may be derived from preparation. Medicines, by being united, often entirely change their nature, and acquire active powers which none of them before possessed. Many active substances, which are of such a nature that they could not without imminent danger be exhibited by themselves, will, from a very slight addition, become safe and efficacious medicines. Where substances employed as medicines possess a very high degree of activity, they must often be used in doses so very small, that if they were to be taken entirely by themselves, they could neither be conveniently exhibited, nor accurately divided. But, from a variety of additions which will have no tendency, either to alter or impair their virtues, these inconveniences may with the greatest facility be obviated. It is then sufficiently evident, that from combining together substances employed for medical purposes, advantages may both be expected and obtained.

But it is by no means to be imagined, that composition will in every case be attended with good consequences. From the same principles on which it is sometimes of service, it will in other cases have a manifestly bad effect. That good effects may be obtained from medicines, it is on some occasions necessary that they should be employed in a very concentrated state. In such a situation, every addition will have a manifest tendency to weaken their power. Besides this, even the most active medicines will often, by a very slight and trifling addition, be rendered

totally inert. And farther, it is by no means uncommon to find two medicines which will readily unite together, and, when united, will form a very useful composition; but, upon the addition of a third, which would even have readily joined with either taken separately, the former union will not only be destroyed, but the purposes of composition entirely frustrated. It is not therefore to be imagined, that in order to obtain a safe and efficacious medicine, nothing farther is requisite than to jumble together a number of active ingredients. In order to obtain the advantages which may be derived from composition, without being exposed to the inconveniences which it may occasion, many circumstances must be attended to. An investigation of these, therefore, will readily be esteemed a subject of great importance.

The opinions which mankind, at different times, and in different countries, have entertained with regard to composition, seem to have been very opposite. This will readily appear from consulting either practical writers, or dispensatories published by authority. From an acquaintance then with the rules of composition, we will be enabled to judge of the propriety of the various compositions adopted by different writers. But, besides this, it is not to be doubted that many compositions hitherto unemployed may be introduced into practice with advantage. Hence, a knowledge of this subject becomes farther necessary, that these may be judiciously and elegantly contrived. The rules to be observed in composition will entirely respect two particulars, the possibility of combination and the advantages to be derived from it. Combination may often appear proper when, from the chemical qualities of the substances, it cannot be effected. It may often, on the

other hand, be effected with the utmost facility, when it would be entirely useless. Hence, either in examining or contriving any composition, both particulars claim attention.

The first of these is an enquiry entirely chemical. The possibility of combination, and the effects of mixture, can be determined only from an acquaintance with the properties and affinities of bodies. By means of mechanical assistances, a momentary union may, perhaps, in every case be effected. But, in many cases, particularly if the bodies thus united be in a fluid state, it will be momentary only. The advantages of composition, however, cannot be expected without a union in some degree permanent. This is only to be obtained when the matters which are mixed together are capable of being united in a state of proper solution. Hence the principles of chemistry are the sources from whence the rules of composition, in this particular, are to be entirely derived.

Being satisfied that substances are capable of union, it next becomes necessary to enquire what advantages are to be expected from it. The opinion which authors have entertained of this subject may readily be discovered from considering the different parts of which they have supposed every formula to consist. Five different parts have in general been enumerated. These have been termed, *basis*, *adjuvans*, *corrigens*, *dirigens*, and *excipiens*. By the *basis* of a composition is meant, that part by means of which the intention proposed from the prescription is principally to be answered. By the *adjuvans*, something added to the basis from which its operation may be rendered more strong than would otherwise be the case. By the *corrigens*, something added, with a view either to cover disagreeable sensible qualities, or to correct nox-

ious powers. By the *dirigens*, something determining the operation of the others articles in a particular way. And, by the *excipiens*, something intended to receive all the others, and to promote a proper union.

If these are to be considered as the proper constituent parts of a composition, the heads of enquiry on this subject are evident. But this matter may be viewed more simply. All composition seems to be intended with one of three views, either to co-operate, to correct, or to give a proper form. By considering, therefore, how far any addition will serve one or other of these purposes, the advantages to be derived from combination may be determined. Upon the whole, by prosecuting in a proper manner the different enquiries which have been pointed out, we can alone expect to attain to that elegance in prescription, which will unite agreeable simplicity with safety, convenience, and efficacy.

PHARMACOPŒIA, (*Pharmacopœia*, *a*, f. *Φαρμακοποιμα*, from *φαρμακον*, a medicine, and *ποιμα*, to make). The book that contains directions for preparing medicines.

PHARYNX, (*Pharynx, ingis*, *Φαρυγξ* από τῆς *Φερεν*, because it conveys the food into the stomach). The muscular bag at the back part of the mouth. It is shaped like a funnel; adheres to the fauces behind the larynx, and terminates in the œsophagus. Its use is to receive the masticated food, and to convey it into the œsophagus.

PHASEOLUS VULGARIS, (*Phaseolus*, *i*, m. *Φασολος*, from *Φασηλος*, a little ship or galliot, which its pods were supposed to resemble). The systematic name of the kidney-bean. See *Bean*, *kidney*.

PELLANDRIUM AQUATICUM: (*Pellandrium*, *i*, n. *Φελλανδριον*, from *φελλον*, the cork-tree, and *αιδριος*, male, so called because it floats upon

the water like cork). The systematic name of the water fennel. See *Feniculum aquaticum*.

PHIMOSIS, (*Phimosis*, is, f. *Φιμωσις*, from *Φιμω*, to bind up). The prepuce is formed by a continuation of the skin of the penis, which serves to cover the glands when the penis is not erected, and to allow for the time extension of the penis when erected; at which time, this portion of the skin that formed the prepuce does not cover the glands, but falls back upon the penis, and serves to cover part of that. The phimosis is a constriction or straitness of the extremity of the prepuce, which, preventing the glans from being uncovered, is often the occasion of many troublesome complaints. It may arise from different causes, both in children and grown persons. Children have naturally the prepuce very long; and as it exceeds the extremity of the glans, and is not liable to be distended, it is apt to contract its orifice. This often occasions a lodgement of a small quantity of urine between that and the glans, which, if it grows corrosive, may irritate the parts so as to produce an inflammation. In this case, the extremity of the prepuce becomes more contracted, and consequently the urine more confined. Hence the whole inside of the prepuce excoriates and suppurates; the end of it grows thick and swells, and in some months become callous. At other times it does not grow thick, but becomes so strait and contracted as hardly to allow the introduction of a probe. The only way to remove this disorder is by an operation. A phimosis may affect grown persons from the same cause as little children; though there are some grown persons who cannot uncover their glans, or at least not without pain, and yet have not the extremity of the prepuce so contracted as to confine the urine from passing, we notwithstanding

find them sometimes troubled with a phimosis, which might be suspected to arise from a venereal taint, but has, in reality, a much more innocent cause. There are, we know, sebaceous glands situated in the prepuce, round the corona, which secrete an unctuous humour, which sometimes becomes acrimonious, irritates the skin that covers the glans, and the irritation extending to the internal membrane of the prepuce, they both become inflamed, and yield a purulent serum, which cannot be discharged, because the glans is swelled, and the orifice of the prepuce contracted. We find also some grown up persons, who, though they never uncovered the glans, have been subject to phimosis from a venereal cause. In some, it is owing to gonorrhœa, where the matter lodged between the prepuce and the glans occasioned the same excoriation as the discharge before mentioned from the sebaceous glands. In others, it proceeds from venereal chancres on the prepuce, the glans, or the frænum; which producing an inflammation either on the prepuce or glans, or both, the extremity of the foreskin contracts, and prevents the discharge of the matter. The parts in a very little time are greatly tumified, and sometimes a gangrene comes on in less than two days.

PHLEBOTOMY, (*Phlebotomia*, *a*, f. *φλεβοτομία*, from *φλεψ*, a vein, and *τεμνω*, to cut). The opening of a vein.

PHLEGM, (*Phlegma*, *atis*, n. *φlegμα*, from *φlegω*, to burn or to excite). In chemistry it means water, but, in the common acceptance of the word, it is a thick and tenacious mucus secreted in the lungs.

PHLEGMASIA, (*Phlegmasia*, *a*, f. *φλεγμασία*, from *φlegω*, to burn). An inflammation.

PHLEGMASIA DOLENS. This disease principally affects women in the puerperal state; in a few instances

it has been observed to attack pregnant women; and, in one or two cases, nurses, on losing their children, have been affected by it. Women of all descriptions are liable to be attacked by it during and soon after childbed: But those whose limbs have been pained or anasarctous during pregnancy, and who do not suckle their offspring, are more especially subject to it. It has rarely occurred oftener than once to the same female. It supervenes to easy and natural, as well as to difficult and preternatural births. It sometimes makes its appearance in 24 or 48 hours after delivery, and at other times not till a month or six weeks after; but, in general, the attack takes place from the 10th to the 16th day of the lying in. It has, in many instances, attacked women who were recovering from puerperal fever; and, in some cases, has supervened, or succeeded, to thoracic inflammation. It not uncommonly begins with coldness and rigors; these are succeeded by heat, thirst, and other symptoms of pyrexia; and then pain, stiffness, and other symptoms of topical inflammation supervene. Sometimes the local affection is from the first accompanied with, but is not preceded by febrile symptoms. Upon other occasions, the topical affection is neither preceded by puerperal fever, nor rigors, &c.; but soon after it has taken place, the pulse becomes more frequent, the heat of the body is increased, and the patient is affected with thirst, headach, &c. The pyrexia is very various in degree in different patients, and sometimes assumes an irregular remittent, or inter-mittent type. The complaint generally takes place on one side only at first, and the part where it commences is various; but it most commonly begins in the lumbar, hypogastric, or inguinal region, on one side, or in the hip, or top of the

thigh, and corresponding labium pudendi. In this case the patient first perceives a sense of pain, weight and stiffness in some of the above-mentioned parts, which are increased by every attempt to move the pelvis or lower limb. If the part be carefully examined it generally is found rather fuller or hotter than natural, and tender to the touch, but not discoloured. The pain increases, always becomes very severe, and in some cases is of the most excruciating kind. It extends along the thigh, and when it has subsisted for some time longer or shorter in different patients, the top of the thigh and the labium pudendi become greatly swelled, and the pain is then sometimes alleviated, but accompanied with a greater sense of distention. The pain next extends down to the knee, and is generally the most severe on the inside and back of the thigh, in the direction of the internal cutaneous and the crural nerves; when it has continued for some time, the whole of the thigh becomes swelled, and the pain is somewhat relieved. The pain then extends down the leg to the foot, and is commonly the most severe in the direction of the posterior tibial nerve; after some time the parts last attacked begins to swell, and the pain abates in violence, but is still very considerable, especially on any attempt to move the limb. The extremity, being now swelled throughout its whole extent, appears perfectly, or nearly uniform, and it is not perceptibly lessened by an horizontal position, like an œdematose limb. It is of the natural colour, or even whiter is hotter than natural; excessively tense, and exquisitely tender when touched. When pressed by the finger in different parts it is found to be elastic, little, if any, impression remaining, and that only for a very short time. If a puncture or incision

be made into the limb, in some instances no fluid is discharged; in others a small quantity only issues out, which coagulates soon after; and in others a larger quantity of fluid escapes, which does not coagulate; but the whole of the effused matter cannot be drawn off in this way. The swelling of the limb varies both in degree, and in the space of time requisite for its full formation. In most instances it arrives at double the natural size, and in some cases at a much greater. In lax habits, and in patients whose legs have been very much affected with anasarca during pregnancy, the swelling takes place more rapidly than in those who are differently circumstanced, it sometimes arrives in the former class of patients, at its greatest extent in 24 hours, or less, from the first attack.

Instead of beginning invariably at the upper part of the limb, and descending to the lower, this complaint has been known to begin in the foot, the middle of the leg, the ham, and the knee. In whichever of these parts it happens to begin, it is generally soon diffused over the whole of the limb, and, when this has taken place, the limb presents the same phenomena, exactly, that have been stated above, as observable when the inguen, &c. are first affected.

After some days, generally from two to eight, the febrile symptoms diminish, and the swelling, heat, tension, weight, and tenderness of the lower extremity begin to abate, first about the upper part of the thigh, or about the knee, and afterwards in the leg and foot. Some inequalities are found in the limb, which, at first, feel like indurated glands, but, upon being more nicely examined, their edges are not so well defined as those of conglobate glands; and they appear to be occasioned by the effused matter being of different degrees of consistence in different points. The

conglobate glands of the thigh and leg are sometimes felt distinctly, and are tender to the touch, but are seldom materially enlarged; and as the swelling subsides, it has happened, that an enlargement of the lymphatic vessels in some part of the limb has been felt, or been supposed to be felt.

The febrile symptoms having gradually disappeared, the pain and tenderness of the limb being much relieved, and the swelling and tension being considerably diminished, the patient is debilitated and much reduced, and the limb feels stiff, heavy, benumbed, and weak. When the finger is pressed strongly against it for some time in different points, it is found to be less elastic than at first, in some places retaining the impression of the finger for a longer, in other places for a shorter time, or scarcely at all. And, if the limb be suffered to hang down, or if the patient walk much, it is found to be more swelled in the evening, and assumes more of an œdematose appearance. In this state the limb continues for a longer or shorter time, and is commonly at length reduced wholly, or nearly to the natural size.

Hitherto the disease has been described as affecting only one of the inferior extremities, and as terminating by resolution, or the effusion of a fluid that is removed by the absorbents; but, unfortunately, it sometimes happens, that after it abates in one limb, the other is attacked in a similar way. It also happens, in some cases, that the swelling is not terminated by resolution; for sometimes a *suppuration* takes place in one or both legs, and ulcers are formed which are difficult to heal. In a few cases a gangrene has supervened. In some instances the patient has been destroyed by the violence of the disease, before either suppuration or gangrene have happened.

The *predisposing causes* of this disease, when it occurs during the pregnant or puerperal state, or in a short time afterwards, appeared to be: 1st, *The increased irritability and disposition to inflammation which prevail during pregnancy, and in a still higher degree for some time after parturition.* 2dly, *The over-distended, or relaxed state of the blood-vessels of the inferior part of the trunk and of the lower extremities, produced during the latter months of utero-gestation.*

Amongst the *exciting causes* of this disease may be enumerated: 1st, *Contusions*, or violent exertions of the lower portions of the abdominal and other muscles inserted in the pelvis or thighs, or of the muscles of the inferior extremities, and contusions of the cellular texture connected with these muscles during a tedious labour. 2dly, *The application of cold and moisture*, which are known to act very powerfully upon every system in changing the natural distribution of the circulating fluids, and, consequently, in a system predisposed by parturition, may assist in producing the disease, by occasioning the fluids to be impelled in unusual quantity into the weakened vessels of the lumbar, hypogastric, and inguinal regions, and of the inferior extremities. 3dly, *Suppression*, or diminution of the lochia, and of the secretion of milk, which, by inducing a plethoric state of the sanguiferous system, may occasion an inflammatory diathesis, may favour congestion, and the determination of an unusual quantity of blood to the vessels of the parts just mentioned, and thus contribute to the production of an inflammation of these parts. 4thly, *Food taken in too large quantity, and of a too stimulating quality*, especially when the patient does not give suck. This cause both favours the production of plethora, and stimulates the heart and arteries to more frequent

and violent action; the effects of which may be expected to be particularly felt in the lumbar, hypogastric, or inguinal regions, and in the lower extremities, from the state of their blood-vessels. 5thly, *Standing, or walking too much*, before the arteries and veins of the lower half of the body have recovered sufficiently from the effects of the distention, which existed during the latter months of pregnancy. This must necessarily occasion too great a determination of blood to these parts, and consequently too great a congestion in them; whence they will be more stimulating than the upper parts of the body, and inflammation will sometimes be excited in them.

From an attentive consideration of the whole of the phenomena observable in this disease, and of its remote causes and cure, no doubt remains, Dr. Hull thinks, that *the proximate cause consists in an inflammatory affection, producing suddenly a considerable effusion of serum and coagulating lymph from the exhalants into the cellular membrane of the limb.*

PHLEGMASIÆ. Inflammations. The second order in the class *pyrexia* of Cullen's nosological arrangement, characterized by pyrexia, with topical pain and inflammation; the blood after venesection exhibiting a buffy coat.

PHLEGMON, (*Phlegmone*, *es*, *φλεγμονή*, from *φλεγω*, to burn). An inflammation of a bright red colour, with a throbbing and pointed tumour tending to suppuration. A species of *phlogosis* of Cullen.

PHLOGISTIC SYSTEM. Becher was the first chemist who adopted a separate principle of inflammability, by which he explained, not only the action of fire, and the combustion of bodies, but many of the most remarkable phenomena in chemistry at that time known. He considered it as an element, and, like his two

others, of the nature of earth; for which reason he termed it his second or inflammable earth. Stahl determined this notion of the inflammable principle more accurately, and gave it the name of *phlogiston*. But he differed from the opinion of his tutor, with respect to the nature of this substance, which he asserted to be a sulphureous principle. According to him, it exists in all the bodies of the three kingdoms, in a greater or less proportion, water, simple earths, and salts excepted.

It is phlogiston alone that constitutes the combustible part in inflammable bodies, or, in the words of Stahl, "*est solum ad ignis motum accommodatum, creatum et aptum; est ignis corporens, vel ipsa præcise propria materies ignis.*" Phlogiston nevertheless does not itself, without being combined with other bodies, form fire, "*sed avolat et dissipatur in tenuitate insensibili, sive facit dumtaxat ignem valde expansum et inconspicuum, scilicet calorem;*" but, also, this volatilization and dissipation cannot take place without the access of other matter, especially water and air.

After phlogiston has combined in a greater or less proportion with the other natural bodies, it changes their external, and, chiefly, their chemical properties. Its action is most conspicuous upon metals, sulphur, colours, and odoriferous substances.

But, when chemistry became enriched with a multitude of new facts, it was found that Stahl's established theory of phlogiston could not explain every phenomenon. Chemists, therefore, endeavoured to render it more definite, and, at the same time, more general in its application. But in these definitions we observe the utmost disagreement; and almost every author differs on this subject. By way of example, we will state the following opinions, which are most remarkable.

Baumé believed that phlogiston consisted of the matter of fire, combined with an elementary earth. Macquer considered it to be the matter of light in a fixed state. Scheele maintained it was a constituent part of the matter of heat, which, he said, consisted of phlogiston and vital air. Scopoli and Volta, to form their phlogiston, combined carbonic acid and matter of heat. Kirwan and Lavoisier believed it to be an element different from the matter of heat, and to constitute the basis of inflammable air. Werntrumb held it to be a constituent part of water, which, in his opinion, is formed by the combination of phlogiston and vital air. Lastly, phlogiston, according to Gren, is composed of the matter of light and of the matter of heat. This philosopher maintains, moreover, the singular notion adopted by the ancient chemists, that phlogiston is not only destitute of gravity, but that it even possesses a negative weight, that is, it diminishes the absolute weight of bodies by its combination.

Since, therefore, the opinions respecting the properties and composition of phlogiston differed from each other, it necessarily follows, that the theories, and the mode of explaining the nature of chemical phenomena, being founded upon those opinions, were equally different; and, accordingly, we find that each sect of phlogistic philosophers had its own theory of chemistry. Hence, to give a perfect idea of the doctrine of phlogiston, it would be necessary to enter into the merits of at least six or eight hundred different theories; but, as this is by far too extensive for our plan, we will briefly state the points upon which almost all the phlogistians agree.

All the pure metallic calces are simple bodies, which, by combination with phlogiston, enter into the

metallic state. The calcination of metals in the fire, happens solely in consequence of the volatilization and combination of phlogiston with the air, or a part of it, whence the calx of metal remains in a pure state. But if the calx of a metal be treated in the fire with combustible bodies, the calx, in that case, combines with the phlogiston of the combustible body, and returns to the state of metal.

When metals are dissolved in acids, the acid deprives the metal of its phlogiston. If a metal be then precipitated from its solution by means of a body which contains no phlogiston, alkaline salts for instance, in this case the metal falls down in the state of calx. But if the precipitating body can afford its phlogiston to the metals, a metallic precipitate will be obtained, for instance, when one metal is precipitated by another.

The augmentation of absolute weight, during the calcination of metals, and the loss of such weight during their reduction, is either not explained at all, or accounted for from the specific levity of the phlogiston. Some phlogistians admit that metals, during their calcination, absorb vital air, and others believe that the augmentation of weight is owing to the water which arises from the combination of vital air and phlogiston, and adheres to the calx.

Some of the older phlogistians asserted that the noble metals were not susceptible of a true calcination, and that the earthy form which they assumed was a mere external change. Most of the modern phlogistians grant, however, that those metals may be calcined, and account for their reduction by fire alone, and, without the addition of any combustible body, by saying, that phlogiston can penetrate through red hot vessels, or otherwise, from the peculiar idea which they entertain of phlogiston.

Acids, according to the phlogistic philosophers, are simple bodies. In

their purest state, and freed from all phlogiston, they term them dephlogisticated acids; when combined with a greater or less quantity of phlogiston, phlogisticated acids, when combined with a greater or less quantity of phlogiston, phlogisticated acids; and, completely saturated with phlogiston, they form various substances, which no longer possess acid properties.

According to them, the perfect acid of sulphur, or the sulphuric acid, is the purest; combined with more phlogiston it forms phlogisticated acid of sulphur, or the volatile spirit of sulphur, and when perfectly saturated with phlogiston, it constitutes sulphur. If sulphur be burnt in open vessels, its phlogiston combines partly with the air, and is carried off, and phlogisticated acid of sulphur remains. If metals be dissolved in concentrated acid of sulphur, the phlogiston of the metal combines with the acid of sulphur, and comes over as volatile acid of sulphur, or remains in the state of sulphur. The formation of inflammable gaz, during the solution of metals in diluted acid of sulphur, can only be explained by a forced and hypothetical mode of reasoning, from the singular opinions respecting the nature of phlogiston and of inflammable gaz; nor does the theory of phlogiston give a satisfactory reason for the augmentation of weight during the combustion of sulphur.

The perfect acid of nitre, or the nitric acid, is the dephlogisticated acid of nitre of the phlogistians, which, combined more or less with phlogiston, forms the phlogisticated acid of nitre, or the fuming spirit of nitre, and, saturated with phlogiston, the nitrous gaz. If nitrous gaz come, therefore, into contact with vital air, it parts with some of its phlogiston, and returns to the state of phlogisticated acid of nitre. During the solution of metals in this acid, the phlogiston of the former combines

with part of the latter, and passes off as nitrous gas. Upon the same principle, all combustible bodies communicate to the nitric acid some of their phlogiston, and render it phlogisticated.

The common or imperfect muriatic acid, is the phlogisticated acid of salt of the phlogistic philosophers, which, when deprived of its phlogiston, becomes dephlogisticated, that is, oxygenated muriatic acid. Some of those philosophers, to save their theory, say, that the oxygenated muriatic acid is a peculiar compound liquid.

The phosphoric acid is a simple body, which, when combined with phlogiston, forms volatile acid of phosphorus, and, saturated with it, phosphorus itself. According to some phlogisticians, the phosphoric air, or phosphorated hydrogen gas, consists of phosphorus, phlogiston, caloric, and water.

Sugar consists of acid of sugar and phlogiston. The arsenic acid is arsenic deprived of its phlogiston. Thus, by analogy they conclude about all the other acids; though, with respect to the vegetable and animal acids, the opinions of the different sects of phlogisticians be very different.

Vital air is, according to some, a simple body, that is, air in the purest state; according to others, it consists of caloric and water. In both cases, they say, that, in combination with phlogiston, it forms phlogisticated air, that is, azotic gas. They assert that inflammable air is highly compound, and differs according to its origin. Kirwan believed that it was composed of phlogiston and caloric.

Carbon consists of aerial acid, phlogiston, and the fixed incombustible parts. Hence, if carbon be burnt, the phlogiston and aerial acid escape, and the earths, metals, and fixed salts remain.

Phlogiston forms a principal part of all organized bodies, which are, therefore, combustible. Some of them contain it in abundance, as oils and fat. Phlogiston is the cause of the odour and colour of plants, and acts a principal part in the animal economy, since, by its solution in the blood, or its deficiency, it produces various diseases.

According to the phlogisticians, the whole utility of respiration consists in its carrying off from the body the superabundant phlogiston. The blood, during its circulation, becomes impregnated with the superabundant phlogiston, liberated in consequence of the different functions of life, and, being charged with it, returns to the lungs. The vital air, or oxygen gas, which is inspired, now separates this phlogiston from the blood, and, according to some, also, the carbonic acid, likewise produced in the blood. The blood, thus purified, is then diffused by the arteries into the body, to attract a new portion of phlogiston.

In a similar manner, they endeavour, in their phlogistic system, to account for most of the other phenomena in chemistry, to which the loose and indefinite theory of phlogiston afforded great facility. But the futility of most of these explanations is manifest, as soon as we insist upon a strict conformity with the established principles of the mutual action of bodies upon each other, and demand an exact account of the weight and measure of the bodies made use of in experiments. There are many things in nature which we cannot explain, and which will always remain obscure. It is therefore unreasonable to reject a system because it is unable to remove the veil which hides the cause of many appearances. The anti-phlogisticians do not indeed arrogate to themselves this merit; but their system deserves

the preference which is granted to it by almost all the naturalists of the present age, since it explains most of the phenomena explicitly, uniformly, and with the minutest circumstances, appears more conformable to the simple path of nature, and draws all inferences from matters of fact, without requiring the aid of subtle arguments.

PHLOGISTON, (*Phlogiston*, *i*, *n*. *φλογιστος*, from *φλογίζω*, to burn). The inflammable principle. Staal gave this term to a principle, which he imagined was pure fire, or the matter of fire fixed in combustible bodies, in order to distinguish it from fire in action, or in a state of liberty.

PHLOGŌSIS, (*Phlogosis*, *is*, *f*. *φλογωσις*, from *φλογω*, to inflame). See *Inflammation*.

PHLYCTÆNÆ, (*Phlyctæna*, *æ*, *f*. *φλυκταιναι*, small bladders). Small pellucid vesicles, that contain a serous fluid.

PHLYZACIUM, (*Phlyzadium*, *i*, *n*. *φλυζακιον*, from *φλυζω*, to be hot). A pustule on the skin excited by fire or heat. See *Pustule*.

PHŒNIX DACTYLIFĒRA, (*Phœnix*, *icis*, *f*. *φαινίξ*, from *Phœnicia*, its native soil). The systematic name of the date-tree. See *Dactylus*.

PHOSPHATS, (*Phosphas*, *tis*, *m*. from *phosphorus*). Salts formed by the union of the phosphoric acid with different bases; thus, *phosphat of ammoniac*, *phosphat of lime*, &c.

PHOSPHITES, (*Phosphis*, *tis*, *m*.). Salts formed by the combination of the phosphorous acid with different bases; thus, *aluminous phosphite*, *ammoniacal phosphite*, &c.

PHOSPHORIC ACID. *Acidum phosphoricum*. This acid may be obtained from bones, in the following manner. Three parts of diluted sulphuric acid are to be effused upon four parts of pulverized ashes of bones, while continually stirred. By this means the

sulphuric acid combines with the calcareous earth, and disengages the phosphoric acid. The mass is then to be repeatedly washed in water, and the lie slowly evaporated: the sulphate of lime, which still adheres, will be thus gradually expelled; and at last phosphoric acid, in a dry and vitreous form, will be obtained.

PHOSPHŌRUS, (*Phosphorus*, *i*, *m*. *φωσφορος*, from *φως*, light, and *φορεω*, to carry). One of the most combustible substances we are acquainted with. It was originally obtained from urine; but the substance which affords it in the greatest quantity is the ammoniacal phosphat. When pure it is transparent, and of a consistence resembling that of wax: it crystallizes by cooling, in laminæ, which are brilliant, and, as it were, micacious; it melts in hot water long before the fluid becomes boiling hot; it is very volatile, and, by a gentle heat, rises and comes over in the form of a thick fluid. When in contact with air, it emits a fume from every part of its surface; and this vapour, which smells strongly like garlick, appears white in the daytime, but is very luminous in the dark.

The earliest account we have concerning the medicinal use of phosphorus, is in the seventh volume of Haller's Collection of Theses, relating to the history and cure of diseases. The original dissertation is entitled, *De Phosphori Loco Medicamenti adsumpti virtute medica, aliquot casibus singularibus confirmata*, *Auctore J. Gabi Mentz*. There are three cases of singular cures performed by means of phosphorus narrated in this thesis; but as the work is in the library of many medical men in this country, it is not deemed necessary to translate those cases fully. It may be proper to premise, however, that the history of these cases and cures was sent to Dr. Gabi Mentz by his father.

The first history is of a man who

laboured under a putrid fever; for whom the best alexipharmic medicines, as they are called, together with a proper regimen, were prescribed. A diarrhœa, however, ensued, accompanied with great anxiety about the præcordia, delirium, and general prostration of the powers of life. Proper remedies were tried to stop the diarrhœa, and check the disease, but in vain. For three days the patient had been insensible and exhausted. In this extremity, the physician had recourse to phosphorus; two grains of which were exhibited, together with a sufficient quantity of theriaca to make them into a bolus. This occasioned a gentle sweat, and general quiet. The dose was twice repeated in the evening, and again towards morning, with the addition of another grain. The sweat became copious, and the memory and the use of the external senses were restored. The patient, thus revived, was afterwards completely re-established by other remedies.

The second case, is that of a man who laboured under a bilious fever. Although various remedies appear to have been judiciously employed, yet the disease gained ground, until at last the patient was almost quite exhausted. Three grains of phosphorus were exhibited at eleven o'clock in the forenoon, which produced a little quiet; but the patient became so thirsty that he could not refrain from drinking. After this he was quiet for two hours, and a profuse sweat broke out all over his body. The physician seeing this, ordered him another dose in the evening. He slept and perspired the whole evening, and, by means of proper remedies, was afterwards completely cured.

The third case is entitled, A malignant catarrhal Fever, with Petechia. It seems to have been the common *typhus putridus* of Cullen, accompanied with cough and catarrhal symptoms in the

beginning. We are informed, that on the third day of the disease the patient was deprived of the use of his external senses; that he became delirious, and exceedingly exhausted. Two grains of phosphorus were given to him at two o'clock, and two more in the evening, which restored him to his senses, and occasioned a copious sweat. Proper remedies were afterwards employed, which accomplished his recovery.

Dr. Mentz appears to have been one of the first practitioners who tried this heroic remedy internally. Dr. Morgenstern and Dr. Hatman seem both to have afterwards employed it.

The following twelve cases, relating to this interesting subject, are translated from a thesis which is very little known in this country. It is the inaugural dissertation of one Dr. Wolff, who graduated at Gottingen in the year 1791; and who states, that the cases are extracted from the private diary of his father, a physician of eminence in Poland, who practised physic with great success and reputation for upwards of thirty years.

CASE I. In the month of August 1763, I was called to a woman twenty-five years old, whom I found in a state of low delirium. Her pulse was small, weak, and tremulous, almost vanishing, as it were, under the finger. Her whole chest and arms were disfigured with livid spots. Her neighbours and attendants informed me, that she had been seized with a fever about eleven days before I saw her; and that she had been attended by some ignorant practitioner, who, finding that his remedies did not succeed, had deserted her the day before, declaring that God alone could cure her.

The case appeared to me one of those desperate states of disease, in which a practitioner either ought to refrain from doing any thing, or to make trial of some new, bold, and

powerful remedy, which might act as an uncommon stimulus to the nerves, and rouse their suppressed energy. Such a remedy I expected to find in phosphorus; and accordingly I ordered my patient five drops of its solution, in æther, which contained three grains of the phosphorus. They were exhibited in a spoonful of Rhenish wine, and the patient swallowed a few cupfulls of an infusion of the flores tilix after them. I visited the patient three hours afterwards, and, not finding any change, I repeated the dose. Two hours were scarce elapsed when the pulse began to rise, and the whole body to be diffused with an equal heat; immediately afterwards the pulse became undulatory, a breathing sweat (*sudor halituosus*) broke out, and at the same time the delirium subsided.

I exhibited a third dose at the end of sixteen hours; a number of red spots then appeared on the skin, and the patient complained very much of a sense of oppression and pain at the præcordia and in the abdomen. These symptoms I endeavoured to allay by diluents and frequent emollient glysters, which brought away a great quantity of foul fæces. The Peruvian bark completed the cure.

CASE II. A young woman, twenty-two years of age, was, for the first time delivered of a healthy child. She recovered perfectly well for the first nine days; but being then greatly frightened by some sudden noise in the house, she was seized with a chilly fit, afterwards with flushes of heat, and soon became delirious. I was called to her on the third day, after various remedies had been tried in vain by another physician. Finding that she had a hard pulse, with great oppression in her chest, and a foul tongue, I ordered her to be blooded, to take a solution of Glauber's salts, and to receive some anti-phlogistic and emollient glysters.

The other physician strongly opposed this advice, contending strenuously for his heating diaphoretic plan; and I therefore returned home. He continued to administer his alexipharmics and cardiac remedies to the unhappy patient. Three days elapsed before I heard any thing of her; but some of her friends then waited on me, entreating me with great earnestness to visit her, as her physician had deserted her, declaring that it was impossible for any one to save her.

I found her with a tremulous intermittent pulse, cold extremities, and wandering in her intellects. Of the solution of phosphorus I immediately gave her five drops, in a little Rhenish wine; and, in about two hours after, an equal degree of heat diffused itself over her body, and her senses returned. Upon repeating the dose, a sweat broke out, which relieved her so much, that I afterwards could proceed with the proper remedies for the further cure of the complaint.

CASE III. A young man, twenty-two years old, was seized with a putrido-gastric fever, which was accompanied with a white miliary eruption. On the seventh day of the disease, while under the influence of a profuse sweat, he was taken from his bed, at his own desire, and had his linen changed. An hour had scarcely elapsed, when he was seized with great anxiety, the miliary eruption almost totally disappeared, and he began to grow delirious. Being called to him, I gave him the solution of phosphorus, with an infusion of elder flowers and Rhenish wine. In about an hour afterwards the sweat and eruption returned, and he was snatched from the jaws of death.

CASE IV. A youth, sixteen years old, was seized with a putrid fever, on the seventh day of which he was affected with diarrhœa of so severe a kind, that he had forty-eight

stools in the course of a day. Being sent for the day after, I found him with an hippocratic countenance and subsultus tendinum. Having exhibited the phosphorus twice to him, a general breathing sweat broke out, and the diarrhoea subsided. Afterwards proper remedies were exhibited, and he was restored to health in fifteen days.

Seven cases. During the years 1770 and 1771, while the war was carried on upon the borders of our remotest provinces between the Turks and Russians, a putrid fever took its rise in the camps, and spread itself to us. It was then that I ordered this divine remedy, with the happiest effect, to seven sick who laboured under the putrid fever, some of whom had eruptions, with great prostration of strength.

CASE XII. A young lady of quality, twenty-five years old, endowed with such an exquisite degree of nervous sensibility, that she used frequently to be affected with spasms and convulsive motions without any apparent cause, became pregnant in the year 1774, which was the seventh of her marriage. On the third day preceding delivery, she was seized with a disease which might be justly said to be somewhat between catalepsy and coma vigil. She lay stretched out upon her back, her eyes open and fixed, her legs and arms were quite flexible, and remained in any posture in which they were put; her pulse and respiration were entirely natural, and she swallowed whatever fluid was put into her mouth.

After she had remained three days in this state, she was delivered of a dead child, which, from the marks of putrefescency on its body, must have died some days before.

Evacuations carefully employed, antispasmodic and nervous remedies exhibited, both by the mouth and

anus, embrocations and liniments, produced such a salutary change, that in fifteen days the patient was able to leave her bed, and the greatest hope was therefore entertained of her complete recovery. But, on the twenty-eighth day after delivery, when I went again to visit my patient, (who lived at a considerable distance from me), I found her complaining of rigour and chilliness of the inferior extremities, her pulse was frequent and small, and her face was more flushed than usual. Frictions, glysters, the pediluvium, and antispasmodics were all tried, but without producing any favourable event, and, towards the middle of the night, she became totally rigid; yet she had complete possession of her mind, although all the external senses, the sight excepted, were abolished. I gave to her three drops of the solution of phosphorus in a spoonful of wine. Scarcely had an hour elapsed when a warm sweat broke out, and, together with it, a white miliary eruption. Afterwards other remedies were exhibited which effected her recovery.

Such are the cases related by Dr. Wolff, which it is presumed will be found sufficiently interesting to awaken and arrest the attention of the practitioners of this country. A medicine of greater powers cannot be named, if the facts which have been related are correctly true. Little doubt can be entertained that many trials will soon be made with it in this country; but it is to be hoped they will be made with caution, and under as favourable circumstances for the reception of such a powerful stimulus as the nature of the diseases in which it is to be given will admit of. The following particulars concerning this subtle remedy, will serve as a salutary caution against the too free exhibition of it in the time of making experiments.

The dangerous consequences which

are likely to follow the injudicious administration of phosphorus, cannot be impressed on the mind more strongly, than by the relation of a few cases and experiments which are mentioned by Wackard, in the fourth part of his miscellaneous writings, (*Vermischte Medicinische Schrifften*, von M. A. Wackard). These cases and experiments I literally translated from the original German; a work from which the medical practitioner may reap much information, being replete with practical remarks made by a very attentive and accurate observer.

A Jew, of a phlegmatic habit, was struck with apoplexy. He was speechless and lame, and could not void his fæces except he was assisted by art; his appetite, however was good. Mineral baths and many remedies were tried to restore him, but in vain. I was at last tempted to make a trial of phosphorus. At first, from two to three grains were given to him, and it was my intention to have increased the dose to five or six. The first dose was given in a conserve, but the following day in honey. His excrements were luminous. Suddenly, about the middle of the third night, he was seized with violent vomiting, during which he was very ill; but after the vomiting had ceased he found himself better. The pulse was small and quick. I did not venture to give any more phosphorus, particularly as his relations were afraid of it. A blister was applied, and cooling and demulcent drinks were exhibited. He looked very ill, seemed quite exhausted, and appeared to suffer pain in the abdomen, which was a little tumefied. He took some nourishment every day; but what he ate was very small in quantity. The vomiting ceased entirely. He lived four days longer, and died. I did not see him the day when that event

happened; but he had all the symptoms of having died of gangrene. There were even externally, according to the report of the surgeon, many large gangrenous spots. This case caused me a great deal of uneasiness. The patient could not speak for some time before his death, and could not therefore describe his sufferings.

Almost about the same time that Professor Zefsler exhibited the phosphorus to his two patients, the intelligence was communicated to a man who had a tendency to apoplexy and to palsy. He had read in Mellin's *Materia Medica* all that was said in praise of phosphorus, and he was in consequence desirous of making trial of it; but, before he began to take it, he was seized with a kind of apoplectic fit, in which he lay as if deprived of all power. He caused three grains of phosphorus to be rubbed with a little oil, and to be given to him; he took his dose morning and evening. It seemed to revive him, for he got up and walked about the house. He continued to take this medicine several days, upon which he became feverish, and was effected with nausea and loss of appetite. A gentle emetic was given him. Two days after this I saw him for the first time; he told me that he had been violently affected with pain in the abdomen, particularly towards the evening. He was very dry, and his eyes were yellow. When I pressed my hand on the abdomen it did not give him pain. I ordered him whey, nitre, acid drinks, cream of tartar, and glysters. The third day after this he grew worse. I happened to be out of town, and another physician was sent for, who gave him musk, and various other remedies. I visited him in the evening, and found him gangrenous. His hands were applied to his head, as if he suffered acute

pain there; his screams were loud and unremitting; he was delirious, and spoke unintelligibly, and there was not any pulse at the wrist. He died about midnight. Upon inspecting the body, the liver appeared obstructed, and the stomach was gangrenous near the cardia. Is it not to be feared that the phosphorus had occasioned this? or was this the effect of a gouty or rheumatic acrimony thrown upon that part? It was afterwards remarked that a number of people were seized at this time with vomiting and violent pains in the bowels, and also with the iliac passion. Two months were scarcely elapsed when I met with a case in which all the circumstances of the complaint were similar to those narrated in the above-mentioned case, but where the patient had not swallowed a single grain of phosphorus.

The following are some experiments which Dr. Weickard made with phosphorus on dogs.

"It is now," he observes, "upwards of a year since six grains of phosphorus were offered to a hungry dog. The phosphorus was inclosed in a piece of meat; the dog smelt it, and refused to take it; it was therefore forced down his throat. He immediately began to run about the room, exhibiting much anxiety, and seemed desirous to go out. He grew sick, and vomited the bolus, which seemed to be on fire; upon this the dog again appeared impatient to get out. The smell of the phosphorus, however, ceased to be emitted by the vomited matter. The dog smelt it again, and ate it. He immediately became extremely lively, springing quickly from one table to another. The experiments ought to have stopped here; but some one brought another piece of meat, in which there were eight grains of phosphorus inclosed. This was also forced down the dog's

throat, and he again vomited it on fire; he did not, however, exhibit the same anxiety to leave the room which he had done the first time, but waited patiently until the disagreeable fœtor which arose and filled the apartment had escaped from his morsel, after which he ate it greedily. His inclination to leap and run about was now uncommonly great; nothing was too high or too distant for him; but as we were afraid he might do some injury by this kind of exercise, he was dismissed the apartment. He again vomited once or twice; but since that time has remained perfectly well."

Such are the principal facts related by Weickard. We now come to the latest publication on the subject of phosphorus. It is a letter on its medicinal virtues by M. Alphonso Leroi, and is printed in the only volume of *Memoirs* which the Society of Emulation at Paris has yet published. One of the first experiments which M. Leroi made was upon himself; he swallowed three grains of phosphorus with some theriaca. It is a wonder, he says, that he was not killed by it; for phosphorus does not require more air than is commonly contained in the stomach, in order to take fire, and burn in such a manner as to have eaten through that organ. "For two hours," the Professor observes, "I found myself extraordinarily incommoded. I drank frequently little draughts of cold water. After some hours had elapsed the uneasiness ceased. My urine was high coloured; but the following day my muscular force was doubled, and I felt an insupportable venereal irritation. I afterwards gave this remedy to the young man whose case is related in the *Gazette de Santé*, for the 29th of August 1779. It was truly owing to phosphorus that his life was saved in a most malignant fever, in which the prostration of strength

was so great as not to leave many other resources but this remedy."

M. Leroi then proceeds to inform us, that he has frequently employed phosphorus since that time. He at first prescribed it in the form of a lohoch. It is always difficult to pulverize it; but this difficulty he overcame in the following manner: He puts the phosphorus into warm water, and agitates it violently; it divides itself like oil into a great number of little globules, and, if cold water be now added, it is precipitated to the bottom in the form of a powder. Of this powder one or two grains are to be taken, and rubbed with a little sugar, a drop or two of oil, and some yolk of an egg. A quarter of a grain every day is quite sufficient to produce great effects."

At other times, he says, he has given it in a mixture of oil, syrup, and some aromatic distilled water. He asserts, that Kunkel gave phosphorus internally in England in the form of pills, which were luminous; and he informs us, that he himself has found out the manner of composing them; but they require so nice a manipulation, that he has entrusted the secret only to Messrs. Pelletier, the brothers, being warned by his own experience of the mischief which arises from giving it improperly prepared. Each pill contains the eighth of a grain of phosphorus. They are endowed with a soporific and calming property. Professor Leroi has frequently employed them in cases of rheumatism, in a great number of nervous diseases, pituitous diseases, and in many acute and chronic complaints. He believes that this remedy is capable of prolonging life beyond the natural period; and after having spoken of its great restorative power, he related the following case in confirmation of this opinion.

"I was one day called to an old

man, aged eighty-seven, the uncle of Madame de Fourqueux, in whom life seemed to be almost totally extinguished. I composed for him a mixture of six ounces of different distilled aromatic waters, one ounce of oil containing three grains of phosphorus, and two ounces of syrup. Of this he took three table spoonfuls every day; and besides this he took eight drops of volatile alkali in a glass of sweet aromatic water twice a day, before his meals. By these means I illuminated the dying embers of life, and he survived seven years after an attack of weakness in which it must have appeared like madness to attempt to interfere.

I may safely affirm, that I have been as much occupied in seeking out the cases in which this medicine proves hurtful, as in detecting those in which it is serviceable; and I can assert, not only from my own experience, but also from that of the late M. Lecointre, my pupil, who was physician to the hospital of Nambouillet, that we have not found it hurtful in any one case: that it has only been useless in some, and that only in such cases in which life was already extinct in some parts of such patients as had not a sufficient portion of living principle in them to reanimate the whole frame."

Mr. Leroi affirms, that the divisibility of phosphorus is almost infinite; and in proof of this assertion he states, that "the body of a woman who died of a putrid fever, and who had taken one grain of phosphorus, was entirely luminous within. The hands of the late Rielle, the anatomist, who opened the body, were luminous some hours after they had been washed!!"

Upon maturely considering all the facts which have been brought forward concerning it, little room for doubt will be left in the mind

as to its uncommon powers; but, although this be granted, experience is still wanting to point out the diseases, and various stages of disease, in which it may be employed with equal safety and utility, as also to determine the circumstances under which it would be dangerous even to try it. Thus much may doubtless be asserted concerning it, that it is one of the highest stimuli which we have in the catalogue of the *materia medica*; and that, although it is affirmed by M. Leroi, and others, to be "calming and sedative," it is only so in such cases as wine, æther, Hoffman's anodyne liquor, and opium, are also found to be calming and sedative, that is, in cases where the arterial action of the whole frame is nearly exhausted, although still quick. Every practitioner should be cautioned against exhibiting it in any inflammatory disease, where much strength exists; and, in all cases, very small doses should be first exhibited, and those with the utmost circumspection.

PHOSPHURETS, (*Phosphuretum*, *i. n.* from *phosphorus*). Combinations of phosphorus not oxygenated, with different bases; as, *phosphuret of copper*, *phosphuret of iron*, &c.

PHOTOPHOBIA, (*Photophobia*, *a. f.* *φωτοφωβία*, from *φως*, light, and *φύβειν*, to dread). Such an intolerance of light, that the eye, or rather the retina, can scarcely bear its irritating rays. Such patients generally wink, or close their eyes in light, which they cannot bear without exquisite pain, or confused vision. The proximate cause is too great a sensibility in the retina. The species are, 1. *Photophobia inflammatoria*, or dread of light from an inflammatory cause, which is a particular symptom of the internal ophthalmia. 2. *Photophobia*, from the disuse of light, which happens to persons long confined in dark places or prisons; on the coming out

of which into light the pupil contracts, and the persons cannot bear light. The depression of the cataract occasions this symptom, which appears as though fire and lightning entered the eye, not being able to bear these strong rays of light. 3. *Photophobia nervea*, or a nervous photophobia, which arises from an increased sensibility of the nervous expansion and optic nerve. It is a symptom of the hydrophobia, and many disorders, both acute and nervous. 4. *Photophobia* from too great light, as looking at the sun, or at the strong light of modern lamps.

PHOTOPSIA, (*Photopsia*, *a. f.* *φωτοψία*, from *φως*, light, and *ὄψις*, vision). Lucid vision. An affection of the eye in which the patient perceives luminous rays, ignited lines, or coruscations.

PHRENES, (*Phren*, *is. f.* from *φρεν*, the mind, because the ancients imagined it was the seat of the mind). The diaphragm. See *Diaphragm*.

PHRENIC NERVE, (*Nervus phrenicus*, from *φρεν*, the diaphragm). Diaphragmatic nerve. It arises from a union of the branches of the third, fourth, and fifth cervical pairs, on each side, passes between the clavicle and subclavian artery, and descends from thence by the pericardium to the diaphragm.

PHRENITIS, (*Phrenitis*, *idis. f.* *φρενιτις*; from *φρεν*, the mind). Phrenzy or inflammation of the brain. A genus of disease in the class *pyrexia*, and order *phlegmasia* of Cullen; characterized by strong fever, violent headach, redness of the face and eyes, impatience of light and noise, watchfulness, and furious delirium. It is symptomatic of several diseases, as worms, hydrophobia, &c. Phrenitis often makes its attacks with a sense of fullness in the head, flushing of the countenance, and redness of the eyes, the pulse

being full, but in other respects natural. As these symptoms increase, the patient becomes restless, his sleep is disturbed, or wholly forsakes him. It sometimes comes on, as in the epidemic, of which Saalman gives an account, with pain, or a peculiar sense of uneasiness of the head, back, loins, and joints; in some cases, with tremor of their limbs, and intolerable pains of the hands, feet, and legs. It now and then attacks with stupor, and rigidity of the whole body, sometimes with anxiety and a sense of tension referred to the breast, often accompanied with palpitation of the heart. Sometimes nausea and a painful sense of weight in the stomach, are among the earliest symptoms. In other cases, the patient is attacked with vomiting, or complaints of the heart-burn, and griping pains in the bowels. When the intimate connection which subsists between the brain and every part of the system is considered, the variety of the symptoms attending the commencement of phrenitis is not so surprising, nor that the stomach in particular should suffer, which so remarkably sympathizes with the brain. These symptoms assist in forming the diagnosis between phrenitis, and synocha. The pain of the head soon becomes more considerable; and sometimes very acute. 'If the meninges,' says Dr. Fordyce, 'are affected, the pain is acute; if the substance only, obtuse, and sometimes but just sensible.' And Dr. Cullen remarks, 'I am here, as in other analogous cases, of opinion, that the symptoms above mentioned of an acute inflammation, always mark inflammations of membranous parts, and that an inflammation of paranchyma, or substance of viscera, exhibits, at least commonly, a more chronic inflammation.'

The seat of the pain is various: sometimes it seems to occupy the

whole head; sometimes, although more circumscribed, it is deep-seated, and ill-defined. In other cases it is felt principally in the forehead or occiput. The redness of the face and eyes generally increases with the pain, and there is often a sense of heat and throbbing in the head, the countenance acquiring a peculiar fierceness. These symptoms for the most part, do not last long before the patient begins to talk incoherently, and to shew other marks of delirium. Sometimes, however, Saalman observes, delirium did not come on till the fifth, sixth, or seventh day. The delirium gradually increases, till it often arrives at a state of phrenzy. The face becomes turgid, the eyes stare, and seem as if bursting from their sockets, tears, and sometimes even blood, flowing from them; the patient in many cases resembling a furious maniac, from whom it is often impossible to distinguish him, except by the short duration of his complaint. The delirium assists in distinguishing phrenitis and synocha, as it is not a common symptom in the latter. When delirium does attend synocha, however, it is of the same kind as in phrenitis.

We should, *a priori*, expect in phrenitis considerable derangement in the different organs of sense, which so immediately depend on the state of the brain. The eyes are incapable of bearing the light, and false vision, particularly that termed *muscae volitantes*, and flashes of light seeming to dart before the eyes, are frequent symptoms. The hearing is often so acute, that the least noise is intolerable; sometimes, on the other hand, the patient becomes deaf; and the deafness, Saalman observes, and morbid acuteness of hearing, sometimes alternate. Affections of the smell, taste, and touch, are less observable.

As the organs of sense are not frequently deranged in synocha, the foregoing symptoms farther assist the diagnosis between this complaint and phrenitis.

The pulse is not always so much disturbed at an early period, as we should expect from the violence of the other symptoms, compared with what we observe in idiopathic fevers. When this circumstance is distinctly marked, it forms, perhaps, the best diagnosis between phrenitis and synocha, and gives to phrenitis more of the appearance of mania. In many cases, however, the fever runs as high as the delirium; then the case often almost exactly resembles a case of violent synocha, from which it is the more difficult to distinguish it if the pulse be full and strong. In general, however, the hardness is more remarkable than in synocha, and in many cases the pulse is small and hard, which may be regarded as one of the best diagnostics between the two complaints, the pulse in synocha being always strong and full. — In phrenitis it is sometimes, though rarely, intermittent. The respiration is generally deep and slow, sometimes difficult, now and then interrupted with hiccups, seldom hurried and frequent; a very unfavourable symptom. In many of the cases mentioned by Saalman, pneumonia supervened.

The deglutition is often difficult, sometimes convulsive. The stomach is frequently oppressed with bile, which is an unfavourable symptom; and complete jaundice, the skin and the urine being tinged yellow, sometimes supervenes. Worms in the stomach and bowels are also frequent attendants on phrenitis, and there is reason to believe, may have a share in producing it. The hydrocephalus internus, which is more allied to phrenitis than dropsy of the brain, properly so called, seems often, in part at least, to arise from derange-

ment of the primæ viæ, particularly from worms. We cannot otherwise account for the frequent occurrence of these complaints.

Instead of a superabundance of bile in the primæ viæ, there is sometimes a deficiency, which seems to afford even a worse prognosis. The *faeces alvine* being of a white colour, and a black cloud in the urine, are regarded by Lobb as fatal symptoms. The black cloud in the urine is owing to an admixture of blood: when unmixed with blood, the urine is generally pale.

There is often a remarkable tendency to the worst species of hæmorrhagies, towards the fatal termination of phrenitis. Hæmorrhagy from the eyes has already been mentioned. Hæmorrhagy from the intestines also, tinging the stools with a black colour, is not uncommon. These hæmorrhagies are never favourable; but the hæmorrhagies characteristic of synocha, particularly that from the nose, sometimes occur at an earlier period, and, if copious, generally bring relief. More frequently, however, blood drops slowly from the nose, demonstrating the violence of the disease, without relieving it. In other cases there is a discharge of thin mucus from the nose.

Tremors of the joints, convulsions of the muscles of the face, grinding of the teeth, the face from being florid suddenly become pale, involuntary tears, a mucus from the nose, the urine being of a dark red or yellow colour, or black, or covered with a pellicle, the *faeces* being either bilious or white, and very fœtid, profuse sweat of the head, neck, and shoulders, paralysis of the tongue, general convulsions, much derangement of the internal functions, and the symptoms of other visceral inflammations, particularly of pneumonia, supervening, are enumerated by Saalman as affording the most unfavourable prognosis.

favourable prognosis. The delirium changing to coma, the pulse at the same time becoming weak, and the deglutition difficult, was generally the forerunner of death. When, on the contrary, there is a copious hæmorrhagy from the hæmorrhoidal vessels, from the lungs, mouth, or even from the urinary passages, when the delirium is relieved by sleep, and the patient remembers his dream, when the sweats are free and general, the deafness is diminished or removed, and the febrile symptoms become milder, there are hopes of a recovery.

In almost all diseases, if we except those which kill suddenly, as the fatal termination approaches, nearly the same train of symptoms supervenes, viz. those denoting extreme debility of all the functions. Saalman remarks that the blood did not always shew the buffy coat.

Phrenitis, like most other complaints, has sometimes assumed an intermitting form, the fits coming on daily, sometimes every second day. When phrenitis terminates favourably, the typhus, which succeeds the increased excitement, is generally less in proportion to that excitement, than in idiopathic fevers; a circumstance which assists in distinguishing phrenitis from synocha.

The imperfect diagnosis between these complaints is further assisted by the effects of the remedies employed. For if in phrenitis in removing the delirium and other local symptoms, the febrile symptoms in general soon abate. Whereas in synocha, although the delirium and head-ach be removed, yet the pulse continues frequent, and other marks of indisposition remain for a much longer time.

It will be of use to present at one view the circumstances which form the diagnosis between phrenitis and synocha.

Synocha generally makes its attack in the same manner; its symptoms

are few and little varied. The symptoms at the commencement of phrenitis are often more complicated, and differ considerably in different cases. Derangement of the internal functions are comparatively rare in synocha. In phrenitis it almost constantly attends, and often appears very early. The same observation applies to the derangement of the organs of sense. In synocha, the pulse from the commencement, is frequent, slow, and rapid. In phrenitis, symptoms denoting the local affection often became considerable before the pulse is much disturbed. In phrenitis we have seen that the pulse sometimes very suddenly loses its strength, the worst species of hæmorrhagies and other symptoms denoting extreme debility shewing themselves; such symptoms are generally the forerunner of death. But that when the termination is favourable, the degree of typhus which succeeds it is less in proportion to the preceding excitement in synocha. Lastly, if we succeed in removing the delirium and other symptoms affecting the head, the state of the fever is found to partake of this favourable change more immediately and completely than in synocha, where although we succeed in relieving the head-ach or delirium, the fever often suffers little abatement.

With regard to the duration of phrenitis, Eller observes, that when it proves fatal, the patient generally dies within six or seven days. In many fatal cases, however, it is protracted for a longer time, especially where the remissions have been considerable. Upon the whole, however, the longer it is protracted, providing the symptoms do not become worse, the better is the prognosis.

PHTHIRIASIS, (*Phthiriasis*, is, f. *φθιρίας*; from *φθιρ*, a louse). A disease in which several parts of the body generate lice, which often punc-

ture the skin, and produce little or no diu ulcers.

PHTHISIS, (*Phthisis*, is, f. *phthisis*; from *phtho*, to consume). Pulmonary consumption. A genus of disease in the class *pyrexia*, and order *hæmorrhagicæ* of Cullen; known by emaciation, debility, cough, hectic fever, purulent expectoration, hæmoptysis, diarrhœa. Species: 1. *Phthisis incipiens*, incipient, without any expectoration of pus. 2. *Phthisis humida*, with an expectoration of pus. 3. *Phthisis scrophulosa*, from scrophulous tubercles in the lungs, &c. 4. *Phthisis hæmoptoica*, from hæmoptysis. 5. *Phthisis exanthematica*, from exanthemata. 6. *Phthisis chlorotica*, from chlorosis. 7. *Phthisis syphilitica*, from a venereal ulcer in the lungs. The causes which predispose to this disease are very numerous. The following are, however, the most general: hereditary disposition; particular formation of body, and obvious by a long neck, prominent shoulders, and narrow chest; scrophulous diathesis, indicated by a fine clear skin, fair hair, delicate rosy complexion, large veins, thick upper lip, a weak voice, and great sensibility; certain diseases, such as syphilis, scrophula, the small pox, and measles; particular employments exposing artificers to dust, such as needle-pointers, stone-cutters, millers, &c. or to the fumes of metals or minerals under a confined and unwholesome air; violent passions, exertions or affections of the mind, as grief, disappointment, anxiety, or close application to study, without using proper exercise; frequent and excessive debaucheries, late watching, and drinking freely of strong liquors: great evacuations, as diarrhœa, diabetes, excessive venery, fluor albus, immoderate discharge of the menstrual flux, and the continuing to suckle too long under a debilitated state; and lastly, the application of cold,

either by too sudden a change of apparel, keeping on wet clothes, lying in damp beds, or exposing the body too suddenly to cool air, when heated by exercise; in short, by any thing that gives a considerable check to the perspiration. The more immediate or occasional causes of phthisis are, hæmoptysis, pneumonic inflammation proceeding to suppuration, catarrh, asthma, and tubercles, the last of which is by far the most general. The incipient symptoms usually vary with the cause of the disease; but when it arises from tubercles, it is usually thus marked: It begins with a short dry cough, that at length becomes habitual, but from which nothing is spit up for some time, except a frothy mucus that seems to proceed from the fauces. The breathing is at the same time somewhat impeded, and upon the least bodily motion is much hurried: a sense of straitness, with oppression at the chest, is experienced; the body becomes gradually leaner, and great languor, with indolence, dejection of spirits, and loss of appetite, prevail. In this state the patient frequently continues a considerable length of time, during which he is, however, more readily affected than usual by slight colds, and upon one or other of the occasions the cough becomes more troublesome and severe, particularly by night, and it is at length attended with an expectoration, which towards morning is more free and copious. By degrees the matter which is expectorated becomes more viscid and opaque, and now assumes a greenish colour and purulent appearance, being on many occasions streaked with blood. In some cases, a more severe degree of hæmoptysis attends, and the patient spits up a considerable quantity of florid, frothy blood. The breathing at length becomes more difficult, and the emaciation and weakness goes on

increasing. With these, the person begins to be sensible of pain in some part of the thorax, which, however, is usually felt at first under the sternum, particularly on coughing. At a more advanced period of the disease a pain is sometimes felt on one side, and at times prevails in so high a degree, as to prevent the person from lying easily on that side; but it more frequently happens, that it is felt only on making a full inspiration, or coughing. Even where no pain is felt it often happens, that those who labour under phthisis cannot lie easily on one or other of their sides, without a fit of coughing being excited, or the difficulty of breathing being much increased. At the first commencement of the disease, the pulse is often natural, or perhaps is soft, small, and a little quicker than usual; but when the symptoms which have been enumerated have subsisted for any length of time, it then becomes full, hard, and frequent. At the same time the face flushes, particularly after eating, the palms of the hands and soles of the feet are affected with burning heat; the respiration is difficult and laborious; evening exacerbations become obvious, and by degrees, the fever assumes the hectic form. This species of fever is evidently of the remittent kind, and has exacerbations twice every day. The first occurs usually about noon, and a slight remission ensues about five in the afternoon. This last is, however, soon succeeded by another exacerbation, which increases gradually until after midnight; but about two o'clock in the morning a remission takes place, and this becomes more apparent as the morning advances. During the exacerbations the patient is very sensible to any coolness of the air, and often complains of a sense of cold when his skin is, at the same time, preternaturally warm. Of these exacerbations, that of the evening is by far the most

considerable. From the first appearance of the hectic symptoms, the urine is high coloured, and deposits a copious branny red sediment. The appetite, however, is not greatly impaired, the tongue appears clean, the mouth is usually moist, and the thirst is inconsiderable. As the disease advances, the fauces put on rather an inflamed appearance, and are beset with aphthæ, and the red vessels of the tunica adnata become of a pearly white. During the exacerbations, a florid circumscribed redness appears on each cheek; but at other times, the face is pale, and the countenance somewhat dejected. At the commencement of hectic fever, the belly is usually costive; but in the more advanced stages of it, a diarrhæa often comes on, and this continues to recur frequently during the remainder of the disease; colliquative sweats likewise break out, and these alternate with each other, and induce vast debility. In the last stage of the disease the emaciation is so great, that the patient has the appearance of a walking skeleton; his countenance is altered, his cheeks are prominent, his eyes look hollow and languid, his hair falls off, his nails are of a livid colour, and much incurvated, and his feet are affected with œdematous swellings. To the end of the disease the senses remain entire, and the mind is confident and full of hope. It is, indeed, a happy circumstance attendant on phthisis, that those who labour under it are seldom apprehensive or aware of any danger; and it is no uncommon occurrence to meet with persons labouring under its most advanced stage, flattering themselves with a speedy recovery, and forming distant projects under that vain hope. Some days before death the extremities become cold. In some cases a delirium precedes that event, and continues until life is extinguished.

As an expectoration of mucus from the lungs may possibly be mistaken for purulent matter, and may thereby give us reason to suspect that the patient labours under a confirmed phthisis, it may not be amiss to point out a sure criterion, by which we shall always be able to distinguish the one from the other. The medical world are indebted to the late Mr. Charles Darwin for the discovery, who has directed the experiment to be made in the following manner:

Let the expectorated matter be dissolved in vitriolic acid, and in caustic lixivium, and add pure water to both solutions. If there is a fair precipitation in each, it is a certain sign of the presence of pus; but if there is not a precipitation in either, it is certainly mucus.

Mr. Everard Home, in his dissertation on the properties of pus, informs us of a curious, and apparently a decisive mode of distinguishing accurately between pus and animal mucus. The property, he observes, which characterizes pus, and distinguishes it from most other substances, is, its being composed of globules, which are visible when viewed through a microscope; whereas animal mucus, and all chemical combinations of animal substances appear in the microscope to be made up of flakes. This property was first noticed by the late Mr. John Hunter.

Pulmonary consumption is in every case to be considered as attended with much danger; but it is more so when it proceeds from tubercles, than when it arises in consequence either of hæmoptysis, or pneumonic suppuration. In the last instance the risk will be greater where the abscess breaks inwardly, and gives rise to empyema, than when its contents are discharged by the mouth. Even cases of this nature have, however, been known to terminate in immediate death. The impending danger is generally to be

judged of, however, by the violence of the hectic symptoms; but more particularly by the fetor of the expectoration, the degree of emaciation and debility, the colliquative sweats, and the diarrhæa. The disease has, in many cases, been found to be considerably retarded in its process by pregnancy; and in a few has been alleviated by an attack of mania.

The morbid appearance most frequently to be met with on the dissections of those who die of phthisis, is the existence of tubercles in the cellular substance of the lungs. These are small tumours which have the appearance of indurated glands, are of different sizes, and are often found in clusters. Their firmness is usually in proportion to their size, and when laid open in this state they are of a white colour, and of a consistence nearly approaching to cartilage. Although indolent at first, they at length become inflamed, and are at last changed into little abscesses or vomicæ, which breaking, and pouring their contents into the bronchiæ, give rise to a purulent expectoration, and thus lay the foundation of phthisis. Such tubercles or vomicæ are most usually situated at the upper and back part of the lungs; but in some instances they occupy the outer part, and then adhesions to the pleura are often formed.

When the disease is partial, only about a fourth of the upper and posterior part of the lungs is usually found diseased; but in some cases life has been protracted till not one twentieth part of them appeared, on dissection, fit for performing their function. A singular observation, confirmed by the morbid collections of anatomists, is, that the left lobe is much oftener affected than the right.

PHU, (φρ, or φερ, from *phua*, Arab.). See *Valeriana major*.

PHYGETHLON, (*Phygethlon*, i, n.

φυθλον; from φυα, to grow). A red and painful tubercle which often arises about the anus, and if badly treated becomes fistulous.

PHYLLANTHUS EMBLICA. The systematic name of the Indian tree from which the emblic myrobalan is obtained.

PHYLLITIS, (*Phyllitis*, *idis*, f. φυλλιτις; from φυλλον, a leaf so called because the leaves only appear). See *Scolopendrium*.

PHYMA, (*Phyma*, *atis*, n. φυμα; from φυω, to produce). Tubercles in any external part of the body.

PHYSALIS ALKEKENGİ, (*Physalis*, *idis*, f. φυσαλις; from φυσαν, to inflate; so called because its seed is contained in a kind of bladder, and *alkekengi*, *alkakangi*, Arab, the *halicacabus* or winter cherry). The systematic name of the winter cherry. See *Alkekengi*.

PHYSCONIA, (*Physconia*, *a*, f. φυσικωνια; from φυσικω, a big-bellied fellow). Enlargement of the abdomen. A genus of disease in the class *cachexia*, and order *intumescencia* of Cullen; known by a tumour occupying chiefly one part of the abdomen, increasing slowly, and neither sonorous nor fluctuating. Species: 1. *hepatica*. 2. *Splenica*. 3. *Renalis*. 4. *Uterina*. 5. *Ab ovario*. 6. *Mesenterica*. 7. *Omentalis*. 8. *Visceralis*.

PHYSETER MACROCEPHALUS, (*Phyeter*, *eris*, m. φυσητηρ; from φυσαν, to inflate; so named from its action of blowing and discharging water from its nostrils, and *macrocephalus*, μικροκεφαλως, from μακρος, long, and κεφαλη, the head; from the length of its head). See *Ambergris*.

PHYSIOGNOMY, (*Physiognomia*, *a*, f. φυσιογνωμια; from φυσικ, nature, and γνωσκω, to know). The art of knowing the disposition of a person from the countenance.

PHYSIOLOGY, (*Physiologia*, *a*, f.

φυσικολογια; from φυσικ, nature, and λογος, a discourse). The science which treats of the actions and powers of an animated body.

PHYSOCÈLE, (*Physocèle*, *es*, f. φυσοκελη; from φυσα, wind, and κελη, a tumour). Any species of hernia, whose contents are distended with wind.

PHYSOCEPHALUS, (*Physocephalus*, *i*, m. φυσοκεφαλως; from φυσα, wind, and κεφαλη, the head). Emphysema of the head. See *Pneumatosis*.

PHYSOMETRA, (*Physometra*, *a*, f. φυσομετρα; from φυσαν, to inflate, and μετρα, the womb). A windy swelling of the uterus. A genus of disease in the class *cachexia*, and order *intumescencia* of Cullen; characterized by a permanent elastic swelling of the hypogastrium, from flatulent distention of the womb.

PHYTOLACCA DECANDRIA, (*Phytolacca*, *a*, f. φυτολακκα; from φυτον, a plant, and λακκα, gum lac; so called because it is of the colour of lacca, and *decandria*, from its Linnæan arrangement). The systematic name of the American night-shade. In Virginia and other parts of America, the inhabitants boil the leaves, and eat them in the manner of spinach. They are said to have an anodyne quality, and the juice of the root is violently cathartic. The Portuguese had formerly a trick of mixing the juice of the berries with their red wines, in order to give them a deeper colour; but it was found to debase the flavour. This was represented to his Portuguese majesty, who ordered all the stems to be cut down yearly before they produced flowers, thereby to prevent any farther adulteration.

PHYTOLOGY, (*Phytologia*, *a*, f. φυτολογια; from φυτη, an herb, and λογος, a discourse). That part of natural history which treats on plants.

PÏA MATER, (*Pia mater*, the natural mother; so called because it

embraces the brain as a good mother folds her child). A thin membrane, almost wholly vascular, that is firmly accreted to the convolutions of the cerebrum, cerebellum, medulla oblongata, and medulla spinalis. Its use appears to be, to distribute the vessels to, and contain the substance of, the cerebrum.

PICA, (*Pica*, *æ*, f. so named because it is said the magpie is subject to this affection). Depraved appetite, with strong desire for unnatural food. It is very common to pregnant women.

PICEA, (*Picea*, *æ*, f. *πίτυς*, pitch). The common or red fir or pitch tree is so termed. The cones, branches, and every part of the tree, affords the common resin called frankinsense. See *Terebinthina vulgaris*.

PICRIS ECHIOIDES, (*Picris*, *idis*, f. *πίκρίς*; from *πίκος*, bitter, and *echioides*, *ἐχιδνῆς*, from *ἐχίς*, from *χίς*, a viper, and *ειδος*, resemblance). The systematic name of the common ox-tongue; the leaves are frequently used as a pot-herb by the country people, who esteem it good to relax the bowels.

PICHURIM. See *Pechurim*.

PIG NUT. Earth nut. Ground nut. The bulbous root of the *Bunium bulbocastanum* of Linnæus. Pig-nuts, so called because that animal is very fond of them, and will dig with its snout to some depth for them, are of a dirty brown colour, a little bigger than a hazel-nut, and flavoured like the chesnut. They are said to possess a styptic quality, and are deemed serviceable in laxity of the kidneys.

PIGMENT, (*Pigmentum*, *i*, n. from *pingo*, to paint). This name is given by anatomists to a mucous substance found in the eye, which is of two kinds. *The pigment of the iris*, is that which covers the anterior and posterior surface of the iris, and gives the beautiful variety of colour in the eyes. *The pigment of the choroid mem-*

brane, is a black or brownish mucus which covers the anterior surface of the choroid membrane, contiguous to the retina and the interior surface of the ciliary processes.

PILES. See *Hæmorrhoids*.

PILE WORT. See *Cheledonium minus*.

PILI CONGENITI. The hair of the head, eyebrows, and eyelids, are so termed, because they grow *in utero*.

PILI POSTGENITI. The hair which grows from the surface of the body after birth is so termed, in contradiction to that which appears before birth; as the hair of the head, eyebrows, and eyelids.

PILOSELLA, (*Pilocella*, *æ*, f. from *pilus*, hair, because its leaves are hairy). *Auricula muris*. *Myosotis*. Mouse ear. This common plant, *Hieracium pilocella* of Linnæus, contains a bitter lactescent juice, which has a slight degree of adstringency. The roots are more powerful than the leaves. They are very seldom used in this country.

PILŪLÆ ALŌES COMPOSITÆ. From fifteen to twenty-five grains prove moderately purgative and stomachic.

PILŪLÆ ALŌES CUM MYRRHÆ. From ten grains to a scruple of this pill, substituted for the *pilula Rufi*, prove stomachic and laxative, and are calculated for delicate females, especially where there is uterine obstruction.

PILŪLÆ CUPRI. An excellent tonic and diaphoretic pill, which may be given with advantage in dropsical diseases, where tonics and diuretics are indicated.

PILŪLÆ GALBANI COMPOSITÆ. A stimulating antispasmodic and emmenagogue. From a scruple to half a drachm may be given three times a day in nervous disorders of the stomach and intestines, in hysterical affections and hypochondriasis.

PILŪLÆ HYDRARGYRI. An al-

terative and antivenereal pill, which mostly acts on the bowels if given in sufficient quantity to attempt the removal of the venereal disease, and therefore requires the addition of opium. Joined with the squill pill, it forms an excellent expectorant and alterative, calculated to assist the removal of dropical diseases of the chest, and asthmas attended with visceral obstruction.

PILŪLÆ HYDRARGYRI MURIATI MITIS, SIVE, CALOMELANOS COMPOSITÆ. This is intended as a substitute for the famed Plummer's pill. It is exhibited as an alterative in a variety of diseases, especially cutaneous eruptions, pains of the venereal or rheumatic kind, cancerous and scirrhus affections, and chronic ophthalmia.

PILŪLÆ OPII. Five grains of this mass contain one of opium.

PILŪLÆ RHÆI COMPOSITÆ. Laxative and stomachic, in the dose of from fifteen grains to half a drachm.

PILŪLÆ SCILLÆ. An attenuant, expectorant, and diuretic pill, mostly administered in the cure of asthma and dropsy.

PILUS. (*Pilus*, *i*, *m.* πῖλος, wool carded). The short hair which is found all over the body. See *Capillus*.

PIMENTA. See *Pimento*.

PIMENTO, (*Pimento*, *n. ind.* from *ḡamienta*, *Sp.* pepper). Jamaica pepper, or allspice. *Amomum pimenta*. *Myrtus pimenta* of Linnæus. *Myrtus floribus trichotomo-paniculatis, foliis oblongo-lanceolatis*. Hort. Kew. Class *Icosandria*. Order *Monogynia*. This spice, which was first brought over for dietetic uses, has been long employed in the shops as a succedaneum to the more costly oriental aromatics: it is moderately warm; of an agreeable flavour, somewhat resembling that of a mixture of cloves, cinnamon, and nutmegs. Both pharmacopœias direct an aqueous and spirituous distillation to be made from

these berries; and the Edinburgh College orders also the *oleum essentielle piperis Jamaicensis*.

PIMPERNEL. The *anagallis arvensis* is sometimes so called. See *Anagallis*.

PIMPERNEL, WATER. See *Becabunga*.

PIMPINELLA, (*Pimpinella*, *æ*, *f.* *quasi bipinella* or *bipinula*, from the double penate order of its leaves). *Pimpinella alba*. *Pimpinella nostras*. Several species of *pimpinella* were formerly used officinally; but the roots which obtain a place in the materia medica of the Edinburgh pharmacopœia, are those of the *Burnet saxifrage*, the *Pimpinella saxifraga* of Linnæus. *Pimpinella foliis pinnatis, foliolis radicalibus subrotundis, summis linearibus*. Class *Pentaudria*. Order *Digynia*. They have an unpleasant smell; and a hot, pungent, bitterish taste: they are recommended by several writers as a stomachic: in the way of gargle, they have been employed for dissolving viscid mucus, and to stimulate the tongue when that organ becomes paralytic.

PIMPINELLA ALBA. A variety of the *pimpinella magna*, whose root is indifferently used with that of the greater *pimpinell*, called *radix pimpinellæ nigræ*. See also *Pimpinella*.

PIMPINELLA ANISUM. The systematic name of the anise plant. See *Anisum*.

PIMPINELLA ITALICA. The root which bears this name in some pharmacopœias is that of the *Sanguisorba officinalis* of Linnæus. It is now fallen into disuse.

PIMPINELLA MAGNA. The systematic name of the greater *pimpinella*. See *Pimpinella nigra*.

PIMPINELLA NIGRA. The root of this plant, *Pimpinella magna* of Linnæus, has been lately extolled in the cure of erysipelatous ulcerations, tinea capitis, rheumatism, and other diseases.

PIMPINELLA NOSTRAS. See *Pimpinella*.

PIMPINELLA SAXIFRAGA. The systematic name of the *Burnet saxifrage* of Linnæus. See *Pimpinella*.

PINASTELLUM, (*Pinastellum*, i, n. from *pinus*, the pine tree; so called because its leaves resemble those of the pine tree). Hog's fennel. See *Peucedanum*.

PINEA, (*Pinea*, æ, f.). The stone pine. The young and fresh fruit of this plant, *Pinus pinea* of Linnæus, are eaten in some countries in the same manner as almonds here, either alone, or mixed with sugar. They are nutritive, demulcent, and laxative.

PINEAL GLAND, (called *pineal* from *pinea*, a pine apple, from its supposed resemblance to that fruit). *Glandula pinealis*. *Conarium*. A small heart-like substance, about the size of a pea, situated immediately over the corpora quadrigemina, and hanging from the *thalami nervorum optico-rum* by two crura or peduncles. Its use is not known. It was formerly supposed to be the seat of the soul.

PINE APPLE. See *Ananas*.

PINE, THISTLE. See *Carlina gummiifera*.

PINEUS PURGANS. See *Ricinus major*.

PINGUEDO, (*Pinguedo*, inis, f. from *pinguis*, fat). Fat. See *Fat*.

PINGUICULA, (*Pinguicula*, æ, f. from *pinguis*, fat, so called because its leaves are fat to the touch). *Viola palustris*. *Liparis*. *Cucullata*. *Dodecatheon Plinii*. Butter-wort. Yorkshire fanicle. The remarkable unctuousness of this plant, *Pinguicula vulgaris* of Linnæus, has caused it to be applied to chaps, and as a pomatum to the hair. Decoctions of the leaves in broths are used by the common people in Wales as a cathartic.

PINHONES INDICI. See *Ricinus major*.

PINK, INDIAN. See *Spigelia*.

PINUS ABIES. The Norway spruce fir, which affords the *pix burgundica*. See *Burgundy pitch*.

PINUS BALSAMÆA. The systematic name of the tree which affords the Canada balsam. See *Balsamum Canadense*.

PINUS LARYX. The systematic name of the tree which gives us the agaric and Venice turpentine. See *Agaricus albus*, and *Terebinthina veneta*.

PINUS PICÆA. The systematic name of the silver fir. See *Terebinthina communis*.

PINUS PINÆA. The systematic name of the stone pine tree. See *Pinea*.

PINUS SYLVESTRIS. The systematic name of the Scotch fir. See *Pix liquida*.

PIPER, (*Piper*, eris, n. *πιπερι*, or *πιπερικ*, from *πεντω*, to concoct, because by its heat it assists digestion), Pepper.

PIPER ALBUM. See *Piper nigrum*.

PIPER CAUDATUM. See *Cubeba*.

PIPER CUBEBA. The plant whose berries are called cubebs. See *Cubeba*.

PIPER HISPANICUM. See *Piper indicum*.

PIPER INDICUM. *Capsicum*. *Piper Brazilianum*. *Piper Guincense*. *Piper Calecuticum*. *Piper Hispanicum*. *Piper Lucitanicum*. Cayenne pepper. Guinea pepper. This species of pepper is obtained from the *Capsicum annum*; *caule herbaceo, pedunculis solitariis* of Linnæus. Class *Pentandria*. Order *Monogynia*. As an aromatic of the stimulant kind, it is efficacious in some paralytic and gouty cases, or to promote excitement where the bodily organs are languid and torpid.

PIPER JAMAICENSE. See *Pimento*.

PIPER LONGUM. *Macropiper*. Long pepper. *Piper longum* of Linnæus. *Piper foliis cordatis petiolatis sessilibusque*. Class *Diandria*. Order

Trigynia. The berries or grains of this plant are gathered while green, and dried in the heat of the sun, when they change to a blackish or dark gray colour. They possess precisely the same qualities as the former, only in a weaker degree.

PIPER LUSITANICUM. See *Piper indicum*.

PIPER MURALE. See *Illecebra*.

PIPER NIGRUM. *Melanopiper*. Black pepper. This species of pepper is obtained in the East Indies, from the *Piper nigrum* of Linnæus. *Piper foliis ovatis septemnerviis glabris, petiolis simplicissimis*. Class *Diandria*. Order *Trigynia*. Its virtues are similar to those of the other peppers. The black and white pepper are both obtained from the same tree, the difference depending on their preparation and degrees of maturity.

PIPERITIS, (*Piperitis*, *idis*, f. from *piper*, pepper, so called because its leaves and roots are biting like pepper to the taste).

PISIFORM BONE. The fourth bone of the first row of the carpus.

PISMIRE. See *Formica*.

PISSABED. See *Taraxacum*.

PISSASPHALTUS, (*Pissasphaltus*, i. m. *πισσαφαλτος*, from *πισσα*, pitch, and *αλτος*, bitumen). The thicker kind of rock oil.

PISTACHIO NUT. *Nux pistacia*. An oblong pointed nut, about the size and shape of a filbert, including a kernel of a pale greenish colour, covered with a yellow or greenish skin. It is the produce of a large tree, the *Pistacia vera*; *foliis imparipennatis*; *foliolis subovatis recurvis* of Linnæus. Pistachio nuts have a sweetish unctuous taste, resembling that of sweet almonds, and, like the latter, afford an oil, and may be formed into an emulsion.

PISTACIA LENTISCUS. The systematic name of the tree which affords the mastick. See *Mastiche*.

PISTACIA NUX, (*Pistachia*, *æ*, f.

πισαχια, supposed to be a Syrian word). See *Pistachio nut*.

PISTACIA TEREBINTHUS. The systematic name of the tree which gives out the Cyprus turpentine. See *Chio turpentine*.

PISTACIA VERA. The systematic name of the tree which affords the *nuxes pistaciæ*. See *Pistachio nut*.

PITCH, (*Pix*, *icis*, f.). *Pix sicca*. The juice of a species of fir, extracted by incisions made in the bark of the tree. It is sometimes used as a detergent by surgeons.

PITCH, BURGUNDY. See *Burgundy pitch*.

PITCH, JEWS. See *Bitumen judaicum*.

PITCH TREE. See *Picea*.

PITUITA, (*Pituita*, *æ*, f.). Phlegm, or viscid and glutinous mucus.

PITUITARY GLAND. *Glandula pituitaria*. A gland situated within the cranium, between a duplicature of the dura mater, in the sella turcica of the sphenoid bone.

PITUITARY MEMBRANE. *Membrana pituitaria*. Schneiderian membrane. The mucus membrane that lines the nostrils and sinuses, communicating with the nose, is so called, because it secretes the mucus of those parts, to which the ancients have assigned the name of *pituita*.

PIX BURGUNDICA, (*Pix*, *icis*, f.). See *Burgundy pitch*.

PIX LIQUIDA. Tar. Tar is produced from the *Pinus sylvestris* of Linnæus, (*Pinus foliis geminis rigidis, conis ovato-conicis longitudine foliorum subgeminis basi rotundatis*. Class *Monoecia*. Order *Monodelphia*), by cutting it into pieces, which are enclosed in a large oven constructed for the purpose. It is well known for its economical uses. Tar water, or water impregnated with the more soluble parts of tar, was some time ago a very fashionable remedy in a variety of complaints, but is in the present practice fallen into disuse.

PIX SICCA. See *Pitch*.

PITYRIASIS, (*Pityriasis*, is, f. *πιτυρίασις*, from *πιτυρον*, bran, so named from its branny like appearance). A genus in the second order, or scaly diseases, of Dr. Willan's cutaneous diseases. The pityriasis consists of irregular patches of small thin scales, which repeatedly form and separate, but never collect into crusts, nor are attended with redness or inflammation, as in the lepra and scaly tetter. Dr. Willan distinguishes pityriasis from the porrigo of the Latins, which has a more extensive signification, and comprehends a disease of the scalp, terminating in ulceration; whereas the former is, by the best Greek authors, represented as always dry and scaly. Thus, according to Alexander and Paulus, pityriasis is characterised by "the separation of slight furfuraceous substances from the surface of the head, or other parts of the body, without ulceration." Their account of this appearance is conformable to experience; and the two varieties of it which they have pointed out may be denominated; *Pityriasis capitis*, and *Pityriasis versicolor*. *Pityriasis capitis*, when it affects very young infants, is termed by nurses the dandriff. It appears at the upper edge of the forehead and temples, as a slight whitish scurf set in the form of a horse shoe; on other parts of the head there are large scales, at a distance from each other, flat, and semipellucid. Sometimes, however, they nearly cover the whole of the hairy scalp, being close together, and imbricated. A similar appearance may take place in adults; but it is usually the effects of lepra, scaly tetter, or some general disease of the skin.

Elderly persons have the pityriasis capitis in nearly the same form as infants; the only difference is, that this complaint in old people occasions larger exfoliations of the cuticle.

The *pityriasis versicolor* chiefly af-

fects the arms, breast, and abdomen. It is diffused very irregularly; and being of a different colour from the usual skin colour, it exhibits a singular chequered appearance. These irregular patches, which are at first small, and of a brown or yellow hue, appear at the scrobiculus cordis, about the mammæ, clavicles, &c. Enlarging gradually, they assume a tessellated form; in other cases they are branched, so as to resemble the foliaceous lichens growing on the bark of trees; and sometimes, when the discolouration is not continuous, they suggest the idea of a map being distributed on the skin like islands, continents, peninsulas, &c. All the discoloured parts are slightly rough, with minute scales, which soon fall off, but are constantly replaced by others. This scurf, or scalliness, is most conspicuous on the sides and epigastric region. The cuticular lines are somewhat deeper in the patches than on the contiguous parts; but there is no elevated border, or distinguishing boundary between the discoloured part of the skin, and that which retains its natural colour. The discolouration rarely extends over the whole body. It is strongest and fullest round the umbilicus, on the breasts, and sides; it seldom appears in the skin over the sternum, or along the spine of the back. Interstices of proper skin colour are more numerous, and largest at the lower part of the abdomen and back, where the scales are often small, distinct, and a little depressed. The face, nates, and lower extremities are least affected; the patches are found upon the arms, but mostly on the inside, where they are distinct and of different sizes.

The *pityriasis versicolor* is not a cuticular disease; for when the cuticle is abraded from any of the patches, the fallow colour remains as before in the skin or retenucofum. This singular appearance is not attended with any internal disorder,

nor with any troublesome symptom, except a little itching or irritation felt on getting into bed, and after strong exercise, or drinking warm liquors. There is in some cases a slight exanthema, partially distributed among the discoloured patches; and sometimes an appearance like the lichen pileus; but eruptions of this kind are not permanent, neither do they produce any change in the original form of the complaint. The duration of the pityriasis versicolor is always considerable. Dr. Willan has observed its continuance in some persons for four, five, or six years. It is not limited to any age or sex. Its causes are not pointed out with certainty. Several patients have referred it to fruit taken in too great quantities; some have thought it was produced by eating mushrooms; others by exposure to sudden alterations of cold and heat. In some individuals, who had an irritable skin, and occasionally used violent exercise, the complaint has been produced, or at least much aggravated, by wearing flannel next to the skin. It is likewise often observed in persons who had resided for a length of time in a tropical climate.

PLACENTA, (*Placenta*, *a*, *f*. from *πλακῆς*, a cake, so called from its resemblance to a cake). The placenta is a circular, flat, vascular, and apparently fleshy substance, different in its diameter in different subjects, but usually extending about six inches, or upwards, over about one-fourth part of the outside of the ovum in pregnant women. It is more than one inch in thickness in the middle, and becomes gradually thinner towards the circumference from which the membranes are continued. The placenta is the principal medium by which the communication between the parent and child is preserved; but though all have allowed the importance of the office which it performs, there has been

a variety of opinions on the nature of that office, and of the manner in which it is executed.

That surface of the placenta which is attached to the uterus by the intervention of the connecting membrane, is lobulated and convex; but the other, which is covered with the amnion and chorion, is concave and smooth, except the little eminences made by the blood-vessels. It is seldom found attached to the same part of the uterus in two successive births; and, though it most frequently adheres to the anterior part, it is occasionally fixed to any other, even to the os uteri, in which state it becomes a cause of a dangerous hæmorrhage at the time of parturition. The placenta is composed of arteries and veins, with a mixture of pulpy or cellular substance. Of these there are two orders, very curiously interwoven with each other. The first is a continuation of those from the funis, which ramify on the internal surface of the placenta, the arteries running over the veins, which is a circumstance peculiar to the placenta; and then, sinking into its substance, anastomose and divide into innumerable small branches. The second order proceeds from the uterus; and these ramify in a similar manner with those from funis, as appears when a placenta is injected from those of the parent. The veins, in their ramifications, accompany the arteries as in other parts. There have been many different opinions with respect to the manner in which the blood circulates between the parent and child, during its continuance in the uterus. For a long time it was believed that the intercourse between them was uninterrupted, and that the blood propelled by the powers of the parent pervaded, by a continuance of the same force, the vascular system of the fœtus; but repeated attempts having been made without success to inject the whole placenta

funis and foetus, from the vessels of the parent, or any part of the uterus, from the vessels of the funis, it is now generally allowed, that the two systems of vessels in the placenta, one of which may be called maternal, the other foetal, are distinct. It is also admitted, that the blood of the foetus is, with regard to its formation, increase, and circulation, unconnected with, and totally independent of the parent; except that the matter by which the blood of the foetus is formed must be derived from the parent. It is thought that which has probably undergone some preparatory changes in its passage through the uterus, is conducted by the uterine or maternal arteries of the placenta to some cells or small cavities, in which it is deposited; and that some part of it, or something secreted from it, is absorbed by the foetal veins of the placenta, and by them conveyed to the foetus for its nutriment. When the blood which circulates in the foetus requires any alteration in its qualities, or when it has gone through the course of the circulation, it is carried by the arteries of the funis to the placenta, in the cells of which it is deposited, and then absorbed by the maternal veins of the placenta, and conducted to the uterus, whence it may enter the common circulation of the parent. Thus it appears, according to the opinion of Harvey, that the placenta performs the office of a gland, conveying air, or secreting the nutritious juices from the blood brought from the parent by the arteries of the uterus, and carried to the foetus by the veins of the funis, in a manner probably not unlike to that in which milk is secreted and absorbed from the breasts. The veins in the placenta are mentioned as the absorbents, because no lymphatic vessels have yet been found in the placenta or funis; nor are there any nerves in these parts; so that the only communications hitherto discovered

between the parent and child, is by the sanguineous system. The proofs of the manner in which the blood circulates between the parent and child are chiefly drawn from observations made upon the funis. When it was supposed that the child was supplied with blood in a direct stream from the parent, it was asserted that, on the division of the funis, if that part next to the placenta was not secured by a ligature, the parent would be brought into extreme danger by the hæmorrhage which must necessarily follow. But this opinion, which laid the foundation of several peculiarities in the management of the funis and placenta, is proved not to be true: for, if the funis be compressed immediately after the birth of the child, and whilst the circulation in it is going on, the arteries between the part compressed and the child throb violently, but those between the compression and the placenta have no pulsation; but the vein between the part compressed and the placenta swells, and that part next to the foetus becomes flaccid. But if, under the same circumstances, the funis be divided, and that part next the child be not secured, the child would be in danger of losing its life by the hæmorrhage; yet the mother would suffer no inconvenience if the other part was neglected. It is moreover proved, that a woman may die of an hæmorrhage occasioned by a separation of the placenta, and the child be nevertheless born, after her death, in perfect health. But if the placenta be injured, without separation, either by the rupture of the vessels which pass upon its inner surface, or in any other way, the child being deprived of its proper blood, would perish, yet the parent might escape without injury. See also *Secundines*.

PLANTAGO, (*Plantago*, *inis*, f. from *planta*, the sole of the feet; so called from the shape of its leaves, or

because its leaves lie upon the ground and are trodden upon). *Plantago latifolia*. Plantain. This plant, *Plantago major* of Linnæus. *Plantago foliis ovatis glabris, scapo tereti, spica flosculis imbricatis*. Class *Tetrandria*. Order *Monogynia*, is still retained in the materia medica of the Edinburgh College, in which the leaves are mentioned as the pharmaceutical part of the plant; they have a weak herbaceous smell, an austere, bitterish, subsaline taste; and their qualities are said to be refrigerant, attenuating, substyptic, and diuretic.

PLANTAGO LATIFOLIA. See *Plantago*.

PLANTAGO MAJOR. The systematic name of the broad-leaved plantain. See *Plantago*.

PLANTAGO PSYLLIUM. The systematic name of the branching plantain. See *Psyllium*.

PLANTAIN. See *Plantago*.

PLANTAIN-TREE. See *Musa paradisiaca*.

PLANTARIS, (Plantaris, sc. musculus. from *planta*, the sole of the foot, to which it belongs). *Tibialis gracilis* vulgo *plantaris* of Winslow. *Extensor tarsi minor* vulgo *plantaris* of Douglas. A muscle of the foot, situated on the leg, that assists the soleus, and pulls the capsular ligament of the knee from between the bones. It is sometimes, though seldom, found wanting on both sides. This long and slender muscle, which is situated under the gastrocnemius externus, arises, by a thin fleshy origin, from the upper and back part of the outer condyle of the os femoris. It adheres to the capsular ligament of the joint, and, after running obliquely downwards and outwards, for the space of three or four inches, along the second origin of the gastrocnemius internus, and under the gastrocnemius externus, terminates in a long,

thin, and slender tendon, which adheres to the inside of the tendo Achillis, and is inserted into the inside of the posterior part of the os calcis. This tendon sometimes sends off an aponeurosis that loses itself in the capsular ligament, but it does not at all contribute to form the aponeurosis that is spread over the sole of the foot, as was formerly supposed, and as its name would seem to imply. Its use is to assist the gastrocnemii in extending the foot. It likewise serves to prevent the capsular ligament of the knee from being pinched.

PLANUM OS, (*Planus*, soft, smooth; applied to a bone whose surface is smooth or flat). The pyramiceous or orbital portion of the ethmoid bone was formerly so called.

PLATINA, (Platina, æ, f.). The name platina was given to this metal by the Spaniards from the word *plata*, which signifies silver in their language, by way of comparison with that metal, whose colour it imitates; or from the river *Plata*, near which it is found. It has hitherto only been found in the gold-mines of America.

PLATYSMA MYOIDES, (Platysma, atis, n. from *πλατυς*, broad, *μῦς*, a muscle, and *εἶδος*, resemblance). *Musculus cutaneus* of Winslow. *Quadratus genæ* vel *Latissimus colli* of Douglas. *Latissimus colli* of Albinus. *Detrahens quadratus*. A thin muscle on the side of the neck, immediately under the skin, that assists in drawing the skin of the cheek downwards; and when the mouth is shut, it draws all that part of the skin to which it is connected below the lower jaw upwards.

PLETHORA, (Plethora, æ, f. *πληθωρα*; from *πληθω*, to fill). Fullness of vessels. A redundancy of blood.

PLEURA, (Pleura, æ, f. πλευρα). A membrane which lines the internal

surface of the thorax, and covers its viscera. It forms a great process, the mediastinum, which divides the thorax into two cavities. Its use is to render the surface of the thorax moist by the vapour it exhales. The cavity of the thorax is every where lined by this smooth and glistening membrane, which is in reality two distinct portions or bags, which by being applied to each other laterally, form the septum called mediastinum: this divides the cavity into two parts, and is attached posteriorly to the vertebræ of the back; and anteriorly to the sternum. But the two laminæ of which this septum is formed, do not every where adhere to each other; for at the lower part of the thorax they are separated, to afford a lodgment to the heart; and at the upper part of the cavity they receive between them the thymus. The pleura is plentifully supplied with arteries and veins from the internal mammary, and the intercostals. Its nerves, which are very inconsiderable, are derived chiefly from the dorsal and intercostal nerves. The surface of the pleura, like that of the peritonæum and other membranes lining cavities, is constantly bedewed with a serous mixture, which prevents adhesions of the viscera. The mediastinum, by dividing the breast into two cavities, obviates many inconveniences to which we should otherwise be liable. It prevents the two lobes of the lungs from compressing each other when we lie on one side, and consequently contributes to the freedom of respiration, which is disturbed by the least pressure on the lungs. If the point of a sword penetrates between the ribs into the cavity of the thorax, the lung on that side ceases to perform their office, because the air being admitted through the wound, prevents the dilatation of that lobe, while the other lobe, which is separated from it by the mediasti-

num, remains unhurt, and continues to perform its functions as usual.

PLEURITIS, (*Pleuritis*, ἰdis, f. πλευριτις; from πλευρα, the membrane lining the lungs). Pleurisy, or inflammation of the pleura. A species of pneumonia of Cullen. See *Pneumonia*. In some instances the inflammation is partial, or affects one place in particular which is commonly on the right side; but in general, a morbid affection is communicated throughout its whole extent. The disease is occasioned by exposure to cold, and by all the causes which usually give rise to all inflammatory complaints; and it attacks chiefly those of a vigorous constitution and plethoric habit. In consequence of the previous inflammation, it is apt at its departure to leave behind a thickening of the pleura, or adhesions to the ribs and intercostal muscles, which either lay the foundation of future pneumonic complaints, or render the patient more susceptible of the changes in the state of the atmosphere, than before.

It comes on with an acute pain in the side, which is much increased by making a full inspiration, and is accompanied by flushing in the face, increased heat over the whole body, rigours, difficulty of laying on the side affected, together with a cough and nausea, and the pulse is hard, strong, and frequent, and vibrates under the finger when pressed upon, not unlike the tense string of a musical instrument. If blood is drawn and allowed to stand for a short time, it will exhibit a thick sily or buffy coat on its surface. If the disease be neglected at its onset, and the inflammation proceeds with great violence and rapidity, the lungs themselves become affected, the passage of the blood through them is stopped, and the patient is suffocated; or from the combination of the two affections,

the inflammation proceeds on to sup-
puration, and an abscess is formed.
The prognostic in pleurisy must be
drawn from the severity of the symp-
toms. If the fever and inflammation
have run high, and the pain should
cease suddenly, with a change of
countenance and a sinking of the
pulse, great danger may be apprehend-
ed; but if the heat and other febrile
symptoms abate gradually; if respi-
ration is performed with greater ease
and less pain, and a free and copious
expectoration ensues, a speedy reco-
very may be expected.

The appearances on dissection are
much the same as those mentioned
under the head of pneumonia,
viz. an inflamed state of the pleura,
connected with the lungs, having its
surface covered with red vessels, and
a layer of coagulated lymph lying
upon it, adhesions too, of the sub-
stance of the lungs to the pleura.
Besides these, the lungs themselves
are often found in an inflamed state,
with an extravasation either of blood
or coagulated lymph in their substance.
Tubercles and abscesses are likewise
frequently met with.

PLEURODYNIA, (*Pleurodynia*, *α*,
f. *πλευροδυνία*; from *πλευρα*, and *οδυνη*,
pain). A pain in the side, from a
rheumatic affection of the pleura.

PLEURO-PNEUMONIA, (*Pleuro-
pneumonia*, *α*, f. *πλευρο-περιπνευμονία*;
from *πλευρα*, and *πνευμονία*, an inflam-
mation of the lungs). An inflam-
mation of the lungs and pleura.

PLEXUS, (*Plexus*, *us*, m. from
plector, to plait or knit). A net-
work of vessels. The union of
two or more nerves is also called a
plexus.

PLEXUS, CARDIAC. See *Cardiac
plexus*.

PLEXUS, CHOROIDES. See *Choroid
plexus*.

PLEXUS OESOPHAGEAL. See
Oesophageal.

PLEXUS, PULMŌNIC. See *Pul-
monic plexus*.

PLICA POLONICA, (*Plica*, *α*, f.
from *plico*, to entangle. This dis-
ease is commonly distinguished by the
adjective *Polonica*, it being peculiar
to the inhabitants of Poland and Li-
thuania). Trichoma. A disease of
the hairs, in which they become
long and coarse, and matted and
glued into inextricable tangles. It
is peculiar to Poland and Tartary,
and generally appears during the
autumnal season.

PLUMBAGO, (*Plumbago*, *inis*, f.
from *plumbum*, lead; so called because
it is covered with lead coloured spots).
Lead-wort. An ore of a shining blue
black colour, a greasy feel, and tu-
berculated when fractured. It is
by many erroneously taken for mo-
lybdena, from which it is easily dis-
tinguished by its fracture, that of the
latter being always lamellated. See
Perficaria.

PLUMBAGO EUROPÆA. The
systematic name of the tooth-wort.
See *Dentaria*.

PLUMBUM. See *Lead*.

PLUMBUM CANDIDUM. See
Stannum.

PLUM MALABAR. See *Malabar
plum*.

PLUMS. Three sorts of plums are
ranked amongst the articles of the
materia medica; they are all met
with in the gardens of the country,
but the shops are supplied with them
moderately dried, from abroad. 1.
The *pruna brignolensia*; the brignole
plum, or prune, brought from Brig-
nole in Provence; it is of a reddish
yellow colour, and has a very grate-
ful, sweet, subacid taste. 2. The
pruna gallica; the common or French
prune. 3. The *pruna damascena*, or
damson. See *Damson*. All these
fruits possess the same general quali-
ties with the other summer fruits.
The prunelloes, in which the sweet-

ness has a greater mixture of acidity than in the other sorts, are used as mild refrigerants in fevers and other hot indispositions. The French prunes and damsons are the most emollient and laxative; they are often taken by themselves to gently move the belly, where there is a tendency to inflammations. Decoctions of them afford a useful basis for laxative or purgative mixtures, and the pulp in substance for electuaries.

PNEUMATIC APPARATUS. The discovery of aeriform fluids has, in modern chemistry, occasioned the necessity of some peculiar instruments, by means of which those substances may, in distillations, solutions, or other operations, be caught, collected, and properly managed. The proper instruments for this are styled the pneumatic apparatus. Any kind of air is specifically lighter than any liquid; and therefore, if not decomposed by it, rises through it in bubbles. On this principle rests the essential part of the apparatus, adapted to such operations. Its principal part is the pneumatic trough, which is a kind of reservoir for the liquid, through which the gas is conveyed and caused to rise, and is filled either with water or with quicksilver. Some inches below its brim an horizontal shelf is fastened, in dimension about half or the third part of the trough, and provided on its foremost edge with a row of holes, into which, from underneath, short-necked funnels are fixed. The trough is filled with water sufficient to cover the shelf, to support the receivers, which being previously filled with water or mercury, are placed invertedly, their open end turned down upon the above mentioned holes, through which afterwards the gases, conveyed there and directed by means of the funnels, rise in the form of air-bubbles.

In some cases the trough must be

filled with quicksilver, because water decomposes some kinds of air by absorbing their basis. The price and specific gravity of that metal make it necessary to give to the quicksilver trough smaller dimensions. It is either cut in marble, or made of wood well joined. The late Karsten has contrived an apparatus, which, to the advantage of saving room, adds that of great convenience.

To disengage gases, retorts of glass, either common or tubulated, are employed, and placed in a sand-bath, or heated by the fire of a lamp. Earthen, or coated glass retorts, are put in the naked fire. If necessary, they are joined with a metallic or glass conveying pipe. When, besides the aeriform, other fluids are to be collected, the middle or intermediate bottle finds its use; and to prevent, after cooling, the rising of the water from the trough into the disengaging vessels, the tube of safety is employed. For the extrication of gases taking place in solutions, for which no external heat is required, the bottle called disengaging bottle, or proof, may be used. For receivers, to collect the disengaged airs, various cylinders of glass are used, whether graduated or not, either closed at one end, or open at both; and, in this last case, they are made air-tight by a stopper fitted by grinding. Besides these, glass-bells and common bottles are employed.

To combine with water, in a commodious way, some gases that are only gradually and slowly absorbed by it, the glass-apparatus of Parker is serviceable.

PNEUMATOCĒLE, (*Pneumatocèle*, *es*, f. *πνευματοκήλη*; from *πνευμα*, wind, and *κήλη*, a tumour). Any species of hernia that is distended with flatus.

PNEUMATŌMPHĀLUS, (*Pneumatophalus*, *i*, m. *πνευματοφάλος*; from

πνεύμα, wind, and ομφαλός, the navel). A flatulent, umbilical hernia.

PNEUMATŌSIS, (*Pneumatosis*, is, f. πνευματώσις; from πνεύματις, to inflate). *Emphysema*, or windy swelling. A genus of disease in the class *cachexia*, and order *intumescentiæ* of Cullen, known by a collection of air in the cellular texture under the skin, rendering it tense, elastic, and crepitating. The species of pneumatosis are: 1. *Pneumatosis spontanea*, without any manifest cause. 2. *Pneumatosis traumatica*, from a wound. 3. *Pneumatosis venenata*, from poisons. 4. *Pneumatosis hysterica*, with hysteria.

PNEUMŌNIA, (*Pneumonia*, æ, f. πνευμονία, from πνεύμων, a lung). Inflammation of the lungs. A genus of disease in the class *pyrexia* and order *phlegmasia* of Cullen; characterized by pyrexia, difficult respiration, cough, and a sense of weight and pain in the thorax. The species of pneumonia, according to the above nosologist, are, 1. *Peripneumonia*. The pulse not always hard, but sometimes soft: an obtuse pain in the breast; the respiration always difficult; sometimes the patient cannot breathe, unless in an upright posture; the face swelled, and of a livid colour; the cough for the most part moist, frequently bloody. 2. *Pleuritis*. The pulse hard; a pungent pain in one side, aggravated during the time of inspiration; an uneasiness when lying on one side; a very painful cough, dry in the beginning of the disease, afterwards moist, and frequently bloody. See *Pleuritis*.

With respect to pneumonia, the most general cause of this inflammation, is the application of cold to the body, which gives a check to the perspiration, and determines a great flow of blood to the lungs. It attacks principally those of a robust constitution and plethoric

habit, and occurs most frequently in the winter season and spring of the year; but it may arise in either of the other seasons, when there are sudden vicissitudes from heat to cold.

Other causes, such as violent exertions in singing, speaking, or playing on wind instruments, by producing an increased action of the lungs, have been known to occasion peripneumony. Those who have laboured under a former attack of this complaint, are much predisposed to returns of it.

The true peripneumony comes on with an obtuse pain in the chest or side, great difficulty of breathing, (particularly in a recumbent position, or when lying on the side affected) together with a cough, dryness of the skin, heat, anxiety, and thirst. At the first commencement of the disease the pulse is usually full, strong, hard, and frequent; but in a more advanced stage it is commonly weak, soft, and often irregular. In the beginning, the cough is frequently dry and without expectoration; but in some cases it is moist even from the first, and the matter spit up is various both in colour and consistence, and is often streaked with blood.

If relief is not afforded in time, and the inflammation proceeds with such violence as to endanger suffocation, the vessels of the neck will become turgid and swelled; the face will alter to a purple colour; an effusion of blood will take place into the cellular substance of the lungs, so as to impede the circulation through that organ, and the patient will soon be deprived of life.

If these violent symptoms do not arise, and the proper means for carrying off the inflammation have either been neglected, or have proved ineffectual, although adopted at an early period of the disease, a suppuration may ensue, which event is to be known by frequent slight shiverings,

and an abatement of the pain and sense of fullness in the part, and by the patient not being able to lay on the side which was affected, without experiencing great uneasiness.

When peripneumony proves fatal, it is generally by an effusion of blood taking place into the cellular texture of the lungs, so as to occasion suffocation, which usually happens between the third and seventh day; but it may likewise prove fatal, by terminating either in suppuration or gangrene.

When it goes off by resolution, some very evident evacuation always attends it; such as a great flow of urine, with a copious sediment, diarrhæa, a sweat diffused over the whole body, or a hæmorrhage from the nose; but the evacuation which most frequently terminates the complaint, and which does it with the greatest effect, is a free and copious expectoration of thick white or yellow matter, slightly streaked with blood, and by this the disease is carried off generally in the course of ten or twelve days.

Our opinion as to the event, is to be drawn from the symptoms which are present. A high degree of fever, attended with delirium, great difficulty of breathing, acute pain, and dry cough, denote great danger: on the contrary, an abatement of the febrile symptoms, and of the difficulty of breathing, and pain, taking place on the coming on of a free expectoration, or the happening of any other critical evacuation, promises fair for the recovery of the patient. A termination of the inflammation in suppuration, is always to be considered as dangerous.

On dissection, the lungs usually appear inflamed, and there is often found an extravasation, either of blood, or of coagulable lymph in their cellular substance. The same appearances likewise present them-

selves in the cavity of the thorax and within the pericardium. The pleura, connected with the lungs, is also in an inflamed state, having its surface every where crowded with red vessels. Besides these, abscesses are frequently found in the substance of the lungs, as likewise tubercles and adhesions to the ribs are formed. A quantity of purulent matter is often discovered also in the bronchiæ.

PODĀGRA, (*Podagra*, *a*, f. *ποδάγρα*; from *πῶς*, the foot, and *ἀγρᾶ*, a taking or seizure). The gout. A genus of disease in the class *pyrexia* and order *phlegmasiæ* of Cullen; known by pyrexia, pain in the joints, chiefly of the great toe, and especially the hands and feet, returning at intervals: previous to the attack, the functions of the stomach are commonly disturbed. Species. 1. *Podagra regularis*, the regular gout. 2. *Podagra atonica*, the atonic gout. 3. *Podagra retrograda*, the retrocedent gout. 4. *Podagra aberrans*, misplaced or wandering gout.

POISON. *Venenum*. That substance which when applied externally, or taken into the human body, uniformly effects such a derangement in the animal œconomy as to produce disease, may be defined a poison. It is extremely difficult, however, to give a definition of a poison; and the above is subject to great inaccuracy. Poisons are divided, with respect to the kingdom to which they belong, into animal, vegetable, mineral, and halituous poisons, or vapours.

Poisons are only deleterious in certain doses; for the most active, in small doses, form the most valuable medicines. There are, nevertheless, certain poisons, which are really such in the smallest quantity, and which are never administered medicinally; as the poison of hydrophobia, the plague. There are likewise substances which

are innocent when taken into the stomach, but which prove deleterious when taken into the lungs, or when applied to an abraded surface; thus carbonic acid is continually swallowed with fermented liquors, and thus the poison of the viper may be taken with impunity; whilst inspiring carbonic acid kills, and the poison of the viper inserted into the flesh, often proves fatal.

Several substances also act as poisons when applied either externally or internally, as arsenic.

When a substance produces disease not only in mankind but in all animals, it is distinguished by the term *common poison*, as arsenic, sublimate, &c. whilst that which is poisonous to man only, or to animals, and often to one genus, is said to be a *relative poison*; thus aloes are poisonous to dogs and wolves; the phellandrium aquaticum kills horses, whilst oxen devour it greedily, and with impunity. It appears, then, that substances act as poisons only in regard to their *dose, the part of the body they are applied to, and the subject.*

Poisons may enter the body in the following ways:

1. Through the œsophagus with the food.
2. Through the anus with glysters.
3. Through the nostrils with odorous substances.
4. Through the lungs with the air.
5. Through the absorbents of the skin, either whole, ulcerated, cut, or torn.

In regard to the nature of their *constituent principles*, they are divided into

1. *Acrid poisons*, as drastic and corrosive vegetables; acid, alkaline, metallic, and acido-metallic minerals; deleterious and necrotic animals.
2. *Narcotic*, as certain vegetables.
3. *Narcotico-acrid*, which kill with both principles.

4. *Halituous*, which suffocate by a noxious vapour.

5. *Mechanical poisons*, which act by their mechanical power.

In regard of the symptoms which are produced by poisons, they are divided into

1. *Inflammatory*, which induce inflammation and gangrene.
2. *Drastic*, which operate by purging and vomiting.
3. *Convulsive*, which excite spasms and convulsions.
4. *Paralytic*, which induce palsy of the extremities and heart; as lead preparations, the lauro-cerasus, &c.
5. *Narcotic*, which cause coma, amaurosis, and delirium.
6. *Suffocative*, which suffocate by a mephitic vapour.
7. *Exsiccant*, which bring on tabes; as lead preparations.
8. *Septic*, which induce a tendency to putridity in the blood, and gangrene.

A table of the ANIMALS which are considered as poisonous.

AMERICAN SNAKES.

1. *Crotalus horridus.*

Its antidote is the radix seneka, volatile alkali, and common salt.

2. *Crotalus miliaris.*
3. *Crotalus dryinus.*
4. *Crotalus durissus.*
5. *Crotalus mutus.*
6. *Crotalus atropos.*
7. *Coluber heberis.*
8. *Coluber dipsas.*
9. *Coluber mysericans.*
10. *Coluber lacteus.*

The antidote to all these are the seneka root, volatile alkali, and common salt.

ASIATIC SERPENTS.

11. *Coluber naga.*

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12. *Coluber severus*.
13. *Coluber stolatus*.
14. *Coluber atrox*.
15. *Coluber corallinus*.
16. *Coluber ammodytes*.
17. *Coluber lebetinus*.

The antidote to all these is the radix mungos internally, with the general caustic applications, extirpation, &c.

AFRICAN SERPENTS.

18. *Coluber vipera*.
19. *Coluber niveus*.
20. *Coluber baje*.

Caustic application, extirpation, &c. are generally adopted.

EUROPEAN SERPENTS.

21. *Coluber berus*.

The leaves of the fraxinus, eau de luce, &c. are applied to the bite of this serpent.

22. *Coluber prester*.

Its antidote is olive oil.

23. *Coluber chersea*.

Scarification, cupping glasses, and Spanish flies powdered, are applied to the bite.

24. *Coluber aspis*.

Volatile alkali is here most efficacious, both internally and externally.

25. *Coluber illyricus*.

The radix gentiana, with mercury, are given internally.

POISONOUS INSECTS.

1. *Furia infernalis*.

Extirpation.

2. *Meloe vesicatorius*.

When Spanish flies are swallowed in too large a dose, emetics, purgatives, and mucilaginous and oily drinks, are given.

3. *Meloe majalis*.

4. *Meloe proscarabeus*.

The same antidote as the Spanish fly.

5. *Scorpio Africanus*.

Its antidote is the application of oil.

6. *Phalangium araneodes*.

Treacle is applied with success.

7. *Culex lanio*.

8. *Sirexigas*.

The antidote to these are oily applications.

9. *Buprestis*.

These insects, when swallowed, kill, unless oil and vomits are given.

10. *Aranea domestica*.

11. *Aranea tarantula*.

Applications of volatile alkali are most efficacious.

12. *Pulex Americanus*.

This very small insect penetrates the cuticle, and requires extirpation.

13. *Culex pipeas*.

14. *Culex pulicaris*.

Volatile alkali allays the swelling produced by these insects.

15. *Apis mellifica*.

16. *Vespa vulgaris*.

17. *Vespa crabo*.

Cold water with vinegar or sugar of lead, allay the mischief they create.

POISONOUS WORMS.

1. *Gordius medenensis*.

This singular worm must be gradually twisted round any substance, and thus drawn out from underneath the skin.

2. *Gordius marinus*.

The internal use of antiscorbutics: this worm producing a species of leprosy.

3. *Hirudo venenatus*.

When this leach is swallowed, salt and water, and oil, must be taken to kill it.

4. *Tethys marina*.

5. *Urtica marina*.

Cold water and volatile alkali should be applied.

AMPHIBIOUS POISONOUS ANIMALS.

1. *Rana bufo*.

2. *Lacerta agilis*.

3. *Lacerta salamandra*.

Volatile alkaline applications, with cold water, are applied with advantage.

POISONOUS FISHES.

1. *Tetradon scellatus*.

2. *Tetradon lineatus*.

3. *Trachinus draco*.

4. *Perca venenosa*.

Vomits and acid of lemon are to be exhibited against these.

5. *Raja pastinaca*.

This produces a wound very difficult of cure.

6. *Raja torpedo*.

The touch of this fish produces a paralytic affection of the arm for some little time.

7. *Gumnotus electricus*.

This strikes the part which touches it like a shock of electricity.

8. *Sparus pagurus*.

Emetics and acids are to be given when this is swallowed,

OTHER ANIMAL POISONS.

1. *Mytilus edulis*.

2. *Ostrea venenata*.

3. *Ovum putridum*.

4. *Pinguedo rancida*.

5. *Animal putridum*.

Vomits are first to be given, then aromatics.

6. *Miasma luis bovillæ*.

The pustules and ulcers from the cow pox are cured by purgatives and deterfive applications.

7. *Virus rabiorum*.

When hydrophobia is induced, no remedy has hitherto been found efficacious. Extirpation, immediately after the wound is inflicted, is the only certain prophylaxis.

8. *Virus variolosum*.

9. *Virus morbillosum*.

10. *Virus scarlatinum*.

11. *Virus scabiosum*.

12. *Virus venereum*.

13. *Virus plicosum*.

14. *Virus cancrorum*.

15. *Virus leprosum*.

16. *Virus pestilentielle*.

All these are considered under the medicinal treatment of small pox, measles, scarlatina, &c.

A table of the VEGETABLES which are considered as poisons.

NARCOTIC POISONOUS VEGETABLES.

1. *Papaver somniferum*.

Vomits, acids, and the other anti-narcotics mentioned at the end of this table, are the antidotes.

2. *Opium*.

This requires the same antidotes.

3. *Physalis somnifera*.

4. *Solanum lycopersicum*.

5. *Solanum mammosum*.

6. *Solanum insanum*.

7. *Solanum dulcamara*.

8. *Solanum nigrum*.

9. *Atropa mandragora*.

10. *Datura stramonium*.

11. *Datura metel*.

12. *Datura ferox*.

13. *Datura tatula*.

14. *Hyosciamus niger*.

The antidotes are first vomits, which also purge, then vinegar and oil.

15. *Hyosciamus albus*.

16. *Hyosciamus physalodes*.

17. *Hyosciamus scopolia*.

18. *Azalea pontica*.

19. *Antirrhinum orontium*.

20. *Actea spicata*.

21. *Lolium temulentum*.

22. *Ervum ervilja*.

23. *Lathyrus cicera*.

24. *Peganum harmela*.

25. *Chenopodium hybridum*.

26. *Cheledonium glaucium*.

27. *Taxus baccata*.
28. *Laduca virofa*.
29. *Laduca scariola*.
30. *Paris quadrifolia*.
31. *Prunus lauro-cerasus*.

Against all these narcotics are recommended, after vomiting,

1. *Acids* ; as vinegar, lemon juice, spirits of vitriol diluted.
2. A very strong infusion of *Turkey coffee*.
3. Small doses of *ipécacuan*, to promote a powerful sweating.
4. *Glysters* of vinegar, or soap dissolved.
5. *Blisters* to the neck.
6. *Wine*.
7. Alkaline salts and borax.

NARCOTIC AND ACRID VEGETABLE POISONS.

1. *Hippomane mancinella*.
An emetic and purge, then milk and rice broth.
2. *Hippomane biglandulosa*.
3. *Cocculus indicus*.
4. *Coriaria myrtifolia*.
5. *Strychnos nux vomica*.
6. *Strychnos colubrina*.
7. *Ignatia amara*.
8. *Nerium oleander*.
9. *Atropa belladonna*.
10. *Nicotiana tabacum*.
11. *Nicotiana rustica*.
12. *Nicotiana paniculata*.
14. *Nicotiana glutinosa*.
15. *Bryonia alba*.
16. *Cherophyllum sylvestre*.
17. *Cherophyllum bulbosum*.
18. *Cherophyllum temulentum*.
19. *Cethusa cynapium*.
20. *Sium latifolium*.
21. *Cicuta virofa*.
22. *Conium maculatum*.
23. *Mercurialis perennis*.

POISONOUS FUNGUSES.

1. *Agaricus muscarius*.
2. *Agaricus integer venenatus*, Krapfii.

3. *Agaricus integer viscidus*, Krapfii.
4. *Agaricus lactifluus venenatus*, Krapfii.
5. *Agaricus piperatus*.
6. *Agaricus fimetarius*.
7. *Agaricus pustulatus*.
8. *Agaricus necator*.
9. *Agaricus sanguineus*.
10. *Agaricus viscidus*.
11. *Agaricus clypeatus*.
12. *Boletus versicolor*.
13. *Boletus elegans*.
14. *Boleti parasitica*.
15. *Phallus impudicus*.
16. *Phallus mukusfn*.
17. *Lycoperdon carcinomalis*.
18. And several others not yet scientifically named.

ACRID VEGETABLE POISONS.

1. *Delphinia staphisagria*.
2. *Veratrum sabadilla*.
3. *Rhododendron crysanthium*.
4. *Fritillaria imperialis*.
5. *Colchicum autumnale*.
6. *Pedicularis palustris*.
7. *Digitalis purpurea*.
8. *Cyclamen europæum*.
9. *Plumbago europæa*.
10. *Convolvulus scammonium*.
11. *Cucumis colocynthis*.
12. *Momordica elaterium*.
13. *Gambogia gutta*.
14. *Cerbera abovai*.
15. *Cerbera manghas*.
16. *Cynanchum erectum*.
17. *Lobelia syphilitica*.
18. *Lobelia longifolia*.
19. *Cynanchum vimiale*.
20. *Apocynum androsatifolium*.
21. *Apocynum cannabinum*.
22. *Apocynum venetum*.
23. *Asclepias gigantea*.
24. *Hydrocotyle vulgaris*.
25. *Ceanothe fistulosa*.
26. *Ceanothe crocata*.
27. *Scandix infesta*.
28. *Thapsia fetida*.
29. *Alisma plantago aquatica*.

30. *Clematis vitalba.*
31. *Clematis flammula.*
32. *Clematis recta.*
33. *Clematis integrifolia.*
34. *Anemone palmata.*
35. *Anemone pulsatilla.*
36. *Anemone pratensis.*
37. *Anemone narcissiflora.*
38. *Anemone nemerosa.*
39. *Anemone ranunculoides.*
40. *Veratrum album.*
41. *Helleborus niger.*
42. *Helleborus fatidus.*
43. *Veratrum nigrum.*
44. *Caltha palustris.*
45. *Aconitum napellus.*
46. *Aconitum cammarum.*
47. *Aconitum lycoctonum.*
48. *Aconitum athora.*
49. *Pastinaca sativa annosa.*
50. *Poligonum hydropiper.*
51. *Sclanthus quadragonus.*
52. *Sclanthus forskalli.*
53. *Sclanthus glandulosus.*
54. *Jatropha curcas.*
55. *Jatropha multifida.*
56. *Jatropha manihot.*
57. *Ricinus communis.*
58. *Phytolacca decandra.*
59. *Croton tiglium.*
60. *Daphne mezereum.*
61. *Daphne thymelaea.*
62. *Daphne laureola.*
63. *Daphne cneorum.*
64. *Daphne gnidium.*
65. *Cneorum tricoccum.*
66. *Amyris toxifera.*
67. *Rhus vernix.*
68. *Rhus radicans.*
69. *Rhus toxicodendron.*
70. *Scilla maritima.*
71. *Excoecaria agallocha.*
72. *Anacardium orientale.*
73. *Anacardium occidentale.*
74. *Caryota urens.*
75. *Arum maculatum.*
76. *Arum dracunculus.*
77. *Arum dracontium.*
78. *Arum colocasia.*
79. *Arum esculentum.*
80. *Arum virginicum.*

81. *Arum arborescens.*
82. *Arum seguinum.*
83. *Calla palustris.*
84. *Euphorbia officinarum.*
85. *Euphorbia antiquorum.*
86. *Euphorbia canariensis.*
87. *Euphorbia tirucalli.*
88. *Euphorbia peplus.*
89. *Euphorbia lathyrus.*
90. *Euphorbia helioscopia.*
91. *Euphorbia verrucosa.*
92. *Euphorbia platyphyllos.*
93. *Euphorbia esula.*
94. *Euphorbia cyparissias.*
95. *Euphorbia hiberna.*
96. *Euphorbia characias.*
97. *Euphorbia amygdaloides.*
98. *Euphorbia sylvatica.*
99. *Euphorbia exigua acuta.*
100. *Euphorbia mauritanica.*
101. *Euphorbia nerifolia.*
102. *Ranunculus acris.*
103. *Ranunculus sceleratus.*
104. *Ranunculus flammula.*
105. *Ranunculus bulbosus.*
106. *Ranunculus ficaria.*
107. *Ranunculus thora.*
108. *Ranunculus arvensis.*
109. *Ranunculus lingua.*
110. *Ranunculus alpestris.*
111. *Ranunculus polyanthemus.*
112. *Ranunculus illyricus.*
113. *Ranunculus gramineus.*
114. *Ranunculus asiaticus.*
115. *Ranunculus aquatilis.*
116. *Ranunculus platanifolius.*
117. *Ranunculus breynius.*
118. *Ranunculus sardous.*
119. *Rhaphanus raphanistrum.*
120. *Secale cornutum.* Its antidote
is milk.

The usual and most approved antidotes to all these are, after vomiting and purging, emollient substances; as panada, with butter, and wine and cordials to support the strength.

GLUTINOUS VEGETABLE POISONS.

1. *Ilex aquifolium.*
2. *Viscum album.*
3. *Rosa canina.*

A Table of the MINERAL Substances which are considered as poisonous.

MECHANICAL MINERAL POISONS.

1. *Vitrum contusum.*
2. *Smalta.*
3. *Gemma adamas.*
4. *Amianthus plumosus.*
5. *Cuprum lapis lazuli.*
6. *Fuligo caminorum.*

Mucilaginous substances, with oil or butter, are found to be most serviceable against these.

POISONOUS EARTHS COMMONLY SO TERMED.

1. *Gypsum.*
2. *Selenites.*
3. *Nitrum crystallus montana.*

Mucilaginous and oily substances, with absorbent earth, are given to obviate the symptoms arising from these.

POISONOUS ACIDS.

1. *Acidum sulphuricum.*
2. *Acidum muriaticum.*
3. *Acidum nitricum.*
4. *Acidum nitrosum.*
5. *Aqua regia.*
6. *Zincum vitriolatum.*
7. *Cuprum vitriolatum.*
8. *Ferrum vitriolatum.*

Alkalis and oily medicines only are serviceable, and antiphlogistics.

ALKALINE POISONS.

1. *Kali purum.*
2. *Soda pura.*
3. *Aque ammoniæ pura.*
4. *Lapis causticus.*
5. *Aqua kali puri.*
6. *Calx pura.*

Diluted acids are to be given immediately, then oily and mucilaginous substances.

METALLIC POISONS.

1. *Aurum fulminans.*

2. *Preparata argenti.*
3. *Preparata bismuthi.*
4. *Preparata cupri.*
5. *Preparata plumbi.*
6. *Preparata stanni.*

Alkaline salts, vomiting after; with milk and oily foods.

MERCURIAL POISONS.

1. *Hydrargyrus muriatus.*
2. *Calomel as impurus.*
3. *Hydrargyrus muriatus mitis.*
4. *Calx hydrargyri alba.*
5. *Hydrargyrus nitratu ruber.*
6. *Hydrargyrus vitriolatus.*

Alkaline salts are recommended as the best antidotes against mercurial poisons.

ANTIMONIAL POISONS.

1. *Antimonium.*
2. *Antimonium sublimatum.*
3. *Antimonium muratum.*
4. *Vitrum antimonii.*
5. *Crocus antimonii.*
6. *Antimonium tartarizatum.*
7. *Mercurius vitæ.*
8. *Hepar antimonii.*
9. *Sulphur antimonii præcipitatum.*

Oily and mucilaginous substances, with cordials, and then opium, allay the violent vomiting and purging usually produced by antimonial preparations.

ARSENICAL POISONS.

1. *Arsenicum album.*
2. *Arsenicum flavum.*
3. *Arsenicum rubrum.*
4. *Auripigmentum.*
5. *Arsenicum.*
6. *Arsenicum porosum.*
7. *Cobaltum arsenicale.*

The hepar sulphuris is found the best antidote against arsenical preparations.

*A Table of the MEPHITIC VAPOURS
usually considered as poisonous.*

POISONOUS MINERAL ACID VA-
POURS.

1. *Halitus sulphuris accensi.*
2. *Gaz acidi sulphurici.*
3. *Gaz acidi muriatici.*
4. *Gaz acidi nitrosi.*
5. *Gaz acidum carbonicum.*
 - a. In the *Grotto del Cano*, &c.
 - b. From fermenting liquors.
 - c. From fermenting dough.
 - d. From the waters of *Pyrmont*, &c.
 - e. From the burning of lime.
 - f. From the burning of bricks, &c.

Pure air thrown into the lungs through a tube introduced into the trachea; stimulating volatile applications thrown into the stomach, and tobacco glysters, are recommended.

POISONOUS ALKALINE VAPOURS.

1. *Alkali volatile*, from putrid urine, &c.

PUTRID VAPOURS.

1. From dead putrifying animals.
2. From dead putrifying vegetables.
3. Air corrupted by breathing.
4. Air corrupted by animal perspiration.

The best antidotes is pure air.

POLEY-MOUNTAIN. See *Polium creticum*, and *Polium montanum*.

POLĪUM, (*Polium*, i, n. πολιον, from πολιος, white; so called from its white capillaments). Poley.

POLĪUM CRETICUM. Candy poley-mountain. *Teucrium creticum* of Linnæus. The tops and whole herb enter the antiquated compounds *mithridate* and *theriaca*. The plant is obtained from the island of Candy; has a moderately aromatic smell, and a nauseous bitter taste. It is placed amongst the aperients and corroborants.

POLĪUM MONTANUM. Poley-

mountain of Montpellier. This plant, *Teucrium capitatum* of Linnæus, bears the winter of our climate, and is generally substituted for the candy species.

POLLEX, (*Pollex*, icis, m.). The thumb, or great toe.

POLYDIPSĪA, (*Polydipsia*, æ, f. πολιδίψια, from πολυ-, much, and διψ-, thirst). Excessive thirst. A genus of disease in the class *locales*, and order *dysorexia* of Cullen. It is mostly symptomatic of fever, dropsy, excessive discharges, or poisons.

POLŸGĀLA, (*Polygala*, æ, f. πολυγαλα, from πολυ-, much, and γαλα, milk, so named from its abundance of milky juice). *Polygalon*. Common milk wort. The root of this plant, *Polygala vulgaris* of Linnæus, is somewhat similar in taste to that of the *seneka*, but much weaker. The leaves are very bitter, and a handful of them infused in wine is said to be a safe and gentle purge.

POLŸGĀLA AMĀRA. This is a remarkably bitter plant, and though not used in this country, promises to be as efficacious as those in greater repute. It has been given freely in phthisis pulmonalis, and, like other remedies, failed in producing a cure: yet, as a palliative, it claims attention. Its virtues are balsamic, demulcent, and corroborant.

POLŸGĀLA SENĒGA. The systematic name of the rattlesnake milk wort. See *Seneka*.

POLŸGĀLA VULGĀRIS. The systematic name of the common milk wort. See *Polygala*.

POLŸGŌNUM, (*Polygonum*, i, n. πολυγονον, from πολυ-, many, and γον-, a joint; so named from its numerous joints). Knot grass.

POLŸGŌNUM AVICŪLĀRE. The systematic name of the knot-grass. See *Centumnodia*.

POLŸGŌNUM BISTORTA. The systematic name of the officinal bistort. See *Bistorta*.

POLYGÖNUM DIVARICATUM. The systematic name of the eastern buck-wheat plant. See *Buck-wheat, eastern*.

POLYGÖNUM FAGOPYRUM. The systematic name of the buck-wheat. See *Buck-wheat*.

POLYGÖNUM HYDROPIPER. The systematic name of the poor man's pepper. See *Hydropiper*.

POLYGÖNUM PERSICARIA. The systematic name of arsmart. See *Persicaria*.

POLYTRICHUM COMMUNE, (Polytrichum, or on, i, n. πολυτριχον, from πολυ, many, and τριξ, hair; so called from its resemblance to a woman's hair, or because, in ancient times, women used to dye the hair with it, to keep it from shedding). The systematic name of the golden maidenhair. See *Adiantum aureum*.

POLYPODIUM, (Polypodium, i, n. πολυποδιον, from πολυ, many, and ποδ, a foot; so called from its numerous ramifications, which resemble the polypus). Common polypody. Polypody of the oak. Polypodium vulgare of Linnæus. The leaves of polypody have a weak ungrateful smell, and a nauseous sweet taste, leaving a kind of roughness and slight acrimony in the mouth. They give out their smell and taste, together with a yellow colour, both to water and rectified spirit. The spirituous tincture is sweeter than the watery; but in inspissation its sweetness is in great part destroyed, or covered by the other matter; the spirituous extract, as Cartheuser observes, being to the taste only subadstringent and subacid, with very little sweetness, while the watery extract retains the full sweetness of the polypody.

The root of the *polypodium quercinum*, or those that grow on the oak, has been most esteemed for medicinal use, though no just reason can be assigned for this preference. By the antients it was employed as a pur-

gative, and thought to be peculiarly useful in expelling bile and pituitous humours, therefore much used in maniacal and melancholical disorders; but, to act as a cathartic, the root must be exhibited in its recent state, and in a large dose. Another character in which it has been recommended, and for which, from its sensible qualities, it seems to promise more advantage, is that of a demulcent or pectoral; thus, joined with liquorice, its good effects have been experienced in coughs and asthmatic affections. However, it is now rarely used in this country, nor have the French authors, Poissoner and Malouin, who have cited instances of its success in mania, been able to restore to it its antient reputation in this calamitous disorder.

POLYPODIUM FILIX MAS. The systematic name of the male fern. See *Filix mas*.

POLYPODIUM VULGARE. The systematic name of the common polypody. See *Polypodium*.

POLYPODY. See *Polypodium*.

POLYPODY, MALE. See *Filix mas*.

POLYPUS, (Polypus, i, vel podis, m. πολυπυς, from πολυ, many, and πω, a foot, from its sending off many ramifications like legs). This term is generally given to a sarcomatous substance, that frequently arises in the nostrils, uterus, &c. from its having many attachments or roots. They vary from each other according to the different causes that produced them, and the alterations that happen in them. Sometimes a polypus is owing to a swelling of the pituitary membrane, which swelling may possess a greater or less space of the membrane, as also its cellular substance, and may affect either one or both nostrils. At other times it arises from an ulcer produced by a caries of some of the bones which form the internal surface of the nostrils. Polypuses are sometimes so

soft, that upon the least touch they are lacerated, and bleed; at other times they are very compact, and even scirrhus. Some continue small a great while; others increase so fast as in a short time to push out at the nostrils, or extend backwards towards the throat. Le Dran mentions, that he has known them fill up the space behind the uvula, and turning towards the mouth, have protruded the fleshy arch of the palate so far forwards as to make it parallel with the third *dentes molares*. There are others which, though at first free from any malignant disposition, become afterwards carcinomatous, and even highly cancerous. Of whatever nature the polypus is, it intercepts the passage of the air through the nostril, and, when large, forces the *septum narium* into the other nostril, so that the patient is unable to breathe, unless through the mouth. A large polypus pressing in like manner upon the spongy bones, gradually forces them down upon the maxillary bones, and thus compresses and stops up the orifice of the *ductus lachrymalis*; nor is it impossible for the sides of the *canalis nasalis* to be pressed together. In which case, the tears having no passage through the nose, the eye is kept constantly watering, and the *sacculus lachrymalis* not being able to discharge its contents, is sometimes so much dilated, as to form what is called a flat *fistula*. The above writer has seen instances of polypuses so much enlarged as to force down the ossa palati.

The coagulable substance which is found in the cavities of the heart of those who are some time *in articulo mortis*, is improperly called a polypus.

POLYSARCHIA, (*Polysarchia*, α , f. *πολυσαρκια*, from *πολυς*, much, and *σαρξ*, flesh). Troublesome corpulency or fatness. A genus of disease in the class *cachexia* and order *intumescencia* of Cullen.

POMA, (*Pomum*, *i*, n. pl. *poma*). See *Apples*.

POMEGRANATE. See *Granatum*.

POMPHOLYX, (*Pompholyx*, $\gamma\gamma\iota\varsigma$, f. *πομφολυξ*, from *πομφος*, a bladder). See *Tutia*.

POMUM ADAMI, (*Pomum*, *i*, n. an apple; so called because it was thought to have originated in consequence of Adam having eaten the forbidden fruit). The protuberance in the anterior part of the neck, formed by the fore part of the thyroid cartilage.

PONS VAROLII. *Corpus annulare. Processus annularis. Eminencia annularis*. Varolius's bridge. An eminence of the medulla oblongata, first described by Varolius. It is formed by the two exterior crura of the cerebellum becoming flattened and passing over the crura of the cerebrum.

POORMAN'S PEPPER. See *Lepeidium*.

POPLAR. See *Populus*.

POPLES, (*Poples*, $\iota\iota\varsigma$, m.). The ham, or joint of the knee.

POPLITEAL ARTERY, (*Arteria poplitea*, from *poples*, the ham). The continuation of the crural artery, through the hollow of the ham.

POPLITEUS, (*Popliteus musculus*, from *poples*, the ham).

POPPY, RED CORN. See *Papaver erraticum*.

POPPY, WHITE. See *Papaver album*.

PŌPŪLUS, (*Populus*, *i*, f. from *πολυς*, many, because of the multitude of its shoots). Of this tree, *Populus nigra* of Linnæus, the black poplar, the young buds, *oculi*, or rudiments of the leaves, which appear in the beginning of the spring, were formerly employed in an official ointment. At present they are almost entirely disregarded, though they should seem, from their sensible qualities, to be applicable to purposes of some importance. They have a

yellow, unctuous, odorous, balsamic juice.

POPŪLUS BALSĀMIFERA. See *Tacamahacus*.

POPŪLUS NIGRA, The systematic name of the black poplar. See *Populus*.

PORI BILIARII. The biliary pores or ducts, that receive the bile from the penicilli of the liver, and convey it to the hepatic duct.

PORRIGO, (*Porrigo*, *g̃inis*, f. a *porrigendo*, from its spreading abroad). A disease very common among children, in which the skin of the hairy part of the head becomes dry and callous, and comes off like a scale upon combing the head.

PORRUM, (*Porrum*, *i*, n.). The common leek. *Allium porrum* of Linnaeus. Every part of this plant, but more particularly the root, abounds with a peculiar odour. The expressed juice possesses diuretic qualities, and is given in the cure of dropical diseases, and calculous complaints.

PORTA, (*Porta*, *æ*, f. a *portando*, because through it the blood is carried to the liver). That part of the liver where its vessels enter.

PORTÆ VENA. See *Vena porta*.

PORTIO DURA, (*Portio*, *onis*, f.). One branch of the seventh pair of nerves is called *portio dura*, the hard portion, either from its being more firm than the other, or because it runs into the hard part of the skull; and the other the *portio mollis*, or soft portion). Facial nerve. This nerve arises near the pons from the crus of the brain, enters the petrous portion of the temporal bone, gives off a branch into the tympanum, which is called the chorda tympani, and then proceeds to form the *pes anserinus* on the face, from whence the integuments of the face are supplied with nerves. See *Facial nerve*.

PORTIO MOLLIS. Auditory nerve. This nerve arises from the medulla oblongata and fourth ventricle of the

brain, enters the petrous portion of the temporal bone, and is distributed, by innumerable branches, not only to the cochlea, but also to the membrane lining the vestibulum and semicircular canals, and is the immediate organ of hearing.

PORTULĀCA, (*Portulaca*, *æ*, f. from *porto*, to carry, and *lac*, milk; because it increases the animal milk). Purslane. The plant which is so called in dietical and medical writings, is the *Portulaca oleracea* of Linnaeus; it abounds with a watery and somewhat acid juice, and is often put into soups, or pickled with spices. It is said to be antiseptic and aperient.

PORTULĀCA OLERACĒA. The systematic name of the eatable purslane. See *Portulaca*.

POSTERIOR ANNULĀRIS, (*Musculus posterior annularis*). An external interosseal muscle of the hand, that extends and draws the ring finger inwards.

POSTERIOR INDICIS, (*Musculus posterior indicis*). An internal interosseal muscle of the hand, that extends the fore finger obliquely, and draws it outwards.

POSTERIOR MEDII. An external interosseal muscle of the hand, that extends the middle finger, and draws it outwards.

POT-ASH, (*Potassa*, *æ*, f.). *Kali* of the pharmacœias. This alkali may be extracted from various substances; and it is more or less pure according as it is afforded by one substance or another. Several varieties are made in commerce, to which different names have been affixed, and which are indispensably necessary to be known. The chemist may, indeed, confound all these distinctions, in his writings, under one single denomination; but the distinctions established by the artists, are founded upon a series of experiments, which have proved that the virtues of these several alkalis are very different; and

this constant variety in their effects, appears to justify the various denominations assigned to them.

1. The alkali extracted from the lixivium of wood ashes, is known by the name of salin. The salin calcined, and by this means disengaged from all the blackening principles, forms pot-ash.

The ashes are more or less rich in alkali, according to the nature of the wood which affords them. In general, hard woods contain the most. The ashes of beech afford from 11 to 13 lb. per quintal, according to the experiments which have been made, in the large way, at St. Saviour; those of box afforded from 12 to 14 lb. The tables drawn up by the several administrators of the gunpowder and saltpetre manufactories may be consulted, respecting the quantity of alkali afforded by the combustion of several plants; they used 4000 lb. of each in their various experiments.

To extract this alkali, nothing more is necessary than to wash the ashes, and to concentrate the dissolution in boilers of cast iron. It is on account of the alkali that wood ashes are employed in the lixivia used by laundresses or bleachers. The use of alkali in this case, is to combine with the fat substances, and to render them soluble in water.

Almost all the pot-ash sold in commerce for the use of our glass-houses, our soap-makers, our bleaching-grounds, &c. is fabricated in the north, where the abundance of wood admits of its being applied to this single purpose. Works of this kind might be established to sufficient advantage in the forests of other kingdoms; but there is more to be done than is generally supposed, before the inhabitants of the mountains can be turned towards this species of industry. Mons. Chaptal has experienced this difficulty in the attempts;

and very considerable sacrifices have been made by him, to secure this resource in the neighbourhood of Laigoual and Lesperou. The accurate calculations which he made, have nevertheless proved, that the pot-ash would cost only from 15 to 17 livres the quintal, whereas they are purchased from the north at 30 or 40 livres.

2d, The lees of wine is almost totally converted into alkali by combustion. This alkali is called *cendres gravelées*; it has almost always a greenish colour. This alkali is considered as very pure.

3d, The combustion of tartar of wine likewise affords an alkali of considerable purity. It is usually burned wrapped up in paper, in small packets, which are dipped in water, and afterwards exposed upon burning coals. In order to purify it, the residue of the combustion is dissolved in water, the solution concentrated by fire, the foreign salts separated in proportion as they precipitate, and a very pure alkali is at last obtained, which is known by the name of *salt of tartar*. To procure salt of tartar more speedily, as well as more economically, I burn a mixture of equal parts of nitrate of pot-ash, or common nitre, and tartar. The residue, after lixiviation, affords a beautiful salt of tartar. Salt of tartar is the alkali most commonly employed in medical uses; it is given in the dose of several grains.

4th, If saltpetre be fused upon charcoal, the acid is decomposed and dissipated, while the alkali remains alone and disengaged; this is called extemporaneous alkali.

When the vegetable alkali has been brought to the greatest state of purity, it attracts the humidity of the air, and is resolved into a liquor. In this state it is known by the very improper name of *Oil of tartar per deliquium*.

POTASSA. See *Pot-ash*.

POTATOE, COMMON. The root of the *Solanum tuberosum* of Linnæus.

A native of Peru. An extremely nutritious and wholesome vegetable.

POTATOE, SPANISH. The root of the *Convolvulus batatas* of Linnæus. It is a native of the Indies. It is firm, and of a pale brown on the outside; white within; and very sweet, like chefnuts, and the only esculent root of the genus convolvulus.

POTENTILLA, (*Potentilla*, æ, f. a *potentia*, from its efficacy). Wild tanfy. *Argentina*. *Anserina*. The leaves of this plant, *Potentilla anserina* of Linnæus, possess mildly adstringent and corroborant qualities; but are seldom used, except by the lower orders.

POTENTILLA ANSERINA. The systematic name of the silver-weed, or wild tanfy. See *Potentilla*.

POTENTILLA REPTANS. The systematic name of the common cinquefoil. See *Pentaphyllum*.

POTERIUM SANGUISORBA. The systematic name of the Burnet saxifrage, the leaves of which are often put into cool tankards; they have an adstringent quality.

POUPARTS LIGAMENT. *Ligamentum Poupartii*. Fallopiian ligament. Inguinal ligament. A strong ligament, or rather a tendinous expansion of the external oblique muscle, going across from the inferior and anterior spinous process of the ilium, to the crista of the os pubis. It is under this ligament, the femoral vessels pass; and when the intestine or omentum passes underneath it, the disease is called a femoral hernia.

POWER, MUSCULAR. See *Irritability* and *Muscular motion*.

POWER, TONIC. See *Irritability*.

PRÆCIPITATE RED. See *Hydrargyrus nitratus ruber*.

PRÆCIPITATE WHITE. See *Calx hydrargyri alba*.

PRÆCORDIA, (*Præcordia*, orum, n, pl. from *præ*, before, and *cardia*,

the heart). The fore part of the region of the thorax.

PRÆPUCE. *Preputium*. The membranous cutaneous fold that covers the glans penis and clitoris.

PRÆPUTIUM, (*Preputium*, i, n. from *præputo*, to cut off before, because some nations used to cut it off in circumcision). See *Prepuce*.

PRECIPITATION, (*Præcipitatio*, onis, f. from *præcipito*, to cast down). When two bodies are united, for instance, an acid and an oxyd, or metallic calx, and a third body is added, such as an alkali, which has a greater affinity with the acid than the metallic oxyd, the consequence is, that the alkali combines with the acid, and the oxyd, thus deserted, appears in a separate state at the bottom of the vessel in which the operation was performed. This decomposition is commonly known by the name of *precipitation*, and the substance that sinks is named a *precipitate*. The substance, by the addition of which the phenomenon is produced, is denominated the *precipitant*.

By this operation, bodies are recovered from their solution, by means of the addition of some other substance, with which either the menstruum or the body dissolved have a greater affinity than they have with each other.

Precipitation, therefore, is of two kinds; one, where the substance superadded unites with the menstruum, and occasions that which was before dissolved to be thrown down; the other, in which it unites with the dissolved body, and falls with it to the bottom. Of the first, we have an example in the precipitation of sulphur from alkaline lixivias, by the means of acids; of the second, in the precipitation of mercury from aquafortis by the muriatic acid.

The subjects of this operation, as well those which are capable of being precipitated, as those which precipi-

tate, will readily appear by the Table of Attractions.

The manner of performing it is so simple, as to need no particular directions. All that is required, is to add the precipitant by degrees, as long as it continues to occasion any precipitation. When the whole of the powder has fallen, it is to be welledulcorated, that is, washed in several fresh parcels of water, and afterwards dried for use.

When metals are employed as precipitants, as in the purification of martial vitriol from copper by the addition of fresh iron, they ought to be perfectly clean, and free from any rusty or greasy matter, otherwise they will not readily, if at all, dissolve, and consequently the precipitation will not succeed; for the substance to be precipitated separates only by the additional one dissolving and taking its place. The separated powder, often, instead of falling to the bottom, lodges upon the precipitant, from which it must be occasionally shaken off, for reasons sufficiently obvious.

Though, in this operation, the precipitated powder is generally the part required for use, yet some advantage may be frequently made of the liquor remaining after the precipitation. Thus, when fixed alkaline salt is dissolved in water, and sulphur dissolved in this lixivium, the addition of acids separates and throws down the sulphur, only in virtue of the acid uniting with, and neutralizing the alkali by which the sulphur was held dissolved; consequently, if the precipitation be made with the vitriolic acid, and the acid gradually dropt in till the alkali be completely saturated, that is, as long as it continues to occasion any precipitation or turbidness, the liquor will yield, by proper evaporation and crystallization, a neutral salt, composed of the vitriolic acid and fixed alkali, that is,

vitriolated tartar. In like manner, if the precipitation be made with the nitrous acid, a true nitre; if with the muriatic, the salt called cubic nitre; and if with the acid of vinegar, the kali acetatum.

PREDISPOSING CAUSE. *Causa prædisponens. Causa præcægens.* That which renders the body susceptible of disease. The most frequent predisposing causes of diseases are, the temperament and habit of the body, idiosyncrasy, age, sex, and structure of the part diseased.

PREDISPOSITION, (*Prædispositio, onis, f.*). That constitution or state of the solids or fluids, or of both, which disposes the body to the action of disease.

PREGNANCY. *Utero gestation.* The particular manner in which pregnancy takes place has hitherto remained involved in obscurity, notwithstanding the laborious investigation of the most eminent philosophers of all ages.

Although pregnancy is a state which (with a few exceptions), is natural to all women, it is in general the source of many disagreeable sensations, and often the cause of diseases which might be attended with the worst consequences if not properly treated.

It is now, however, universally acknowledged, that those women who bear children enjoy, usually, more certain health, and are much less liable to dangerous diseases, than those who are unmarried, or who prove barren.

Signs of pregnancy. The womb has a very extensive influence, by means of its nerves, on many other parts of the body; hence, the changes which are produced on it by impregnation, must be productive of changes on the state of the general system. These constitute the signs of pregnancy.

During the first fourteen or fifteen weeks, the signs of pregnancy are

very ambiguous, and cannot be depended on; for, as they proceed from the irritation of the womb on other parts, they may be occasioned by every circumstance which can alter the natural state of that organ.

The first circumstance which renders pregnancy probable, is the suppression of the periodical evacuation, which is generally accompanied with fullness in the breasts, headach, flushings in the face, and heat in the palms of the hands.

These symptoms are commonly the consequences of suppression, and therefore are to be regarded as signs of pregnancy, in so far only as they depend on it.

As, however, the suppression of the periodical evacuation often happens from accidental exposure to cold, or from the change of life in consequence of marriage, it can never be considered as an infallible sign.

The belly, some weeks after pregnancy, becomes flat, from the womb sinking, as formerly explained, and hence drawing down the intestines along with it; but this cannot be looked upon as a certain sign of pregnancy, because an enlargement of the womb from any other cause will produce the same effect.

Many women, soon after they are pregnant, become very much altered in their looks, and have peculiar irritable feelings, inducing a disposition of mind which renders their temper easily ruffled, and incite an irresistible propensity to actions of which on other occasions they would be ashamed.

In such cases, the features acquire a peculiar sharpness, the eyes appear larger, and the mouth wider than usual; and the woman has a particular appearance, which cannot be described, but with which women are well acquainted.

These breeding symptoms, as they are called, originate from the irrita-

tion produced on the womb by impregnation; and as they may proceed from any other circumstance which can irritate that organ, they cannot be depended on when the woman is not young, or where there is not a continued suppression for at least three periods.

The irritations on the parts contiguous to the womb are equally ambiguous; and therefore the signs of pregnancy in the first four months are always to be considered as doubtful, unless every one enumerated be distinctly and unequivocally present.

From the fourth month, the signs of pregnancy are less ambiguous, especially after the womb has ascended into the cavity of the belly. In general, about the fourth month, or a short time after, the child becomes so much enlarged, that its motions begin to be felt by the mother; and hence a sign is furnished at that period called quickening. Women, very improperly, consider this sign as the most unequivocal proof of pregnancy; for though, when it occurs about the period described, preceded by the symptoms formerly enumerated, it may be looked upon as a sure indication that the woman is with child; yet when there is an irregularity, either in the preceding symptoms or in its appearance, the situation of the woman must be doubtful.

This fact will be easily understood; for as the sensation of the motion of the child cannot be explained, or accurately described, women may readily mistake other sensations for that of quickening. Flatus has often been so pent up in the bowels, that the natural pulsation of the great arteries, of which people are conscious only in certain states of the body, has frequently been mistaken for this feeling.

After the fourth month, the womb rises gradually from the cavity of the basin, enlarges the belly, and pushes

out the navel; hence the protrusion of the navel has been considered one of the most certain signs of pregnancy in the latter months. Every circumstance, however, which increases the bulk of the belly occasions this symptom; and therefore it cannot be trusted to, unless other signs concur.

The progressive increase of the belly, along with suppression, after having been formerly regular, and the consequent symptoms, together with the sensation of quickening at the proper period, afford the only true marks of pregnancy.

These signs, however, are not to be entirely depended on; for the natural desire which every woman has to be a mother, will induce her to conceal, even from herself, every symptom which may render her situation doubtful, and to magnify every circumstance which can tend to prove that she is pregnant.

Beside quickening and increase of bulk of the belly, another symptom appears in the latter months, which, when preceded by the ordinary signs, renders pregnancy certain beyond a doubt. It is the presence of milk in the breasts. When, however, there is any irregularity in the preceding symptoms, this sign is no longer to be considered of any consequence.

As every practitioner must naturally wish to distinguish pregnancy from disease, the disorders which resemble it should be thoroughly understood, and also their diagnostics. It is, however, necessary to remark, that wherever any circumstance occurs which affords the most distant reason to doubt the case, recourse ought to be had to the advice of an experienced practitioner, and every symptom should be unreservedly described to him.

PRESBYOPIA, (*Presbyopia*, *a*, *f*. *πρεσβυωπία*, from *πρεσβυ*, old, and *ωπία*, sight; because it is frequent with old men). That defect of the

sight by which objects close are seen confusedly, but, at remoter distances, distinctly. As the myopia is common to infants, so the presbyopia is a malady common to the aged. The proximate cause is a tardy adunation into the focus, so that it falls beyond the retina. The species are, 1.

Presbyopia from a flatness of the cornea. By so much the cornea is flatter, so much the less and more tardy it refranges the rays into the focus. This evil arises, 1st, From a want of aqueous or vitreous humour, which is common to the aged; or may arise from some disease; 2d, From a cicatrix, which diminishes the convexity of the cornea; 3d, From a natural conformation of the cornea.

2. *Presbyopia* from too flat a crystalline lens. This evil is most common to the aged, or it may happen from a wasting of the crystalline lens.

3. *Presbyopia* from too small density of the cornea or humours of the eye. By so much more these humours are thin or rarified, so much the less they refrange the rays of light. Whosoever is a myops from this cause is cured in older age; for age induces to a greater density of the cornea and lens. From this it is an observed fact, that the *presbyopes* are often cured spontaneously, and throw away their glasses, which younger persons in this disease are obliged to use.

5. *Presbyopia* from a custom of viewing continually remote objects; hence artificers who are occupied in remote objects are said to contract this malady. The reason of this phenomenon is not very clear.

6. *Presbyopia Senilis*. From a multitude of causes aged persons are presbyopes; from a penury of humours, which render the cornea and lens flatter, and the bulb shorter. When in senile age, from dryness, the bulb of the eye becomes flatter and shorter, and the cornea flatter, those who were short-sighted or myopes before, see now without

their concave glasses. 7. *Presbyopia*. From too close a proximity of objects. The focus is shorter of distant, but longer of nearer objects. 8. *Presbyopia* from a contracted pupil. By so much smaller is the aperture of the diaphragm in an optic tube, so much remoter is the focus. 9. *Presbyopia Mercurialis*, which arises from the use of mercurial preparations. The patient feels a pressing pain in the eye, which, from being touched is increased, and the bulb of the eye appears as if rigid, and with difficulty can be moved. Near objects the patient can scarce distinguish, and distant only in a confused manner. Many have supposed this disorder an imperfect amaurosis.

PRIAPEIA. See *Nicotiana minor*.

PRIAPISM, (*Priapismus*, *i*, *m*. *πριαισμος*, from *πριαιπος*, a heathen god, whose penis is always painted erect). A continual erection of the penis.

PRIMÆ VIÆ. The first passages. The stomach and the intestinal tube are so called, and the lacteals the *secunda viæ*.

PRIMARY TEETH. See *Teeth*.

PRIMROSE. See *Primula vulgaris*.

PRIMŪLA VERIS, (*Primula*, *e*, *f*. from *primulus*, the beginning, so called because it flowers in the beginning of the spring). *Verbasculum*. The cowslip, paigil, or peagle. The flowers of this plant have a moderately strong and pleasant smell, and a somewhat roughish bitter taste. Vinous liquors impregnated with their flavour by maceration or fermentation, and strong infusions of them drank as tea, are supposed to be mildly corroborant, antispasmodic, and anodyne. An infusion of three pounds of the fresh flowers in five pints of boiling water is made in the shops into a syrup of a fine yellow colour, and agreeably impregnated with the flavour of the cowslip.

PRIMŪLA VULGARIS. The prim-

rose. The leaves and root of this common plant possess sternutatory properties.

PRINCIPLES. *Principia*. Primary substances. According to modern chemists, this term is applied to those particles which are composed of two or more elements (see *Elements*), that may again be decomposed by the action of fire or putridity; such as water, gum, resin, &c.

PRIOR ANNULARIS, (*Musculus prior annularis*). An internal interosseous muscle of the hand. See *Interossei manus*.

PRIOR INDICIS, (*Musculus prior medii*). *Extensor tertii internodii indicis* of Douglas. An internal interosseal muscle of the hand, which draws the fore finger inwards towards the thumb, and extends it obliquely.

PRIOR MEDII, (*Musculus prior medii*). An external interosseus muscle of the hand. See *Interossei manus*.

PROBE, (*Stylus*, *i*, *m*. from *probo*, to try; because surgeons try the depth and extent of wounds, &c. with it). A surgical instrument of a long and slender form.

PROCATARCTIC CAUSE, (*Causa procatarctica*, from *προκαταρκτην*, to go before). See *Exciting cause*.

PROCESS, (*Processus*, *us*, *m*. from *procedo*, to go before). An eminence of a bone; as the spinous and transverse processes of the vertebrae.

PROCESSUS CACI VERMIFORMIS. See *Intestines*.

PROCIDENTIA, (*Procidentia*, *e*, *f*. from *procido*, to fall down). A falling down of any part; thus, *procidentia ani*, *uteri*, *vagina*, &c.

PROCTALGIA, (*Proctalgia*, *e*, *f*. *πρωκταλγια*, from *πρωκτος*, the fundament, and *αλγος*, pain). A violent pain at the anus. It is mostly symptomatic of some disease, as piles, scirrhus, prurigo, cancer, &c.

PROCTITIS, (*Proctitis*, *idis*, *f*. *πρωκτιτις*, from *πρωκτος*, the anus).

Inflammation of the internal or mucous membrane of the lower part of the rectum.

PROFLUVIA, (*Profluvium*, *i*, *n*. from *profluo*, to run down). Fluxes. The fifth order in the class *pyrexia* of Cullen's nosology, characterized by pyrexia, with increased excretions.

PROFLUVII CORTEX. See *Coneffi cortex*.

PROFUNDUS. See *Flexor profundus perforans*.

PROFUSIO. A loss of blood. A genus of disease in the class *locales* and order *apocenoses* of Cullen.

PROGNOSIS, (*Prognosis*, *is*, *f*. *προγνωσις*, from *πρo*, before, and *γινωσκω*, to know). The judgment of the event of a disease by particular symptoms.

PROLAPSUS, (*Prolapsus*, *us*, *m*. from *prolabor*, to slip down). A protrusion. A genus of disease in the class *locales* and order *edipie* of Cullen; distinguished by the falling down of a part that is uncovered.

PRONATION. The act of turning the palm of the hand downwards. It is performed by rotating the radius upon the ulna, by means of several muscles which are termed pronators; as,

PRONATOR RADII QUADRATUS. This, which has gotten its name from its use and its shape, is a small fleshy muscle, situated at the lower and inner part of the fore-arm, and covered by the tendons of the flexor muscles of the hand. It arises tendinous and fleshy from the lower and inner part of the ulna, and runs nearly in a transverse direction, to be inserted into that part of the radius which is opposite to its origin, its inner fibres adhering to the interosseous ligament. This muscle assists in the pronation of the hand, by turning the radius inwards.

PRONATOR RADII TERES. This is a small muscle, situated at the upper and anterior part of the fore-arm.

It is called *teres*, to distinguish it from the pronator quadratus. It arises tendinous and fleshy from the anterior and inferior part of the outer condyle of the os humeri; and tendinous from the coronoid process of the ulna, near the insertion of the brachialis internus. The median nerve passes between these two portions. From these origins the muscle runs obliquely downwards and outwards, and is inserted, tendinous and fleshy, into the anterior and convex edge of the radius, about the middle of that bone. This muscle, as its name indicates, serves to turn the hand inwards.

PROPHYLACTICS, (*Prophylactica*, *προφυλακτικά*, from *πρo*, before, and *φύλασσω*, to defend). Any means made use of to preserve health.

PROPTOMA, (*Proptoma*, *ātis*, *n*. *προπτωμα*, from *προπιπλω*, to fall down). A relaxation of the scrotum, of the under lip, of the breasts in females, of the præpuce, or of the ears.

PROSTATE GLAND, (*Glandula prostatica*, from *πρo*, before, and *ιστημι*, to stand; because it is situated before the urinary bladder). A very large, heart-like, firm gland, situated between the neck of the urinary bladder and bulbous part of the urethra. It secretes the lacteal fluid, which is emitted into the urethra by ten or twelve ducts that open near the verumontanum during coition.

PROSTATE INFERIOR. See *Transversus perinei alter*.

PROXIMATE CAUSE. *Causa proxima*. The proximate cause of a disease may be said to be in reality the disease itself. All proximate causes are either diseased actions of simple fibres, or an altered state of the fluids.

PRUNA, (*Pruna*, *orum*, *pl*. of *prunum*, *i*, *n*.). Plums or prunes. See *Plums*.

PRUNE. See *Plums*.

PRUNELLA, (*Prunella*, *a*, f. from *pruna*, a burn, because it heals burns). *Brunella*. *Consolida minor*. *Symphitum minus*. Self heal. This plant, *Prunella vulgaris*, *foliis omnibus ovato-oblongis, serratis, petiolatis*, of Linnæus, is recommended as an adstringent in hæmorrhages and fluxes, as in gargles against aphthæ and inflammations of the fauces.

PRUNELLA VULGARIS. The systematic name of the self heal. See *Prunella*.

PRUNELLOE. See *Plum*.

PRUNUM GALLICUM, (*Prunum*, *i*, n.). The common prune or plum. The plant which affords this fruit is the *Prunus domestica* of Linnæus. *Prunus pedunculis subsolitariis, foliis lanceolato-ovatis convolutis, ramis muticis. Gemmæ floriferæ apbyllæ*. Mur. Class *Icosandria*. Order *Monogynia*. Prunes are considered as emollient, cooling, and laxative, especially the French prunes, which are directed in the decoction of senna, and other purgatives; and the pulp is ordered in the *electuarius à senna*. See *Plum*.

PRUNUM SYLVESTRE. The sloe or fruit of the *Prunus spinosa* of Linnæus. *Prunus pedunculis solitariis foliis lanceolatis glabris, ramis spinosis*. Class *Icosandria*. Order *Monogynia*. It is sometimes employed in gargles, to tumefactions of the tonsils and uvula, and from its adstringent taste was formerly much used in hæmorrhages, &c.

PRUNUS AVIUM. The systematic name of the black cherry-tree. See *Cerasa nigra*.

PRUNUS CERASUS. The systematic name of the red cherry-tree. See *Cerasa rubra*.

PRUNUS DOMESTICA. The systematic name of the damson-tree. See *Damson*.

PRUNUS LAURO-CERASUS. The systematic name of the poison laurel. See *Lauro-cerasus*.

PRUNUS PADUS. The systema-

tic name of the bird cherry-tree. See *Padus*.

PRUNUS SPINOSA. The systematic name of the sloe-tree. See *Prunus sylvestris*.

PRURIGO, (*Prurigo*, *gînis*, f. from *prurio*, to itch). The prurigo is a genus of disease in the order *papulous eruptions* of Dr. Willan's cutaneous diseases. As it arises from different causes, or at different periods of life and exhibits some varieties in its form, he describes it under the titles of prurigo mitis, prurigo formicans, and prurigo senilis. In these the whole surface of the skin is usually affected; but there are likewise many cases of local prurigo, which will be afterwards noticed according to their respective situations.

1. The *Prurigo mitis* originates without any previous indisposition, generally in spring, or the beginning of summer. It is characterized by soft and smooth elevations of the cuticle, somewhat larger than the papulæ of the lichen, from which they also differ by retaining the usual colour of the skin; for they seldom appear red, or much inflamed, except from violent friction. They are not, as in the other case, accompanied with tingling, but with a sense of itching almost incessant. This is, however, felt more particularly on undressing, and often prevents rest for some hours after getting into a bed. When the tops of the papulæ are removed by rubbing or scratching, a clear fluid oozes out from them, and gradually concretes into thin black scabs.

This species of prurigo mostly affects young persons, and its cause may, I think, in general be referred to fordes collected on the skin, producing some degree of irritation, and also preventing the free discharge of the cutaneous exhalation; the bad consequences of which must necessarily be felt at that season of the

year when perspiration is most copious. Those who have originally a delicate or irritable skin, must likewise, in the same circumstances, be the greatest sufferers.

The eruption extends to the arms, breast, back, and thighs, and often continues during two or three months of the summer, if not relieved by proper treatment. When persons affected with it neglect washing the skin, or are uncleanly in their apparel, the eruption grows more inveterate, and at length changing its form, often terminates in the itch. Pustules arise among the papulæ, some filled with lymph, others with pus. The *acarus scarabiei* begins to breed in the furrows of the cuticle, and the disorder becomes contagious.

2. The *Prurigo formicans* is a much more obstinate and troublesome disease than the foregoing. It usually affects persons of adult age, commencing at all seasons of the year indifferently; and its duration is from four months to two or three years, with occasional short intermissions. The papulæ are sometimes larger, sometimes more obscure, than in the preceding species; but are, under every form, attended with an incessant, almost intolerable itching. They are diffused over the whole body, except the face, feet, and palms of the hands; they appear, however, in greatest number on those parts which, from the ordinary mode of dress, are subjected to tight ligatures; as about the neck, loins, and thighs.

The itching is complicated with other sensations, which are variously described by patients. They sometimes feel as if small insects were creeping on the skin; sometimes as if stung all over by ants; sometimes as if hot needles were piercing the skin in divers places. On standing before a fire, or undressing, and more particularly on getting into

bed, these sensations become most violent, and usually preclude all rest during the greater part of the night. The *prurigo formicans* is by most practitioners deemed contagious, and confounded with the itch. In endeavouring to ascertain the justness of this opinion, Dr. Willan has been led to make the following remarks: 1. The eruption is, for the most part, connected with internal disorder, and arises where no source of infection can be traced. 2. Persons affected may have constant intercourse with several others, and yet never communicate the disease to any of them. 3. Several persons of one family may have the *prurigo formicans* about the same time; but he thinks this should be referred rather to a common predisposition than to contagion, having observed that individuals of a family are often so affected, at certain seasons of the year, even when they reside at a distance from each other.

Although the *prurigo formicans* is never, like the former species, converted into the itch, yet it does occasionally terminate in a pustular disease, not contagious.

3. *Prurigo senilis*. This affection does not differ much in its symptoms and external appearances from the *prurigo formicans*; but has been thought by medical writers to merit a distinct consideration, on account of its peculiar inveteracy. The *prurigo* is perhaps aggravated, or becomes more permanent, in old age, from the dry, condensed state of the skin and cuticle, which often takes place at that period. Those who are affected with it in a high degree have little more comfort to expect during life, being incessantly tormented with a violent and universal itching. The state of the skin in the *prurigo senilis*, is favourable to the production of an insect, the *pediculus humanus*, more espe-

cially to the variety of it usually termed body-lice.

These insects, it is well known, are bred abundantly among the inhabitants of sordid dwellings, of jails, workhouses, &c. and in such situations prey upon persons of all ages indiscriminately. But in the *prurigo senilis* they arise, notwithstanding every attention to cleanliness or regimen, and multiply so rapidly that the patient endures extreme distress, from their perpetual irritation. The nits or eggs are deposited on the small hairs of the skin, and the pediculi are only found on the skin or on the linen, not under the cuticle, as some authors have represented. In connection with the foregoing series of complaints, Dr. Willan mentions some pruriginous affections which are merely local. He confines his observations to the most troublesome of these, seated in the podex, *præputium*, urethra, pubes, scrotum, and pudendum muliebri. Itching of the nostrils, eyelids, lips, or of the external ear, being generally symptomatic of other diseases, do not require a particular consideration.

1. *Prurigo podicis*. Ascarides in the rectum excite a frequent itching and irritation about the sphincter ani, which ceases when the cause is removed by proper medicines. A similar complaint often arises, independently of worms, hæmorrhoidal tumors, or other obvious causes, which is mostly found to affect persons engaged in sedentary occupations; and may be referred to a morbid state of secretion in the parts, founded, perhaps, on a diminution of constitutional vigour. The itching is not always accompanied with an appearance of papulæ or tubercles; it is little troublesome during the day time, but returns every night soon after getting into bed, and precludes rest for several hours. The complaint continues in this form dur-

ing three or four months, and has then an intermission, till it is produced again by hot weather, fatigue, watching, or some irregularity in diet. The same disease occurs at the decline of life, under a variety of circumstances.

Women, after the cessation of the catamenia, are liable to be affected with this species of *prurigo*, more especially in summer or autumn. The skin between the nates is rough and papulated, sometimes scaly, and a little humour is discharged by violent friction. Along with this complaint, there is often an eruption of itching papulæ on the neck, breast, and back; a swelling and inflammation of one or both ears, and a discharge of matter from behind them, and from the external meatus auditorius. The *prurigo podicis* sometimes occurs as a symptom of the lues venerea.

2. The *Prurigo præputii* is owing to an altered state of secretion on the glans penis, and inner surface of the *præputium*. During the heat of summer there is also, in some persons, unusual discharge of mucus, which becomes acrimonious, and produces a troublesome itching, and often an excoriation of these parts. Washing of them with water, or soap and water, employed from time to time, relieves the complaint, and should indeed be practised as an ordinary point of cleanliness, where no inconvenience is immediately felt. If the fluid be secreted in too large a quantity, that excess may be restrained, by washes made with the extract of lead, or by applying the unguentum cerusæ acetatæ.

3. *Prurigo urethralis*. A very troublesome itching sometimes takes place at the extremity of the urethra in females, without any manifest cause. It occurs as well in young women as in those who are of an advanced age. On examination, no

stricture nor tumour has been found along the course of the urethra. Probably, however, the itching may be occasioned by a morbid state of the neck of the bladder, being in some instances connected with pain and difficulty of making water.

An itching at the extremity of the urethra in men is produced by calculi, and by some diseases of the bladder. In cases of stricture an itching is also felt, but near the place where the stricture is situated. Another cause of it is small broken hairs, which are sometimes drawn in from the pubes, between the præputium and glans, and which afterwards becoming fixed in the entrance of the urethra, occasion an itching, or slight stinging, particularly on motion. Mr. J. Pearson, surgeon of the Lock Hospital, has seen five cases of this kind, and gave immediate relief by extracting the small hair from the urethra.

4. *Prurigo pubis*. Itching papulæ often arise on the pubes, and become extremely sore if their tops are removed by scratching. They are occasioned sometimes by neglect of cleanliness, but more commonly by a species of pediculus, which perforates the cuticle, and thus derives its nourishment, remaining fixed in the same situation. These insects are termed by Linnæus, &c. *pediculi pubis*; they do not, however, affect the pubes only, but often adhere to the eye-brows, eye-lids, and axillæ. They are often found, also, on the breast, abdomen, thighs, and legs, in persons of the sanguine temperament, who have those parts covered with strong hairs. It is remarkable that they seldom or never fix upon the hairy scalp. The great irritation produced by them on the skin, solicits constant scratching, by which they are torn from their attachments; and painful tubercles arise at the places where they had adhered.

When the pediculi are diffused over the greater part of the surface of the body, the patient's linen often appears as if sprinkled with drops of blood.

5. *Prurigo scroti*. The scrotum is affected with a troublesome and constant itching from ascarides within the rectum, from friction by violent exercise in hot weather, and very usually from the pediculi pubis. Another and more important form of the complaint appears in old men, sometimes connected with the prurigo podicis, and referable to a morbid state of the skin, or superficial glands of the part. The scrotum, in this case, assumes a brown colour, often also becoming thick, scaly, and wrinkled. The itching extends to the skin covering the penis, more especially along the course of the urethra; and has little respite, either by day or night.

The *Prurigo pudendi mulieris*, is somewhat analagous to the prurigo scroti in men. It is often a symptomatic complaint in the lichen and lepra; it likewise originates from ascarides irritating the rectum, and is in some cases, connected with a discharge of the fluor albus.

A similar affection arises in consequence of the change of state in the genital organs at the time of puberty, attended with a series of most distressing sensations. Dr. Willan confines attention to one case of the disorder, which may be considered as idiopathic, and which usually affects women soon after the cessation of the catamenia. It chiefly occurs in those who are of the phlegmatic temperament, and inclined to corpulency. Its seat is the labia pudendi, and entrance of the vagina. It is often accompanied with an appearance of tension or fulness of those parts, and sometimes with inflamed itching papulæ on the labia and mons veneris. The distress arising from a

strong and almost perpetual itching in the above situation, may be easily imagined. In order to allay it in some degree, the sufferers have frequent recourse to friction, and to cooling applications: whence they are necessitated to forego the enjoyment of society. An excitement of venereal sensations also takes place from the constant direction of the mind to the parts affected, as well as from the means employed to procure alleviation. The complicated distress thus arising, renders existence almost insupportable, and often produces a state of mind bordering on frenzy.

Deep ulcerations of the parts seldom take place in the prurigo pudendi; but the appearance of aphthæ on the labia and nymphæ, is by no means unusual. From intercourse with females under these circumstances, men are liable to be affected with aphthous ulcerations on the glans, and inside of the præputium, which prove troublesome for a length of time, and often excite an alarm, being mistaken for chancres.

Women, after the fourth month of their pregnancy, often suffer greatly from the prurigo pudendi, attended with aphthæ. These, in a few cases, have been succeeded by extensive ulcerations, which destroyed the nymphæ, and produced a fatal hectic: such instances are, however, extremely rare. The complaint has, in general, some intervals or remissions; and the aphthæ usually disappear soon after delivery, whether at the full time, or by a miscarriage.

PRURĪTUS, (*Pruritus*, *us*, *m.* from *prurio*, to itch). See *Prurigo*.

PRUSSIATS, (*Prussiat*s, *tis*, *m.*). Salts formed by the union of the prussic acid, or colouring matter of prussian blue, with different bases; thus, *prussiat of alumine*, *prussiat of ammoniac*, &c.

PSALTERĪUM, (*Psalterium*, *i*, *n.* a harp; because it is marked with lines that give it the appearance of a harp). *Lyra*. The medullary body that unites the posterior crura of the fornix of the brain.

PSELLISMUS, (*Psellismus*, *i*, *m.* ψελλισμος; from ψελλίζω, hesitation of speech). Defect of speech. A genus of disease in the class *locales* and order *dyscensie* of Cullen.

PSEUDO-ACORUS. See *Iris palustris*.

PSEUDOBLEPSIS, (*Pseudoblepsis*, *is*, *f.* ψευδοβλεψις; from ψευδος, false, and βλεψις, sight). Imaginary vision of objects. A genus of disease in the class *locales* and order *dyssthesie* of Cullen; characterized by depraved sight, creating objects, or representing them different from what they are. Species: 1. *Pseudoblepsis imaginaria*, in which objects are perceived that are not present. 2. *Pseudoblepsis mutans*, in which objects that are present appear somewhat changed.

PSEUDOPYRETHRUM. See *Plar-nica*.

PSIDĪUM POMIFĒRUM. The systematic name of the apple guava. This plant, and the *pyriferum*, bear fruits, the former like apples, the latter like pears. The apple kind is most cultivated in the Indies, on account of the pulp having a fine acid flavour, whereas the pear species is sweet, and therefore not so agreeable in warm climates. Of the inner pulp of either, the inhabitants make jellies; and of the outer rind they make tarts, marmalades, &c. The latter they also stew and eat with milk, and prefer them to any other stewed fruits. They have an adstringent quality, which exists also in every part of the tree, and abundantly in the leaf buds, which are occasionally boiled with barley and liquorice, as an excellent drink against diarrhæas. A simple decoc-

tion of the leaves, used as a bath, are said to cure the itch, and most cutaneous eruptions.

PSIDIUM PYRIFERUM. The systematic name of the pear guava. See *Psidium pomiferum*.

PSOAS MAGNUS, (*Psoas, adis, m.* ψος; from ψος, the loin; because it is situated in the loins). *Psoas, seu lumbricus internus* of Winslow. This is a long, thick, and very considerable muscle, situated close to the fore part and sides of the lumbar vertebræ. It arises from the bodies of the last vertebra of the back, and of all the lumbar vertebræ laterally, as well as from the anterior surfaces of their transverse processes, by distinct tendinous and fleshy slips, that are gradually collected into one mass, which becomes thicker as it descends, till it reaches the last of the lumbar vertebræ, where it grows narrower again, and, uniting at its outer and posterior edge, (where it begins to become tendinous) with the iliacus internus, descends along with that muscle under the ligamentum fallopii, and goes to be inserted tendinous at the bottom of the trochanter minor of the os femoris, and fleshy into the bone a little below that process. Between the tendon of this muscle and the ischium, we find a considerable bursa mucosa. This muscle, at its origin, has some connection with the diaphragm, and likewise with the quadratus lumborum. It is one of the most powerful flexors of the thigh forwards, and may likewise assist in turning it outwards. When the inferior extremity is fixed, it may help to bend the body forwards, and in an erect posture, it greatly assists in preserving the equilibrium of the trunk upon the upper part of the thigh.

PSOAS PARVUS. This muscle, which was first described by Riolanus, is situated upon the psoas magnus, at the anterior part of the loins.

The psoas parvus arises thin and fleshy from the side of the uppermost vertebra of the loins, and sometimes also from the lower edge of the last vertebra of the back, and from the transverse processes of each of these vertebræ; it then extends over part of the psoas magnus, and terminates in a thin flat tendon, which is inserted into that part of the brim of the pelvis, where the os pubis joins the ilium. From this tendon a great number of fibres are sent off, which form a thin fascia, that covers part of the psoas magnus and iliacus internus, and gradually loses itself on the fore part of the thigh. In the human body this muscle is very often wanting; but in a dog, according to Douglas, it is never deficient. Riolanus was of opinion, that it occurs oftner in men than in women; Winslow asserts just the contrary; but the truth seems to be, that it is as often wanting in one sex as in the other. Its use seems to be to assist the psoas magnus in bending the loins forwards; and when we are lying upon our back, it may help to raise the pelvis.

PSORA, (*Pfora, æ, f.* ψωρα, the itch). The itch. A genus of disease in the class *locales* and order *diaphyses* of Cullen: appearing first on the wrists and between the fingers in small pustules with watery heads. It is contagious.

PSORIASIS, (*Psoriasis, is, f.* ψωρίασις; from ψωρα, to itch). The disease to which Dr. Willan gives this title is characterized by a rough and scaly state of the cuticle, sometimes continuous, sometimes in separate patches, of various sizes, but of an irregular figure, and for the most part accompanied with rhagades or fissures of the skin. From the lepra it may be distinguished, not only by the distribution of the patches, but also by its cessation and recurrence at certain seasons of the year, and by

the disorder of the constitution with which it is usually attended. Dr. Willan gives the following varieties : *Pсориаfis guttata*, — *diffusa*, — *gyrata*, — *palmaria*, — *labialis*, — *infantilis*, — *inveterata*.

Pсориаfis guttata. This complaint appears in small, distinct, but irregular patches of laminated scales, with little or no inflammation round them. The patches very seldom extend to the size of a sixpence. They have neither an elevated border, nor the oval or circular form by which all the varieties of lepra are distinguished ; but their circumference is sometimes angular, and sometimes goes into small serpentine processes. The scale formed upon each of them is thin, and may be easily detached, leaving a red, shining base. The patches are often distributed over the greatest part of the body, but more particularly on the back part of the neck, the breast, arms, loins, thighs, and legs. They appear also upon the face, which rarely happens in lepra. In that situation they are red and more rough than the adjoining cuticle, but not covered with scales. The *psoriasis guttata* often appears on children in a sudden eruption, attended with a slight disorder of the constitution, and spreads over the body within two or three days. In adults it commences with a few scaly patches on the extremities, proceeds very gradually, and has a longer duration than in children. Its first occurrence is usually in the spring season, after violent pains in the head, stomach, and limbs. During the summer it disappears spontaneously, or may be soon removed by proper applications, but it is apt to return again early in the ensuing spring, and continues so to do for several successive years. When the scales have been removed, and the disease is about to go off, the small patches have a shining appearance, and they

retain a dark red, intermixed with somewhat of a bluish colour, for many days, or even weeks, before the skin is restored to its usual state. In the venereal disease there is an eruption which very much resembles the *psoriasis guttata*, the only difference being a slighter degree of scaliness, and a different shade of colour in the patches, approaching to a livid red, or very dark rose colour. The patches vary in their extent, from the section of a pea, to the size of a silver penny, but are not exactly circular. They rise at first very little, if at all, above the cuticle. As soon, however, as the scales appear on them, they become sensibly elevated ; and sometimes the edge or circumference of the patch is higher than the little scales in its centre. This eruption is usually seen upon the forehead, breast, between the shoulders, or in the inside of the fore-arms, in the groins, about the inside of the thighs, and upon the skin covering the lower part of the abdomen. The syphilitic *psoriasis guttata* is attended with, or soon followed by, an ulceration of the throat. It appears about six or eight weeks after a chancre has been healed by an ineffectual course of mercury. A similar appearance takes place at nearly the same period, in some cases where no local symptoms had been noticed. When a venereal sore is in a discharging state, this eruption, or other secondary symptoms, often appear much later than the period above mentioned. They may also be kept back three months, or even longer, by an inefficient application of mercury. If no medicines be employed, the syphilitic form of the *psoriasis guttata* will proceed during several months, the number of the spots increasing, and their bulk being somewhat enlarged, but without any other material alteration.

The *Psoriasis diffusa* spreads into

large patches, irregularly circumscribed, reddish, rough, and chappy, with scales interpersed. It commences, in general, with numerous minute asperities, or elevations of the cuticle, more perceptible by the touch than by sight. Upon these, small distinct scales are soon after formed, adhering by a dark central point, while their edges may be seen white and detached. In the course of two or three weeks all the intervening cuticle becomes rough and chappy, appears red, and raised, and wrinkled, the lines of the skin sinking into deep furrows. The scales which form among them are often slight, and repeatedly exfoliate. Sometimes, without any previous eruption of papulæ, a large portion of the skin becomes dry, harsh, cracked, reddish, and scaly, as above described. In other cases, the disorder commences with separate patches of an uncertain form and size, some of them being small, like those in the psoriasis guttata, some much larger. The patches gradually expand till they become confluent, and nearly cover the part or limb affected. Both the psoriasis guttata and diffusa likewise occur as a sequel of the lichen simplex. This transition takes place more certainly after frequent returns of the lichen. The parts most affected by psoriasis diffusa are the cheeks, chin, upper eye-lids, and corners of the eyes, the temples, the external ear, the neck, the fleshy parts of the lower extremities, and the fore-arm, from the elbow to the back of the hand, along the supinator muscle of the radius. The fingers are sometimes nearly surrounded with a loose scaly incrustation; the nails crack and exfoliate superficially. The scaly patches likewise appear, though less frequently, on the forehead and scalp, on the shoulders, back, and loins, on the abdomen, and instep. This disease occasionally extends to all the

parts above-mentioned at the same time; but, in general, it affects them successively, leaving one place free, and appearing in others; sometimes, again, returning to its first situation. The psoriasis diffusa is attended with a sensation of heat, and with a very troublesome itching, especially at night. It exhibits small, slight, distinct scales, having less disposition than the lepra to form thick crusts. The chaps or fissures of the skin, which usually makes a part of this complaint, are very sore and painful, but seldom discharge any fluid. When the scales are removed, by frequent washing, or by the application of unguents, the surface, though raised and uneven, appears smooth and shining; and the deep furrows of the cuticle are lined by a slight scaliness. Should any portion of the diseased surface be forcibly excoriated, there issues out a thin lymph, mixed with some drops of blood, which slightly stains and stiffens the linen, but soon concretes into a thin, dry scab; this is again succeeded by a white scaliness, gradually increasing, and spreading in various directions. As the complaint declines, the roughness, chaps, scales, &c. disappear, and a new cuticle is formed, at first red, dry, and shrivelled, but which, in two or three weeks, acquires the proper texture. The duration of the psoriasis diffusa is from one to four months. If, in some constitutions, it does not then disappear, but becomes, to a certain degree, permanent, there is, at least, an aggravation or extension of it, about the usual periods of its return. In other cases, the disease, at the vernal returns, differs much as to its extent, and also with respect to the violence of the preceding symptoms. The eruption is, indeed, often confined to a single scaly patch, red, itching, and chapped, of a moderate size, but irregularly circumscribed. This soli-

tary patch is sometimes situated on the temple, or upper part of the cheek, frequently on the breast, the calf of the leg, about the wrist, or within and a little below the elbow joint, but especially at the lower part of the thigh, behind. It continues in any of these situations several months, without much observable alteration. The complaint denominated with us the bakers itch, is an appearance of the psoriasis diffusa on the back of the hand, commencing with one or two small, rough, scaly patches, and finally extending from the knuckles to the wrist. The rhagades, or chaps and fissures of the skin, are numerous about the knuckles and ball of the thumb, and where the back of the hand joins the wrist. They are often highly inflamed, and painful, but have no discharge of fluid from them. The back of the hand is a little raised or tumefied, and, at an advanced period of the disorder, exhibits a reddish, glossy surface, without crusts or numerous scales. However, the deep furrows of the cuticle are, for the most part, whitened by a slight scaliness. This complaint is not general among bakers; that it is only aggravated by their business, and affects those who are otherwise disposed to it, may be concluded from the following circumstances: 1. It disappears about midsummer, and returns in the cold weather at the beginning of the year; 2. Persons constantly engaged in the business, after having been once affected with the eruption, sometimes enjoy a respite from it for three or four years; 3. When the business is discontinued, the complaint does not immediately cease. The grocers itch has some affinity with the bakers itch, or tetters; but, being usually a pustular disease at its commencement, it properly belongs to another genus. Washerwomen, probably from the irritation of soap, are liable to be affected with

similar scaly disease on the hands and arms, sometimes on the face and neck, which, in particular constitutions, proves very troublesome, and of long duration.

The *Psoriasis gyrata* is distributed in narrow patches or stripes, variously figured; some of them are nearly longitudinal; some circular, or semicircular with vermiform appendages; some are tortuous, or serpentine; others like earth-worms or leeches: the furrows of the cuticle, being deeper than usual, make the resemblance more striking, by giving to them an annulated appearance. There is a separation of slight scales from the diseased surface, but no thick incrustations are formed. The uniform disposition of these patches is singular; I have seen a large circular one situated on each breast above the papilla; and two or three others of a serpentine form, in analogous situations along the sides of the chest. The back is often variegated in like manner, with convoluted tetters, similarly arranged on each side of the spine. They likewise appear, in some cases, on the arms and thighs, intersecting each other in various directions. A slighter kind of this complaint affects delicate young women and children in small scaly circles or rings, little discoloured; they appear on the cheeks, neck, or upper part of the breast, and are mostly confounded with the herpetic, or pustular ring-worm. The psoriasis gyrata has its remissions and returns, like the psoriasis diffusa; it also exhibits, in some cases, patches of the latter disorder on the face, scalp, or extremities, while the trunk of the body is chequered with the singular figures above described.

Psoriasis Palmaria. One very obstinate species of tetters is nearly confined to the palm of the hand. It commences with a small, harsh, or scaly patch, which gradually spreads over the whole palm, and sometimes

appears in a slighter degree on the inside of the fingers and wrist. The surface feels rough from the detached and raised edges of the scaly laminæ; its colour often changes to brown, or black, as if dirty; yet the most diligent washing produces no favourable effect. The cuticular furrows are deep, and cleft at the bottom longitudinally, in various places, so as to bleed on stretching the fingers. A sensation of heat, pain, and stiffness in the motions of the hand, attends this complaint. It is worst in winter or spring, and occasionally disappears in autumn or summer, leaving a soft, dark-red cuticle; but many persons are troubled with it for a series of years, experiencing only very slight remissions. Every return or aggravation of it is preceded by an increase of heat and dryness, with intolerable itching. Shoemakers have the psoriasis palmaria locally, from the irritation of the wax they so constantly employ. In braziers, tinmen, silver-smiths, &c. the complaint seems to be produced by handling cold metals. A long predisposition to it from a weak, languid, hectic state of the constitution may give effect to different occasional causes. Dr. Willan has observed it in women after lying-in; in some persons it is connected, or alternates with arthritic complaints. When the palms of the hands are affected as above stated, a similar appearance often takes place on the soles of the feet; but with the exception of rhagades or fissures, which seem less liable to form there, the feet being usually kept warm and covered. Sometimes, also, the psoriasis palmaria is attended with a thickness of the præputium, with scaliness, and painful cracks. These symptoms at last produce a phymosis, and render connubial intercourse difficult, or impracticable; so great, in some cases, is the obstinacy of them, that remedies are of no avail, and the

patient can only be relieved by circumcision. This affection of the præputium is not exactly similar to any venereal appearance; but rhagades or fissures, and indurated patches within the palm of the hand, take place in syphilis, and somewhat resemble the psoriasis palmaria. The venereal patches are, however, distinct, white, and elevated, having nearly the consistence of a soft corn. From the rhagades there is a slight discharge, very offensive to the smell. The soles of the feet are likewise, in this case, affected with the patches, not with rhagades. When the disease yields to the operation of mercury, the indurated portions of cuticle separate, and a smooth new cuticle is found formed underneath. The fingers and toes are not affected with the patches, &c. in venereal cases.

Psoriasis labialis. The psoriasis sometimes affects the prolabium without appearing on any other part of the body. Its characteristics are, as usual, scaliness, intermixed with chaps and fissures of the skin. The scales are of a considerable magnitude, so that their edges are often loose, while the central points are attached, a new cuticle gradually forms beneath the scales, but is not durable. In the course of a few hours it becomes dry, shrivelled, and broken; and, while it exfoliates, gives way to another layer of tender cuticle, which soon, in like manner, perishes. These appearances should be distinguished from the slight chaps and roughness of the lips produced by very cold or frosty weather, but easily removed. The psoriasis labialis may be a little aggravated by frost or sharp winds, yet it receives no material alleviation from an opposite temperature. It is not, indeed confined within any certain limit, or period of duration, having, in several instances, been protracted through all the seasons.

The under lip is always more affected than the upper; and the disease takes place more especially in those persons whose lips are full and prominent.

Pсориаfis scrotalis. The skin of the scrotum may be affected in the psoriasis diffusa like other parts of the surface of the body; but sometimes a roughness and scabiness of the scrotum appears as an independent complaint, attended with much heat, itching, tension, and redness. The above symptoms are succeeded by a hard, thickened, brittle texture of the skin, and by painful chaps or excoriations, which are not easy to be healed. This complaint is sometimes produced under the same circumstances as the prurigo scroti, and appears to be in some cases a sequel of it. A species of the psoriasis scrotalis likewise occurs in the lues venerea, but merits no particular attention, being always combined with other secondary symptoms of the disease.

Pсориаfis infantilis. Infants, between the ages of two months and two years, are occasionally subject to the dry tetter. Irregular, scaly patches, of various sizes, appear on the cheeks, chin, breast, back, nates, and thighs. They are sometimes red, and a little rough, or elevated; sometimes excoriated, then again covered with a thin incrustation; and lastly, intersected by chaps or fissures. The general appearances nearly coincide with those of the psoriasis diffusa; but there are several peculiarities in the tetter of infants which require a distinct consideration.

The Psoriasis inveterata, is characterized by an almost universal scabiness, with a harsh, dry, and thickened state of the skin. It commences from a few irregular, though distinct patches on the extremities. Others appear afterwards on different parts, and, becoming confluent, spread at

length over all the surface of the body, except a part of the face, or sometimes the palms of the hands, and soles of the feet. The skin is red, deeply furrowed, or wrinkled, stiff and rigid, so as somewhat to impede the motion of the muscles, and of the joints. So quick, likewise, is the production and separation of scales, that large quantities of them are found in the bed on which a person affected with this disease has slept. They fall off in the same proportion by day, and being confined within the linen, excite a troublesome and perpetual itching.

PSOROPHTHALMIA, (*Psorophthalmia*, α , $f.$ $\psiωροφθαλμια$, from $\psiωρο$, a scab, and $οφθαλμος$, an eye). A scabby eruption, or itch-like pustules of the eye-lids and their margins. The proximate cause is an acrimony deposited in the glands of the eyelids. The species of the psorophthalmia are, 1. *Psorophthalmia crustosa*, which forms dry or humid crusts in the margins of the eyelids. 2. *Psorophthalmia herpetica*, in which small papulæ, itching extremely, and terminating in scurf, are observed.

PSYCHOTRIA EMETICA, (*Psychotria*, α , $f.$ $\psiυχωτρια$, from $\psiυχος$, cold, because it grows in cold places). See *Ipecacuanha*.

PSYDRACIÆ, (*Psydriacæ*, α , $f.$ $\psiυδρακια$, from $\psiυχος$, cold). Red and somewhat elevated spots, which soon form broad and superficial vesicles, such as those produced by the stinging nettle, the bites of insects, &c. See *Pustule*.

PSYLLIUM, (*Psyllium*, i , $n.$ $\psiυλλιον$, from $\psiυλλος$, a flea; so called because it was thought to destroy fleas). *Pulicaris herba.* Flea-wort. The seeds of this plant, *Plantago psyllium*; *caule ramoso herbaceo*; *foliis subdentatis, recurvatis*; *capitulis aphyllis* of Linnæus, have a nauseous mucilaginous taste, and no remarkable

smell. The decoction of the seeds is recommended in hoarseness and asperity of the fauces.

PTARMICA, (*Ptarmica*, *a*, *f*. *πταρμικά*, from *πταίω*, to sneeze; so called because it irritates the nose, and provokes sneezing). *Pseudopyrethrum*. *Pyrethrum sylvestre*. *Draco sylvestris*. *Tarchon sylvestris*. *Sternutamentoria*. Sneezewort. Ballard pellitory. *Achillea ptarmica*; *foliis lanceolatis, acuminatis, argute serratis* of Linnæus. The flowers and roots of this plant have a hot biting taste, approaching to that of pyrethrum, with which they also agree in their pharmaceutical properties. Their principal use is as a masticatory and sternutatory.

PTERIS AQUILINA, (*Pteris*, *f*. *πτερίς*, from *πτερον*, wing; so called from the likeness of its leaves to wings, and *aquilina*, from *aquila*, an eagle, from its resemblance to an eagle's wings). The systematic name of the common brake, or female fern. See *Filix fœmina*.

PTEROCARPUS SANTALINUS. The systematic name of the red jaúnder's tree. See *Santalum rubrum*.

PTERYGIUM, (*Pterygium*, *i*, *n*, *πτερυγιον*, *πτερυξ*, a wing). A membranous excrescence which grows upon the internal canthus of the eye chiefly, and expands itself over the albuginea and cornea towards the pupil. It appears to be an extension or prolongation of the fibres and vessels of the caruncula lachrymalis, or semilunar membrane, appearing like a wing. The species of pterygium are four: 1. *Pterygium tenue*, seu *ungula*, is a pellucid pellicle, thin, of a cineritious colour, and unpainful; growing out from the caruncula lachrymalis, or membrana semilunaris. 2. *Pterygium crassum*, seu *pannus*, differs from the ungula by its thickness, red colour, and fulness of the red vessels on the white of the eye,

and it stretches over the cornea like fasciculi of vessels. 3. *Pterygium malignum*, is a pannus of various colours, painful, various, and arising from a cancerous acrimony. 4. *Pterygium pingue*, seu *pinguicula*, is a mollicle-like lard or fat, soft, without pain, and of a light yellow colour, which commonly is situated in the external angle of the eye, and rarely extends to the cornea; but often remains through life.

PTERYGO. Names compounded of this word belong to muscles which are connected with the pterygoid process of the sphænoid bone; as, *pterygo-pharyngeus*, &c.

PTERYGO-PHARYNGÆUS. See *Constrictor pharyngis superior*.

PTERYGO-STAPHILINUS EXTERNUS. See *Levator palati*.

PTERYGOIDEUS EXTERNUS, (*Pterygoideus*, from *πτερυξ*, a wing, from its belonging to the processus pterygoides). *Pterygoideus minor* of Winslow. It is placed, as it were, horizontally along the basis of the scull, between the pterygoid process and the condyle of the lower jaw. It usually arises by two distinct heads; one of which is thick, tendinous, and fleshy, from the outer wing of the pterygoid process of the os sphænoides, and from a small part of the os maxillare adjoining to it; the other is thin and fleshy, from a ridge in the temporal process of the sphænoid bone, just behind the slit that transmits the vessels to the eye. Sometimes this latter origin is wanting, and, in that case, part of the temporal muscle arises from this ridge. Now and then it affords a common origin to both these muscles. From these origins the muscle forms a strong fleshy belly, which descends almost transversely outwards and backwards, and is inserted tendinous and fleshy into a depression in the fore part of the condyloid process of the lower jaw, and into the anterior sur-

face of the capsular ligament that surrounds the articulation of that bone. All that part of this muscle, which is not hid by the pterygoideus internus, is covered by a ligamentous expansion, which is broader than that belonging to the pterygoideus internus, and originates from the inner edge of the glenoid cavity of the lower jaw, immediately before the styloid process of the temporal bone, and extends obliquely downwards, forwards, and outwards, to the inner surface of the angle of the jaw. When these muscles act together, they bring the jaw horizontally forwards. When they act singly, the jaw is moved forwards, and to the opposite side. The fibres that are inserted into the capsular ligament, serve likewise to bring the moveable cartilage forwards.

PTERYGOIDEUS INTERNUS. *Pterygoideus major* of Winslow. It arises tendinous and fleshy from the whole inner surface of the external ala of the pterygoid process, filling all the space between the two wings; and from that process of the os palati that makes part of the pterygoid fossa. From thence the muscle growing larger, descends obliquely downwards, forwards, and outwards, and is inserted, by tendinous and fleshy fibres, into the inside of the lower jaw, near its angle. This muscle covers a great part of the *pterygoideus externus*; and along its posterior edge we observe a ligamentous band, which extends from the back part of the styloid process to the bottom of the angle of the lower jaw. The use of this muscle is to raise the lower jaw, and to pull it a little to one side.

PTERYGOIDEUS MAJOR. See *Pterygoideus internus*.

PTERYGOIDEUS MINOR. See *Pterygoideus externus*.

PTERYGOID PROCESS. (*Pterygoides*, from πτερυξ, a wing, and εἶδος, resemblance). A wing-like process of the sphænoid bone.

PTILŌSIS, (*Ptilosis*, is, f. πτελωσις, from πτελος, bald). A synonym of Madarosis. See *Madarosis*.

PTOSIS, (*Ptoſis*, is, f. πτωσις, from πτελλω, to fall). A synonym of Blepharoptosis. See *Blepharoptosis*.

PTOSIS IRIDIS. *Prolapsus iridis*, is a prolapsus of the iris through a wound of the cornea. It is known by a blackish tubercle, which protrudes a little from the cornea in various forms. The species of the ptosis of the iris are, 1. *Ptoſis recens*, or a recent ptosis from a side wound of the cornea, as that which happens, though rarely, in or after the extraction of the cataract. 2. *Ptoſis inveterata*, in which the incarcerated prolapsed iris is grown or attached to the wound or ulcer, and by the air has become callous or indurated.

PTYALISM, (*Ptyalismus*, i, m. πτυαλισμος, from πτυεω, to spit). A salivation, or increased secretion of saliva from the mouth.

PUBES, (*Pubes*, is, f. from βεβω, the groin). The external part of the organs of generation of both sexes, which is covered with hair.

PUBIS OS. A bone of the foetal pelvis. See *Innominatum os*.

PUDENDA, (*Pudenda*, orum, n. pl. from pudor, shame). The parts of generation.

PUDICAL ARTERY. *Arteria pudica*. Pudendal artery. A branch of the internal iliac distributed on the organs of generation.

PUERPERAL FEVER. Childbed fever. Cullen considers this disease as a species of continued fever.

PUFFBALL. See *Lycoperdon*.

PULEGIUM, (*Pulegium*, i, n. from pulex, a flea; because the smell of its leaves burnt destroys fleas). Pennyroyal. *Mentha pulegium* of Linnæus. *Mentha floribus verticillatis, foliis ovatis obtusis subcrenatis, caulibus subteretibus repentibus*. Class *Didynamia*. Order *Gymnospermia*. This plant is

considered as a carminative, stomachic, and emmenagogue; and is in very common use in hysterical disorders. The officinal preparations of pennyroyal are, a simple water, a spirit, and an essential oil.

PULEGIUM CERVINUM. Hart's pennyroyal. *Mentha cervina* of Linnæus. This plant possesses the virtues of pennyroyal in a very great degree; but is remarkably unpleasant. It is seldom employed but by the country people, who substitute it for pennyroyal.

PULICARIA, (*Pulicaria*, *a*, f. from *pulex*, a flea; so named because it was thought to destroy fleas if hung in a chamber). See *Psyllium*.

PULMONARIA, (*Pulmonaria*, *a*, f. from *pulmo*, the lungs; so called because of its virtues in affections of the lungs). Lung-wort.

PULMONARIA ARBORÆA. *Muscus pulmonarius quercinus*. This subastriugent, and rather acid plant, *Lichen pulmonarius* of Linnæus, was once in high estimation in the cure of diseases of the lungs, especially coughs, asthmas, and catarrhs. Its virtues are similar, and in no way inferior to those of the lichen islandicus.

PULMONARIA MACULATA. Spotted lung-wort. Jerusalem cowslips. Jerusalem sage. *Pulmonaria officinalis* of Linnæus. This plant is rarely found to grow wild in England; but is very commonly cultivated in gardens, where its leaves become broader, and approach more to a cordate shape. The leaves, which are the part medicinally useful, have no peculiar smell; but, in their recent state, manifest a slightly astringent and mucilaginous taste; hence it seems not wholly without foundation that they have been supposed to be demulcent and pectoral. They have been recommended in hemoptoës, tickling coughs, and catarrhal defluxions upon the lungs. The name

pulmonaria, however, seems to have arisen, rather from the speckled appearance of these leaves, resembling that of the lungs, than from any intrinsic quality which experience discovered to be useful in pulmonary complaints.

PULMONARIA OFFICINALIS. The systematic name of the spotted lung-wort. See *Pulmonaria maculata*.

PULMONARY VESSELS. The pulmonary artery, *arteria pulmonalis*, arises from the right ventricle of the heart, and soon divides into the right and left, which ramify throughout the lungs, and form a beautiful net-work on the air vesicles, where they terminate in the veins, *venæ pulmonales*, whose branches at length form four trunks, which empty themselves into the left auricle of the heart.

PULSATILLA NIGRICAENS, (*Pulsatilla*, *a*, f. from *pulso*, to beat about; so called from its being perpetually agitated by the air). This plant, *Anemone pratensis* of Linnæus, (*Anemone pedunculo involucrato, petalis apice reflexis, foliis bipinnatis*. Class *Polyandria*. Order *Polygynia*), has been received into the Edinburgh pharmacopœia upon the authority of Baron Stœrck, who recommended it as an effectual remedy for most of the chronic diseases affecting the eye, particularly amaurosis, cataract, and opacity of the cornea, proceeding from various causes. He likewise found it of great service in venereal nodes, nocturnal pains, ulcers, caries, indurated glands, suppressed menses, serpiginous eruptions, melancholy, and palsy. The plant, in its recent state, has scarcely any smell; but its taste is extremely acrid, and, when chewed, it corrodes the tongue and fauces.

PULSE, (*Pulsus*, *us*, m.). The beating of the artery at the wrist is termed the pulse. It depends upon, and is synchronous with, that of the heart; hence physicians feel the

pulse, to ascertain the quickness or tardiness of the blood's motion, the strength of the heart, &c.

PULVIS, (*Pulvis, eris, m.*). A powder.

PULVIS ALÖES CUM CANELLA. A cathartic, deobstruent powder, possessing stimulating and aloetic properties.

PULVIS ALÖES CUM FERRO. This possesses aperient and deobstruent virtues; and is mostly given in chlorosis and constipation.

PULVIS ALÖES CUM GUAIACO. A warm aperient, laxative powder, calculated for the aged, and those affected with dyspeptic gout, attended with costiveness and spasmodic complaints of the stomach and bowels.

PULVIS ALUMINIS COMPOSITUS. An astringent and tonic compound, mostly exhibited in uterine hæmorrhages, and debility of the primæ viæ.

PULVIS ANTIMONIÆ. This preparation is called in the new chemical nomenclature, *phosphas calcis sibiatus*. It is in high esteem as a febrifuge, sudorific, and antispasmodic; and, under the name of James's powder, has been long sold as a secret medicine. The diseases in which it is mostly exhibited are, most species of asthenic and exanthematous fevers, acute rheumatism, gout, diseases arising from obstructed perspiration, dysuria, nervous affections, and spasms.

PULVIS AROMATICUS. An elegant stimulant, carminative, and stomachic powder.

PULVIS ASARI COMPOSITUS. This powder is used as an errhine in diseases of the head, or to promote sneezing, in order to rouse the actions of the system.

PULVIS CERUSSÆ COMPOSITUS. This is mostly used in the form of collyrium, lotion, or injection, as a mucilaginous sedative.

PULVIS CHELARUM CANCRI

COMPOSITUS. An antacid and astringent powder, mostly given to children with diarrhæa and acidity of the primæ viæ.

PULVIS CONTRAYERVÆ COMPOSITUS. A febrifuge diaphoretic, mostly given in the dose of from one to two scruples in slight febrile affections.

PULVIS CRÆTÆ COMPOSITUS. An astringent, carminative, and stomachic powder exhibited in the cure of diarrhæa, pyrosis, and diseases arising from acidity of the bowels, inducing much pain.

PULVIS CRÆTÆ COMPOSITUS CUM OPIO. The above powder, with the addition of opium, in the proportion of one grain to two scruples.

PULVIS IPECACUANHÆ COMPOSITUS. A diaphoretic powder, similar to that of Dr. Dover, which gained such repute in the cure of rheumatisms, and other diseases arising from obstructed perspiration and spasm.

PULVIS JALAPPÆ COMPOSITUS. A saline purgative.

PULVIS MYRRHÆ COMPOSITUS. A stimulant, antispasmodic, and emmenagogue powder, mostly exhibited in the dose of from fifteen grains to two scruples, in uterine obstructions and hysterical affections.

PULVIS OPIATUS. An absorbent and anodyne.

PULVIS SCAMMŌNII COMPOSITUS. From ten to fifteen grains are exhibited as a stimulating cathartic.

PULVIS SCAMMŌNII CUM ALÖE. A stimulating cathartic, in the dose of from ten to fifteen grains.

PULVIS SCAMMŌNII CUM CALOMELANE. A vermifugal cathartic, in the dose of from ten to twenty grains.

PULVIS SENNÆ COMPOSITUS. A saline stimulating cathartic.

PULVIS TRAGACANTHÆ COMPOSITUS. A very useful demulcent

powder, which may be given in the dose of a drachm in coughs, diarrhæas, strangury, &c.

PUMPKION, COMMON. See *Cucurbita*.

PUNCTA LACHRYMALIA. Two small orifices, one of which is conspicuous in each eyelid, at the extremity of the tarsus, near the internal canthus.

PUNICA. See *Granatum*.

PUNICA GRANATUM. The systematic name of the pomegranate. See *Granatum*.

PUPIL, (*Pupilla*, *a*, *f*: from *pupa*, a babe; because it reflects the diminished image of the person who looks upon it like a puppet). The round opening in the middle of the iris, in which we see ourselves in the eye of another.

PUPILLA. See *Pupil*.

PURGING FLAX. See *Linum catharticum*.

PURGING NUT. See *Ricinus major*.

PURSLANE. See *Portulaca*.

PUS, (*Pus*, *uris*, *n*. pl. *prura*). A whitish, bland, cream-like fluid, heavier than water, found in phlegmonous abscesses, or on the surface of sores. It is distinguished, according to its nature, into laudable or good pus, serophulous, serous, and ichorous pus, &c.

The most generally established opinion of the nature of pus, till within the last thirty years has been, that it was composed both of solids and fluids; nor is the opinion even now entirely exploded. It was called "true, or laudable pus," to distinguish it from a similar discharge, supposed to be composed wholly of fluids, called mucus. Yet the distinctions between pus and mucus have been very ill defined: there was thought to be a difference in their appearance to the eye; but the principal mark of distinction arose from a breach of surface being believed necessary to

the formation of pus, but not of mucus; consequently, when there was no breach in the solids, the discharge was considered to be only mucus.

This notion of pus must have taken its rise from an idea that the solids of the parts were broken down into pus.

The physiologists who formed this theory cannot, however, be said to have made their distinctions with great accuracy, since the discharge, in consequence of a blister being applied to the surface of the body, was admitted to be pus; although, in such cases there is no loss of substance, and therefore the discharge should have been called mucus.

To ascertain a real difference between the fluid formed where there is a breach in the solids, and that met with where the surface is entire, has been considered an object meriting the attention of some of our most eminent surgeons, although the fluid formed under both these circumstances will be found to be precisely the same. This inquiry must have arisen from their adhering to the hypothesis which has been mentioned, and which not being founded upon the principles of the animal economy, can never explain, satisfactorily, any of the operations in the living body.

It will be found, upon investigation, that the appearance of a discharge produced from the secreting surface of an internal canal, or excretory duct, when the produce of the suppurative inflammation, is exactly similar to a discharge, in consequence of inflammation in any other part of the body. The only respect in which they differ is, that, in the one case, there is no breach of surface, and, in the other, there most commonly appears to be one. The one is suppuration alone, the other suppuration attended by ulceration.

Mr. Home has been at considerable pains to collect those properties and

circumstances which have been ascertained respecting pus; and has endeavoured, by investigating others not so well understood, to render the history of it more complete. Through the whole of these observations, which are extracted from his work, pus will be considered as a fluid, whose formation depends upon a process in the animal economy analogous to glandular secretions. Its production, Mr. Home observes, depends upon inflammation having previously taken place in some part of the body, either in the common reticular membrane, upon the internal surface of circumscribed cavities, or the surfaces of internal canals, which form excretory ducts of the body.

Inflammation is necessary for the formation of pus; and although a fluid, somewhat similar, is produced without any preceding inflammation, such fluids, not having all the properties of true pus, can be readily distinguished from it.

Pus, whether it is formed in the cellular membrane upon an investing membrane, or on the internal surface of an excretory duct, has exactly the same appearance and general properties. No distinctions will, therefore, be made between pus produced under this or that peculiar circumstance; believing it, when preceded by the same degree of inflammation in a healthy constitution, and when free from any extraneous substances, to be the same fluid. But as a difference in pus may arise from a variety of causes, it will be proper first to mark those properties which really belong to it in an healthy state of body, and afterwards mention the variations to which it is liable.

Pus taken from an healthy ulcer, near the source of circulation, as on the arm or breast, readily separates from the surface of the sore, the granulations underneath being small, pointed, and of a florid red colour,

and has the following properties: it is nearly of the consistence of cream; is of a white colour; has a mawkish taste; and, when cold, is inodorous; but, when warm, has a peculiar smell. Examined in a microscope, it is found to consist of two parts, of globules, and a transparent colourless fluid; the globules are probably white, at least they appear to have some degree of opacity. Its specific gravity is greater than that of water. It does not readily go into putrefaction. Exposed to heat, it evaporates to dryness; but does not coagulate. It does not unite with water in the heat of the atmosphere, but falls to the bottom; yet, if kept in a considerable degree of heat, rises and diffuses through the water, and remains mixed with it, even after having been allowed to cool, the globules being decomposed.

Pus varies in its appearance, according to the different circumstances which affect the ulcer that forms it; such as, the degree of violence of the inflammation, also its nature, whether healthy or unhealthy; and these depend upon the state of health, and strength of the parts yielding pus. These changes arise more from indolence and irritability, than from any absolute disease; many specific diseases, in healthy constitutions, producing no change in the appearance of the matter from their specific quality. Thus, the matter from a gonorrhœa, from the small-pox pustules, the chicken-pock, and from an healthy ulcer, has the same appearance, and seems to be made up of similar parts, consisting of globules floating in a transparent fluid, like common pus; the specific properties of each of these poisons being super-added to those of pus. Matter from a cancer may be considered as an exception; but a cancerous ulcer is never in a healthy state.

In indolent ulcers, whether the

indolence arises from the nature of the parts, or the nature of the inflammation, the pus is made up of globules and flaky particles, floating in a transparent fluid; and globules and flakes are in different proportions, according to the degree of indolence: this is particularly observable in scrophulous abscesses, preceded by a small degree of inflammation. That this flaky appearance is no part of true pus, is well illustrated by observing, that the proportion it bears to the globules is greatest where there is the least inflammation; and in those abscesses that sometimes occur, which have not been preceded by any inflammation at all, the contents are wholly made up of a curdy or flaky substance, of different degrees of consistence, which is not considered to be pus, from its not having the properties stated in the definition of that fluid.

The constitution and part must be in health to form good pus; for very slight changes in the general health are capable of producing an alteration in it, and even of preventing its being formed at all, and substituting in its place coagulating lymph.

This happens most readily in ulcers in the lower extremities, owing to the distance of the parts from the source of the circulation, rendering them weaker. And it is curious to observe the influence that distance alone has upon the appearance of pus.

A man had a compound fracture of the right leg, and an ulcer on the ankle of the left. He was in tolerable health, the ulcer looking well. An attack of fever came on soon after, when the ulcer on the ankle ceased to form good pus, the matter not separating readily from its surface, while the compound fracture continued to look very well; but in twelve hours more the same change had taken place in the opening of the

compound fracture, which was about six inches higher up the leg than the ulcer. In irritable ulcers, the discharge is often thin, being principally made up of an aqueous fluid, possessed of an irritating quality, and containing few globules; such ulcers are commonly attended with hæmorrhage from the smaller vessels, by which the discharge is very materially altered in its properties, is rendered acrid, and more ready to run into putrefaction than true pus. We find, however, in many irritable constitutions, the same appearances that were mentioned to take place in the indolent, the coagulating lymph being thrown out, and adhering firmly to the surface of the ulcer; therefore the appearance of an ulcer alone will not lead us to a correct judgment of its nature, but will only inform us whether it is healthy or unhealthy.

Although these different appearances of pus have been noticed, from their being so connected with its history as to deserve attention, they are not to be considered as belonging to true pus, but as arising from a defect in the process, whatever it is, by which pus is formed.

Pus differs from chyle in its globules being larger, not coagulating by exposure to the air, nor by heat, which those of chyle do.

The pancreatic juice contains globules, but they are much smaller than those of pus.

Milk is composed of globules, nearly of the same size as those of pus, but much more numerous. Milk coagulates by runnet, which pus does not; and contains oil and sugar, which are not to be discovered in pus.

The cases in which pus is formed are, properly speaking, all reducible to one, which is, the state of parts consequent to inflammation. For, as far as we yet know, pus has in no instance been met with unless preceded

by inflammation; and although, in some cases, a fluid has been formed independent of preceding inflammation, it differs from pus in many of its properties, as has been already observed.

In inflammation, the smaller blood-vessels become considerably enlarged; and, what is curious, this takes place in the greatest degree in the veins; the small vessels are not only enlarged, but become more numerous; which proceed entirely from the blood being propelled further than usual in the old veins, but from new ones being formed; and this takes place in a much shorter time than has been imagined. It is highly probable, that these new vessels are so constructed, as to make the blood undergo certain changes, by which the fluid that afterwards constitutes pus is formed.

It has been long ascertained, that new vessels are generated in extravasated coagula of blood, and exudations of coagulating lymph. The following case ascertains the period in which this effect can be produced to be within twenty-four hours; and we know, that pus commonly requires a much longer time for its formation, under the same circumstances, and in similar parts.

Mr. Home performed the operation for the strangulated hernia upon a man in other respects in health, at seven o'clock in the morning. The hernial sac was laid open, and the gut, which proved to be a portion of the ilium about six inches in length, was attentively examined, previous to its being returned into the cavity of the belly. It had the natural polished surface peculiar to an intestine; and although its vessels were turgid with blood, it did not appear that they were uncommonly numerous. After the operation, the symptoms did not abate so much as might have been expected; and, during the afternoon

he complained of pain in the lower part of his belly. He had no passage by stool; and next morning, about seven o'clock, his pulse was scarcely perceptible to the touch; his skin cold and clammy; and, about twelve o'clock at noon, he died, having lived twenty-nine hours after the operation.

The body was opened, and the portion of gut which had been strangulated was found considerably inflamed, the external surface having lost its natural polish, and having several small portions of exudated coagulating lymph adhering to it. The vessels of the gut were minutely injected, the arteries with a red coloured injection, and the veins with a yellow one. Upon examination afterwards, all these adhering portions of coagulating lymph were found to be injected, having a considerable artery going to each of them, and a returning vein, which was larger than the artery. It is evident, therefore, that the coagulating lymph was laid upon the external surface of the gut after the operation; and we cannot suppose, that any such process as the forming new vessels, could have been going on during the last five hours of his life, when the pulse in the wrist was scarcely to be felt, and the powers of life were so much weakened in every respect. We must therefore conclude, that the whole operation of throwing out coagulating lymph, and supplying it with blood-vessels after it had become solid, was effected in less than twenty-four hours.

This shows, that inflammation forms a vascular surface previous to the formation of pus. Is it not, therefore, highly probable, that the newly formed parts are so organized as to secrete that fluid?

In considering the time required for the formation of pus, it is necessary to take notice of the periods

which are found, under different circumstances, to intervene between a healthy or natural state of the parts, and the presence of that fluid after the application of some irritating substance to the skin.

In cases of wounds made into muscular parts, where blood vessels are divided, the first process which takes place is the extravasation of red blood; the second is the exudation of coagulating lymph, which afterwards becomes vascular; and the third, the formation of matter, which last does not, in common, take place in less than two days; the precise time will, however, vary exceedingly, according to the nature of the constitution, and the state of the parts at the time.

If an irritating substance is applied to a cuticular surface, upon which it raises a blister, pus will be formed in about twenty-four hours.

PUSTŪLA, (*Pustula*, *æ*, f. dim. of *pus*, matter). See *Pustule*.

PUSTULE. An elevation of the cuticle, sometimes globate, sometimes conoidal in its form, and containing pus, or a lymph which is in general discoloured. Pustules are various in their size, but the diameter of the largest seldom exceeds two lines. There are many different kinds of pustules, properly distinguished in medical authors, by specific appellations, as 1. *Phlyzaciū*, a small pustule containing pus, and raised on a hard, circular, inflamed base, of a vivid red colour. It is succeeded by a thick, hard, dark-coloured scab. 2. *Psydraciū*, a minute pustule, irregularly circumscribed, producing but a slight elevation of the cuticle, and terminating in a laminated scab. Many of these pustules usually appear together, and become confluent. When mature they contain pus; and after breaking, discharge a thin watery humour.

PUTAMEN, (*Putamen*, *inis*, n. from *puto*, to cut). The bark or paring of any vegetable. The putamen, or green rind of the walnut, has been celebrated as a powerful antivenereal remedy, for more than a century and a half; and Petrus Borellus has given directions for a decoction not unlike that which is commonly called the Lisbon diet drink, in which the walnut, with its green bark, forms a principal ingredient. Ramazzini, whose works were published early in the present century, has likewise informed us, that in his time the green rind of the walnut was esteemed a good antivenereal remedy in England. This part of the walnut has been much used in decoctions, during the last fifty years, both in the green and dry state; it has been greatly recommended by writers on the continent, as well as by those of our own country; and is, without doubt, a very useful addition to the decoction of the woods. Mr. Pearson has employed it during many years, in those cases where pains in the limbs and indurations of the membranes have remained, after the venereal disease has been cured by mercury; and he informs us, that he has seldom directed it without manifest advantage.

Brambilla and Girtanner also contend for the antivenereal virtues of the green bark of the walnut; but the result of Mr. P.'s experience will not permit him to add his testimony to theirs. I have given it, says he, in as large doses as the stomach could retain, and for as long a time as the strength of the patients, and the nature of their complaints, would permit; but I have uniformly observed, that if they who take it be not previously cured of *lues venerea*, the peculiar symptoms will appear, and proceed in their usual course, in defiance of the powers of this medicine.

The *Decoctum lufitanicum* may be given with great advantage in many of those cutaneous diseases which are attended with aridity of the skin; and I have had some opportunities of observing, that when the putamen of the walnut has been omitted, either intentionally or by accident, the same good effects have not followed the taking of the decoction, as when it contained this ingredient.

PUTREFACTION OF THE HUMAN BODY. The same requisites are necessary to the putrefaction of the human body, as are required for the putrid fermentation of vegetables.

1. *A certain degree of heat:* thus bodies putrefy sooner immersed in water, and more slowly when buried in a very dry earth, which absorbs the moisture from the body. 2. *The access of atmospheric air.* Thus bodies putrefy sooner when exposed to the open air, than when buried. In like manner, animal substances, in the exhausted receiver of an air-pump, go very slowly into putrefaction. Animals putrefy quickest in vital air; slower in carbonic; and in muriatic air, the slowest. 3. *A temperature of heat* of at least ten degrees. Thus bodies putrefy sooner in summer than in winter. If the heat be considerable, and suddenly applied, then the body is dried into a mummy. If the cold be intense, bodies may be preserved free from putrefaction for many months.

The fluids of the body are first dissipated in the air, then the soft parts, and at length, after many ages, the substance of the bones themselves, volatilized by putrefaction, totally evaporate. For coffins have been found, which had been deposited for centuries, and well closed, in which not the least appearance of a body could be detected. The dead body, therefore, does not resolve itself into earth, to be mixed with the dust, but into air, from which

it was made. For the soil of burying-places, in which for ages, an immense number of bodies have putrefied, is not at all elevated: and, were it otherwise, the whole surface of the earth would by this time, from the accumulated bodies of dead men and animals, have become a mass of animal earth: which is no where found to be the case. Nor are dead bodies, when deposited in the earth, the food of worms. For these are only found in bodies exposed to the atmosphere, or at least superficially buried, and not in those to which the air has no access.

The phenomena of a putrefying body are: 1. *Emphysematous swelling*, whence arises the disposition in drowned bodies to swim, after a time, on the surface. This intumescence, or swelling, arises from the conversion of the putrefying fluids into the gaseous state. 2. *A cadaverous odour is exhaled*, which is specific, and affects the nostrils. 3. *The whole surface of the body acquires a yellow tinge*, interspersed here and there with greenish, livid, and black spots. These by degrees burst, and emit an intolerable putrid fetor, destructive to man. 4. At length the swelling, after a short time, subsides, the ruptured spots discharge a cadaverous sanies, by which the whole body is changed into a brown or greenish pulsatous mass; and the cadaverous stench is again emitted, though weaker. 5. This putrid mass at length dries into a brownish, black, friable substance. This change is effected, for the most part, in eighteen months, and at longest within three years. 6. Of all the parts of the body, the bones resist decomposition the longest, on account of their earthy compages; but at length they give way. Augustus, when he visited the tomb of Alexander the Great, found the body, to all appearance, in the most perfect state of preserva-

tion; on the slightest touch, however, the unconquered hero, the former *Alexander*, crumbled into dust!

The deeper an animal body is buried in the earth, the more slowly it putrefies; in a calcareous, more speedily than in an argillaceous; but the quickest of all is in a moist sandy soil. If the sandy soil be very dry, and friable, defended from the air and rain, the gases constantly emitted, are absorbed by the sand; and the body, in this state, is converted into a mummy.

The bodies of women are more readily convertible into mummy than those of the males, on account of the greater subtilty of their humours. Out of fifty-two bodies dug up in this state, from a cemetery at Paris, one only was a male.

Sometimes, though rarely, the soft parts are changed into a *saponaceous substance*, soluble in water; which, chemically examined, consists of a peculiar oil, and volatile alkali. This change takes place when a number of bodies are so buried together, without any intermediate earth, that the gaseous fluids which are emitted are not suffered to escape. In this case, one portion of the hydrogen combines with carbone, and forms oil; the other portion, with azote, is changed into volatile alkali, producing, when mixed, a saponaceous mass; as was observed in the burying-ground at Paris.

PUTRID FERMENTATION. That process by which a substance is decomposed and dissipated in the air, in the form of putrid gaz. Every living body, when deprived of life, performs a retrograde process, and becomes decomposed. This is called fermentation in vegetables, and putrefaction in animals. The same causes, the same agents, and the same circumstances, determine and favour the decomposition in vegetables and animals, and the difference

of the products which are obtained, arises from the difference of the constituent parts of each. The requisites to this process are, 1. A certain degree of humidity. 2. The access of atmospheric air. 3. A certain degree of heat. See also *Fermentation*.

PUTRID FEVER. A species of typhus. See *Typhus gravior*.

PYLORIC ARTERY. A branch of the hepatic artery.

PYLORUS, (*Pylorus*, *i*, *m*. πυλωρος, from πυλω, to guard an entrance; because it guards, as it were, the entrance of the bowels). The inferior aperture of the stomach, which opens into the intestines.

PYRAMIDALIS, (*Pyramidalis*, *sc*. *musculus*; from πυραμν, a pyramid). Fallopius, who is considered as the first accurate describer of this muscle, first gave it the name of *pyramidalis*, from its shape. But Vesalius seems to have been acquainted with it, and to have described it as a part of the rectus. It is a very small muscle, situated at the bottom of the fore part of the rectus, and is covered by the same aponeurosis that forms the anterior part of the sheath of that muscle. It arises, by short tendinous fibres, from the upper and fore part of the pubis. From this origin, which is seldom more than an inch in breadth, its fibres ascend somewhat obliquely, to be inserted into the linea alba, and inner edge of the rectus, commonly at about the distance of two inches from the pubis, and frequently at a greater or less distance, but always below the umbilicus. In some subjects the pyramidalis is wanting on one or both sides, and when this happens, the internal oblique is usually found to be of greater thickness at its lower part. Now and then, though rarely, there are two at one side, and only one at the other, and M. Sabbatier has even seen two on each side. Fallopius, and

many others after him, have considered it as the congener of the internal oblique; but its use seems to be to assist the lower part of the rectus.

PYRAMĪDĀLIS FACIEI. See *Levator labii superioris alaeque nasi*.

PYRĒTHRUM, (*Pyrethrum*, i, n. πυρεθρον, from πυρ, fire, because of the hot taste of its root). *Dentaria*. *Herba salivaris*. *Pes alexandrinus*. Pellitory of Spain. *Anthemis pyrethrum* of Linnæus. *Anthemis caulis simplicibus unifloris decumbentibus, foliis pinnato-multifidis*. Class *Syngenesia*. Order *Polygamia superflua*. The ancient Romans, we are told, employed the root of this plant as a pickle. In its recent state it is not so pungent as when dried, yet if applied to the skin, it is said to produce inflammation. Its qualities are stimulant; but it is never used, except as a masticatory, for relieving tooth-achs, rheumatic affections of the face, and paralysis of the tongue, in which it affords relief by stimulating the excretory ducts of the salival glands.

PYRĒTHRUM SYLVESTRE. See *Ptarmica*.

PYRETOLOGY, (*Pyretologia*, a, f. πυρετολογία, from πυρ, fire, or heat, and λογος, a discourse). A discourse or doctrine on fevers.

PYREXĪA, (*Pyrexia*, a, f. πυρεξια, from πυρ, fire). Fever.

PYREXIÆ. Febrile diseases. The first class of Cullen's nosology; characterized by frequency of pulse after a cold shivering, with increase of heat, and especially, among other impaired functions, a diminution of strength.

PYRIFORMIS, (*Pyriformis*, is, from *pyrus*, a pear, and *forma*, a shape, shaped like a pear). *Pyriformis*, seu *iliacus externus* of Douglas. Spigelius was the first who gave a name to this muscle, which he called *pyriformis*, from its supposed resemblance to a pear. It is a small radiated muscle, situated under the glu-

tæus maximus, along the inferior edge of the glutæus minimus. It arises by three, and sometimes four tendinous and fleshy origins, from the anterior surface of the second, third, and fourth pieces of the os sacrum, so that this part of it is within the pelvis. From these origins the muscle grows narrower, and passing out of the pelvis, below the niche in the posterior part of the ilium, from which it receives a few fleshy fibres, is inserted, by a roundish tendon of an inch in length, into the upper part of the cavity at the root of the trochanter major. The use of this muscle is to assist in moving the thigh outwards, and in moving it a little upwards.

PYRITES, (*Pyrites*, a, m. πυριτες, from πυρ, fire; so called because it strikes fire with steel). A metallic substance, formed of iron united with sulphur, from which all the sulphur of commerce is obtained.

PYRITES ARSENICĀLES. See *Arsenic*.

PYRMONT WATER. A general view of the analysis of this water will show, that it stands the first in rank of the highly carbonated chalybeates, and contains such an abundance of carbonic acid, as not only to hold dissolved a number of carbonic salts, but to show all the properties of this acid uncombined, and in its most active form. Pyrmont water is likewise a strong chalybeate, with regard to the proportion of iron; and it is besides a very hard water, containing much selenite and earthy carbonats. The diseases to which this mineral water may be advantageously applied, are the same as those for which the spa and others of the acidulated chalybeates are resorted to, that is, in all cases of debility that require an active tonic that is not permanently heating; various disorders in the alimentary canal, especially bilious, vomiting, and diar-

rhœa, and complaints that originate from obstructed menstruation.

PYRÖLA, (*Pyrola*, æ, from *pyrus*, a pear; so named because its leaves resemble those of the pear-tree). Round leaved wintergreen. This elegant little plant, *Pyrola rotundifolia* of Linnæus, is now forgotten in the practice of medicine. It possesses gently adstringent qualities, and has a somewhat bitter taste.

PYRÖLA ROTUNDIFOLIÄ. The systematic name of the wintergreen. See *Pyrola*.

PYRO-LIGNEOUS ACID. *Acidum pyro-lignosum*. An acid liquor of a brown colour, of a pretty strong and peculiar smell, obtained by distillation from wood, especially the beech, birch, and box. It is thought by some chemists to be acetic acid.

PYRO-LIGNITES, (*Pyro-lignis, tis, m.*). Salts formed by the union of the pyro-lignic acid with different bases.

PYRO-MUCITES, (*Pyro-mucis, tis, m.*). Salts formed by the union of the pyro-mucic acid with different bases.

PYRO-MUCOUS ACID. *Acidum pyro-mucosum*. Syrupous acid. The acid liquor obtained by distillation from insipid, saccharine, gummy, farinaceous mucilages. The celebrated Gren is of opinion, that it is a mixture of acetic with oxalic acid, and does not deserve to be received in the system of chemistry as a peculiar acid.

PYRO-TARTRITES, (*Pyro-tartris, tis, m.*). Salts formed by the combination of the pyro-tartrous acid with different bases.

PYRO-TARTROUS ACID. *Acidum pyro-tartrosusum*. See *Tartar, spirit of*.

PYRÖSIS, (*Pyrosis, is, f. πυρωσις*, from *πυρω*, to burn). The heart-burn. A genus of disease in the class *neuroses* and order *spasmi* of Cullen; known by a burning pain in the stomach, attended with copious eructation, generally of a watery insipid fluid.

PYRUS CYDONIA. The systematic name of the quince tree. See *Cydonium malum*.

PYRUS MALUS, The systematic name of the apple-tree. See *Apples*.

Q.

Q. P. An abbreviation of *quantum placet*, as much as you please.

Q. S. The contractions for *quantum sufficit*.

Q. V. An abbreviation of *quantum vis*, as much as you will.

QUADRATUS. See *Depressor labii inferioris*.

QUADATUS FEMÖRIS, (*Quadratus*, from *quadra*, a square; so called from its supposed shape). A muscle of the thigh situated on the outside of the pelvis. It is a flat, thin, and fleshy muscle, but not of the shape its name would seem to indicate. It is situated immediately be-

low the gemini. It arises tendinous and fleshy from the external surface and lower edge of the tuberosity of the ischium, and is inserted by short tendinous fibres into a ridge which is seen extending from the basis of the trochanter major to that of the trochanter minor. Its use is to bring the os femoris outwards.

QUADRATUS GENÆ. See *Platysma myoides*.

QUADRATUS LABII INFERIORIS. See *Depressor labii inferioris*.

QUADRATUS LUMBORUM. *Quadratus, seu Lumbaris externus* of Winflow. A muscle situated within the cavity of the abdomen. This is a small, flat, and oblong muscle, that has gotten the name of *quadratus* from its shape, which is that of an irregular square. It is situated laterally, at the lower part of the spine. It arises tendinous and fleshy, from about two inches from the posterior part of the spine of the ilium. From this broad origin it ascends obliquely inwards, and is inserted into the transverse processes of the four superior lumbar vertebræ, into the lower edge of the last rib, and, by a small tendon, that passes up under the diaphragm, into the side of the last vertebra of the back. When this muscle acts singly, it draws the loins to one side; when both muscles act, they serve to support the spine, and perhaps to bend it forwards. In laborious respiration, the quadratus lumborum may assist in pulling down the ribs.

QUADRATUS MAXILLÆ INFERIORIS. See *Platysma myoides*.

QUADRATUS RADII. See *Protractor radii quadratus*.

QUARTAN AGUE. Of this species of ague, as well as the other kinds, there are several varieties noticed by authors. The most frequent of these are, 1. The double quartan, with two paroxysms or fits on the first day, none on the second and

third, and two again on the fourth day. 2. The double quartan, with a paroxysm on the first day, another on the second, but none on the third. 3. The triple quartan, with three paroxysms every fourth day. 4. The triple quartan, with a slight paroxysm every day, every fourth paroxysm being similar. See also *Febris intermittens*.

QUARTZ. This name is given to the opaque or irregularly figured vitrifiable stone.

QUASSIA, (*Quassia*, *a*, *f*. from a slave of the name of *Quassi*, who first used it with uncommon success as a secret remedy in the malignant endemic fevers which frequently prevailed at Surinam). Bitter quassia. The root, bark, and wood of this tree, *Quassia amara* of Linnæus (*Quassia floribus hermaphroditis, foliis impari-pinnatis, foliolis oppositis sessilibus, petiolo articulato alato, floribus racemosis*. Suppl. Plant. Class *Decandria*. Order *Monogynia*), are all comprehended in the catalogues of the materia medica. The tree is a native of South America, particularly of Surinam, and also of some of the West India islands. The botanical character of this species of quassia was known long before that of the simarouba, as it is noticed in its proper place in the Sp. Plantarum, upon the authority of Dahlberg, when it was thought peculiar to Surinam. Afterwards, Linnæus, in his *Materia Medica*, referred it to the *Nux Americana, foliis alatis bifidis* of Commelin.

The roots are perfectly ligneous; they may be medically considered in the same light as the wood, which is now most generally employed, and seems to differ from the bark in being less intensely bitter; the latter is therefore thought to be a more powerful medicine. Quassia has no sensible odour; its taste is that of a pure bitter, more intense and durable than

that of almost any other known substance; it imparts its virtues more completely to watery than to spirituous menstua, and its infusions are not blackened by the addition of martial vitriol. The watery extract is from a sixth to a ninth of the weight of the wood, the spirituous about a twenty-fourth. Quassia, as before observed, derived its name from a negro named Quassi, who employed it with uncommon success as a secret remedy in the malignant endemic fevers which frequently prevailed at Surinam. In consequence of a valuable consideration, this secret was disclosed to Daniel Rolander, a Swede, who brought specimens of the quassia wood to Stockholm, in the year 1756; and, since then, the effects of this drug have been generally tried in Europe, and numerous testimonies of its efficacy published by many respectable authors. Various experiments with quassia have likewise been made, with a view to ascertain its antiseptic powers; from which it appears to have considerable influence in retarding the tendency to putrefaction; and this, Professor Murray thinks, cannot be attributed to its sensible qualities, as it possesses no adstringency whatever; nor can it depend upon its bitterness, as gentian is much bitterer, yet less antiseptic. The medicinal virtues ascribed to quassia are those of a tonic, stomachic, antiseptic, and febrifuge. It has been found very effectual in restoring digestion, expelling flatulencies, and removing habitual costiveness, produced from debility of the intestines, and common to a sedentary life. Dr. Lettsom, whose extensive practice gave him an opportunity of trying the effects of quassia in a great number of cases, says, "In debility, succeeding febrile diseases, the Peruvian bark is most generally more tonic and salutary than any other vegetable hitherto known; but in hysterical atony, to

which the female sex is so prone, the quassia affords more vigour and relief to the system than the other, especially when united with the vitriolum album, and still more with the acid of some absorbent." In dyspepsia, arising from hard drinking, and also in diarrhæas, the doctor exhibited the quassia with great success. But, with respect to the tonic and febrifuge qualities of quassia, he says, "I by no means subscribe to the Linnæan opinion, where the author declares, *me quidem judice chinichinam longe superat.*" It is very well known, that there are certain peculiarities of the air, and idiosyncrasies of constitution, unfavourable to the exhibition of Peruvian bark, even in the most clear intermissions of fever; and writers have repeatedly noticed it. But this is comparatively very rare. About midsummer 1785, Dr. L. met with several instances of low remittent and nervous fevers, wherein the bark uniformly aggravated the symptoms, though given in intermissions the most favourable to its success, and wherein quassia, or snake-root, was successfully substituted. In such cases, he mostly observed, that there was great congestion in the hepatic system, and the debility at the same time discouraged copious evacuations. And in many fevers, without evident remissions to warrant the use of the bark, whilst, at the time, increasing debility began to threaten the life of the patient, the Doctor found that quassia, or snake-root, singly or combined, upheld the vital powers, and promoted a critical intermission of fever, by which an opportunity was offered for the bark to effect a cure. It may be given in infusion, or in pills made from the watery extract; the former is generally preferred, in the proportion of three or four drachms of the wood to twelve ounces of water.

QUASSIA AMARA. The systema-

tic name of the bitter quassia tree. See *Quassia*.

QUASSIA SIMAROUBA. The systematic name of the simarouba quassia. See *Simarouba*.

QUASSY. See *Quassia*.

QUEEN OF THE MEADOW. See *Ulmaria*.

QUERCULA, (*Quercula*, *æ*, f. dim. of *quercus*, the oak; so called because it has leaves like the oak). An antiquated name of the germander. See *Chamædrys*.

QUERCUS, (*Quercus*, *us*, f. from *quero*, to enquire; because divinations were formerly given from oaks by the Druids). The oak. *Quercus robur* of Linnæus. *Quercus foliis oblongis glabris sinuatis, lobis rotundatis, glandibus oblongis*. Class *Menoecia*. Order *Polyandria*. This valuable tree is indigenous to Britain. Its astringent effects were sufficiently known to the ancients, but it is the bark which is now directed for medicinal use by our pharmacopœias. Oak bark manifests to the taste a strong astringency, accompanied with a moderate bitterness. Like other astringents, it has been recommended in agues, and for restraining hæmorrhages, alvine fluxes, and other immoderate evacuations. A decoction of it has likewise been advantageously employed as a gargle, and as a fomentation or lotion in *procidentia recti et uteri*. Galls, which, in the warm climate of the East, are found upon the leaves of this tree, are occasioned by a small insect with four wings, called *Cynips quercus folii*, which deposits an egg in the substance of the leaf, by making a small perforation through the under surface. The ball presently begins to grow to a considerable size. Two sorts of galls are distinguished in the shops; one said to be brought from Aleppo, the other from Turkey and the southern parts of Europe. The former are generally of a blueish colour, or of a grayish, or

black verging to blueness; unequal and warty on the surface; hard to break; and of a close compact texture: the other of a light brownish or whitish colour, smooth, round, easily broken, less compact, and of a much larger size. The two sorts differ only in size and strength, two of the blue galls being supposed equivalent in this respect to three of the others. Galls appear to be the most powerful of the vegetable astringents. As a medicine, they are to be considered as applicable to the same indications as the oak-bark, and by possessing a greater degree of astringent and styptic power, seem to have an advantage over it, and to be better suited for external use. Reduced to fine powder, and made into an ointment, they have been found of great service in hæmorrhoidal affections.

QUERCUS CERRIS. The systematic name of the tree which affords the Turkey galls. See *Quercus*.

QUERCUS ESCULUS. The systematic name of the Italian oak, whose acorns are, in times of scarcity, said to afford a meal of which bread is made.

QUERCUS MARINA. The sea oak. Sea wrack. This sea-weed is the *Fucus vesiculosus*; *fronde plana dichotoma costata integerrima, vesiculis axillaribus geminis, terminalibus tuberculatis* of Linnæus. It is said to be a useful assistant to sea water in the cure of disorders of the glands. Burnt in the open air, and reduced to a black-powder, it forms the *æthiops vegetabilis*, which, as an internal medicine, is similar to burnt sponge.

QUERCUS PHELLOS. The systematic name of the willow-leaved oak, whose acorns are much sweeter than chestnuts, and much eaten by the Indians. They afford by expression an oil little inferior to oil of almonds.

QUERCUS ROBUR. The systematic name of the oak tree. See *Quercus*.

QUERCUS SUBER. The systematic name of the cork-tree. See *Suber*.

QUICK-GRASS. The *Triticum repens* of Linnæus, is sometimes so called. See *Gramen caninum*.

QUICK-LIME. See *Lime*.

QUICKSILVER. See *Hydrargyrum*.

QUID PRO QUO. These words are applied the same as *succedaneum*, when one thing is made use of to supply the defect of another.

QUINCE. See *Cydonium malum*.

QUINCE, BENGAL. See *Bengal quince*.

QUINCY. The *Cynanche tonsillaris* of Cullen. See *Cynanche*.

QUINSEY. A species of *cynanche*. See *Cynanche*.

QUINQUEFOLIUM. (*Quinquesfolium*, i, f. from *quinque*, five, and *folium*, a leaf; so called because it has five leaves on each footstalk). Cinquefoil or five-leaved grass. See *Pentaphyllum*.

QUINQUINA. See *Cinchona*.

QUOTIDIAN AGUE. See *Febris intermittens*.

R.

R A

R. This letter is placed at the beginning of a prescription as a contraction of *recipe*, take: thus, *R Magnes. alb. 3j*, signifies, Take a dram of magnesia.

RABIES CANINA. See *Hydrophobia*.

RACHIALGIA, (*Rachialgia*, α, f. from *ρᾱχις*, the spine, and *ἀλγυ*, pain). A pain in the spine. It was formerly applied to several species of cholic which induced pain in the back.

RACHITIS, (*Rachitis*, ἰdis, f. *εὐρύς*; from *ρᾱχις*, the spine of the back; so called because it was supposed to originate in a fault of the spinal marrow). The rickets. A species of disease in the class *cachexiæ*, and order *intumescentiæ* of Cullen; known by a large head, prominent forehead, protruded sternum, flattened ribs, big belly, and emaciated limbs, with great debility. It is usually confined in its attack between the two periods of nine months and two years of age, seldom appearing sooner than the former, or shewing itself for the first time after the latter

R A

period. The muscles become flaccid, the head enlarges, the carotids are distended, the limbs waste away, and their epiphyses increase in bulk. The bones and spine of the back are variously distorted; disinclination to muscular exertion follows; the abdomen swells and grows hard; the stools are frequent and loose; a slow fever succeeds, with cough and difficulty of respiration: atrophy is confirmed, and death ensues. Frequently it happens that nature restores the general health, and leaves the limbs distorted.

After death, the liver and the spleen have been found enlarged and scirrhus; the mesenteric glands indurated, and the lungs either charged with vomica, or adhering to the pleura; the bones soft; the brain flaccid or oppressed with lymph, and the distended bowels loaded most frequently with slime, sometimes with worms.

It is remarkable, that in the kindred disease, which Hoffmann and Sauvage call the atrophy of infants, we have many of the same symp-

toms and the same appearances nearly after death. They who perish by this disease, says Hoffmann, have the mesenteric glands enlarged and schirrhous; the liver and spleen obstructed and increased in size; the intestines are much inflated, and are loaded with black and fœtid matters, and the muscles, more especially of the abdomen, waste away.

RACKASĪRA BALSĀMUM. See *Balsamum rackasira*.

RACŌSIS, (*Racosis*, is, f. *ρακος*, from *ρανος*, a rag). A ragged excoriation of the relaxed scrotum.

RADIAL ARTERY. *Arteria radialis*. A branch of the humeral artery, that runs down the side of the radius.

RADĪALIS EXTERNUS BREVIOR. See *Extensor carpi radialis brevior*.

RADĪALIS EXTERNUS LONGIOR. See *Extensor carpi radialis longior*.

RADĪALIS EXTERNUS PRIMUS. See *Extensor carpi radialis longior*.

RADĪALIS INTERNUS. See *Flexor carpi radialis*.

RADĪALIS SECUNDUS. See *Extensor carpi radialis brevior*.

RADICŪLA, (*Radicula*, a, f. dim. of *radix*, a root). A little root; the fibrous part of a root. The common radish is sometimes so called. See *Raphanus hortensis*.

RADICŪLA. A small root or radicle. A term sometimes applied by anatomists to express the smaller origin of some nerves.

RADISH, HORSE. See *Raphanus ruscifolius*.

RADISH, GARDEN. See *Raphanus hortensis*.

RADIUS, (*Radius*, i. m. a staff or beam; so called from its resemblance). This bone has gotten its name from its supposed resemblance to the spoke of a wheel, or to a weaver's beam; and sometimes, from its supporting the hand, it has been called *manubrium manus*. Like the ulna, it is of a triangular figure, but it differs

from that bone, in growing larger as it descends, so that its smaller part answers to the larger part of the ulna, and vice versa. Of its two extremities, the uppermost and smallest is formed into a small rounded head, furnished with cartilage, and hollowed at its summit, for an articulation with the little head at the side of the pulley of the os humeri. The round border of this head, next the ulna, is formed for an articulation with the lesser sigmoid cavity of that bone. This little head of the radius is supported by a neck, at the bottom of which, laterally, is a considerable tuberosity, into the posterior half of which is inserted the posterior tendon of the biceps, while the anterior half is covered with cartilage, and surrounded with a capsular ligament, so as to allow this tendon to slide upon it as upon a pulley. Immediately below this tuberosity, the body of the bone may be said to begin. We find it slightly curved throughout its whole length, by which means a greater space is formed for the lodgment of muscles, and it is enabled to cross the ulna without compressing them. Of the three surfaces, to be distinguished on the body of the bone, the external and internal ones are the broadest and flattest. The anterior surface is narrower and more convex. Of its angles, the external and internal ones are rounded; but the posterior angle, which is turned towards the ulna, is formed into a sharp spine, which serves for the attachment of the interosseous ligament, of which mention is made in the description of the ulna. This strong ligament, which is a little interrupted above and below, serves not only to connect the bones of the fore-arm to each other, but likewise to afford a greater surface for the lodgment of muscles. On the fore part of the bone, and at about one third of its length, from its upper end, we observe a channel for vessels, slanting

obliquely upwards. Towards its lower extremity, the radius becomes broader, of an irregular shape, and somewhat flattened, affording three surfaces, of which the posterior one is the smallest; the second, which is a continuation of the internal surface of the body of the bone, is broader and flatter than the first; and the third, which is the broadest of the three, answers to the anterior and external surface of the body of the bone. On this last we observe several sinuosities, covered with a thin layer of cartilage, upon which slide the tendons of several muscles of the wrist and fingers. The lowest part of the bone is formed into an oblong articulating cavity, divided into two by a slight transverse rising. This cavity is formed for an articulation with the bones of the wrist. Towards the anterior and convex surface of the bone, this cavity is defended by a remarkable eminence, called the *styloid* process of the radius, which is covered with a cartilage that is extended to the lower extremity of the ulna; a ligament is likewise stretched from it to the wrist. Besides this large cavity, the radius has another much smaller one, opposite its *styloid* process, which is lined with cartilage, and receives the rounded surface of the ulna. The articulation of the radius with the lesser *sygmoid* cavity of the ulna, is strengthened by a circular ligament, which is attached to the two extremities of that cavity, and from thence surrounds the head of the radius. This ligament is narrowest, but thickest at its middle part. But, besides this ligament, which connects the two bones of the fore arm with each other, the ligaments which secure the articulation of the radius with the os humeri, are common both to it and to the ulna, and therefore cannot well be understood till both these bones are described. These ligaments are

a capsular and two lateral ligaments. The capsular ligament is attached to the anterior and posterior surfaces of the lower extremity of the os humeri, to the upper edges and sides of the cavities we remarked at the bottom of the pulley and little head, and likewise to some part of the condyles: from thence it is spread over the ulna, to the edges of the greater *sygmoid* cavity, so as to include in it the end of olecranon and of the coronoid process; and is likewise fixed round the neck of the radius, so as to include the head of that bone within it. The lateral ligaments may be distinguished into external and internal, or according to Winslow, into *brachio radialis*, and *brachio cubitalis*. They both descend laterally from the lowest part of each condyle of the os humeri, and, from their fibres spreading wide as they descend, have been compared to a goose's foot. The internal ligament, or *brachio cubitalis*, which is the longest and thickest of the two, is attached to the coronoid process of the ulna. The external ligament, or *brachio radialis*, terminates in the circular ligament of the radius. Both these ligaments adhere firmly to the capsular ligament, and to the tendons of some of the adjacent muscles. In considering the articulation of the fore-arm with the os humeri, we find that when both the bones are moved together upon the os humeri, the motion of the ulna upon the pulley allows only of flexion and extension; whereas, when the palm of the hand is turned downwards or upwards, or in other words, in pronation and supination, we see the radius moving upon its axis, and in these motions its head turns upon the little head of the os humeri at the side of the pulley, while its circular edge rolls in the lesser *sygmoid* cavity of the ulna. At the lower end of the fore-arm the edge of the ulna is received into a

superficial cavity at the side of the radius. This articulation, which is surrounded by a loose capsular ligament, concurs with the articulation above, in enabling the radius to turn with great facility upon its axis; and it is chiefly with the assistance of this bone that we are enabled to turn the palm of the hand upwards or downwards, the ulna having but a very inconsiderable share in these motions.

RADIX, (*Radix, icis, f.*). A root.

RADIX BENGALÆ. See *Cassumuniar*.

RADIX BRASILÆNSIS, See *Ipecacuanha*.

RADIX CALAGUALÆ. See *Calagualæ radix*.

RADIX CALAGUELLÆ. See *Calagualæ radix*.

RADIX CASSUMUNIAR. See *Cassumuniar*.

RADIX CHYNLEN. See *Chynlen radix*.

RADIX COLOMBO. See *Colomba*.

RADIX DULCIS. See *Glycyrrhiza*.

RADIX IKAN. See *Ikan radix*.

RADIX INDICA LOPEZIANA. See *Lopez radix*.

RADIX MATALISTA. See *Matalista radix*.

RADIX ROSEA. See *Rhodiola*.

RADIX RUBRA. See *Rubia*.

RADIX TIMAC. See *Timac*.

RADIX URSINA. See *Meum*.

RADULA. A wooden spatula or scraper.

RAGWORT. See *Jacobæa*.

RAISIN. See *Uva passa major*.

RAMENTA. The little slips, shreds, or filings of any thing.

RANA ESCULENTA. The French frog. The flesh of this species of frog, very common in France, is highly nutritious and easily digested.

RANCID. Oily substances are said to have become rancid when by keep-

ing they acquire a strong offensive smell, and altered taste.

RANINE ARTERY. *Arteria ranina*. Sublingual artery. The second branch of the external carotid.

RANULA, (*Raunla, æ, f.* from *rana*, a frog; so called from its resemblance to a frog, or because it makes the patient croak like a frog). An inflammatory or indolent tumour under the tongue. These tumours are of various sizes and degrees of consistence, seated on either side of the frænum. Children, as well as adults, are sometimes affected with tumors of this kind; in the former they impede the action of sucking; in the latter, of mastication, and even speech. The contents of them are various; in some, they resemble the saliva, in others, the glairy matter found in the cells of swelled joints. Sometimes, it is said that a fatty matter has been found in them; but from the nature and structure of the parts, we are sure that this can seldom happen; and in by far the greatest number of cases, we find that the contents resemble the saliva itself. This, indeed, might naturally be expected, for the cause of these tumors is universally to be looked for in an obstruction of the salivary ducts. Obstructions here may arise from a cold, inflammation, violent fits of the tooth-ach, attended with swelling in the inside of the mouth; and in not a few cases we find the ducts obstructed by a stony matter, seemingly separated from the saliva, as the calculous matter is from the urine; but where inflammation has been the cause, we always find matter mixed with the other contents of the tumor. As these tumors are not usually attended with much pain, they are sometimes neglected, till they burst of themselves, which they commonly do when arrived at the bulk of a large nut. As

they were produced originally from an obstruction in the salivary duct, and this obstruction cannot be removed by the bursting of the tumour, it thence happens, that they leave an ulcer extremely difficult to heal, nay, which cannot be healed at all, till the cause is removed.

RANUNCŪLUS, (*Ranunculus*, i. m. dim. of *rana*, a frog; because it is found in fenny places, where frogs abound). Water crow-foot. The great acrimony of most of the species of *ranunculus* is such, that, on being applied to the skin, they excite itching, redness, and inflammation, and even produce blisters, tumefaction, and ulceration of the part. On being chewed, they corrode the tongue; and, if taken into the stomach, bring on all the deleterious effects of an acrid poison. The corrosive acrimony which this family of plants possesses, was not unknown to the ancients, as appears from the writings of Dioscorides; but its nature and extent had never been investigated by experiments, before those instituted by C. Krapf, at Vienna, by which we learn, that the most virulent of the Linnæan species of *ranunculus*, are the *bulbosus*, *sceleratus*, *acris*, *arvensis*, *thora*, and *illyricus*.

The effects of these were tried, either upon himself or upon dogs, and show, that the acrimony of the different species is often confined to certain parts of the plant, manifesting itself either in the roots, stalks, leaves, flowers, or buds; the expressed juice, extract, decoction, and infusion of the plants were also subjected to experiments. In addition to these species mentioned by Krapf, we may also notice the *R. Fammula*, and especially the *R. Alpestris*, which, according to Haller, is the most acrid of this genus. Mr. Curtis observes, that even pulling up the *ranunculus acris*, the common meadow species, which

possesses the active principle of this tribe in a very considerable degree throughout the whole herb, and carrying it to some little distance, excited a considerable inflammation in the palm of the hand in which it was held. It is necessary to remark, that the acrimonious quality of these plants is not of a fixed nature; for it may be completely dissipated by heat; and the plant, on being thoroughly dried, becomes perfectly bland. Krapf attempted to counteract this venomous acrimony of the *ranunculus* by means of various other vegetables, none of which was found to answer the purpose, though he thought that the juice of sorrel, and that of unripe currants, had some effect in this way; yet these were much less availing than water; while vinegar, honey, sugar, wine, spirit, mineral acids, oil of tartar, p. d. and other sapid substances, manifestly rendered the acrimony more corrosive. It may be also noticed, that the virulency of most of the plants of this genus, depends much upon the situation in which they grow, and is greatly diminished in the cultivated plant.

RANUNCŪLUS ABORTIVUS. The systematic name of a species of *ranunculus* which possesses acrid and vesicating properties.

RANUNCŪLUS ACRIS. The systematic name of the meadow crow-foot. See *Ranunculus pratensis*.

RANUNCŪLUS ALBUS. The plant which bears this name in the pharmacopœias is the *Anemone nemorosa* of Linnæus. The bruised leaves and flowers are said to cure *tinea capitis* applied to the part. The inhabitants of Kamskatka, it is believed, poison their arrows with the root of this plant.

RANUNCŪLUS BULBOSUS. Bulbous rooted crow-foot. The roots and leaves of this plant, *Ranunculus bulbosus*; *calycibus retroflexis*, *pedun-*

culis sulcatis, caule erecto multifloro, foliis compositis of Linnæus, have no considerable smell, but a highly acid and fiery taste. Taken internally, they appear to be deleterious, even when so far freed from the caustic matter by boiling in water, as to discover no ill quality to the palate. The effluvia, likewise, even when freely inspired, is said to occasion headachs, anxieties, vomitings, &c. The leaves and roots, applied externally, inflame and ulcerate, or vesicate the parts, and are liable to affect also the adjacent parts to a considerable extent.

RANUNCŪLUS FICARĪA. The systematic name of the pilewort. See *Chelidonium minus*.

RANUNCŪLUS FLAMMŪLA. The systematic name of the smaller water crow-foot or spearwort. Its virtues and qualities are similar to those of the *Ranunculus bulbosus*.

RANUNCŪLUS PALUSTRIS. Water Crow-foot. The leaves of this species of crow-foot, *Ranunculus sceleratus* of Linnæus, are so extremely acrid, that the beggars in Switzerland are said, by rubbing their legs with them, to produce a very fetid and acrimonious ulceration.

RANUNCŪLUS PRATENSIS. Meadow crow-foot. *Ranunculus acris* of Linnæus.

This, and some other species of ranunculus, have, for medical purposes, been chiefly employed externally as a vesicatory, and are said to have the advantage of a common blistering plaster, in producing a quicker effect, and never causing strangury; but, on the other hand, it has been observed, that the ranunculus is less certain in its operation, and that it sometimes occasions ulcers, which prove very troublesome and difficult to heal. Therefore their use seems to be applicable only to certain fixed pains, and such com-

plaints as require a long continued topical stimulus or discharge from the part, in the way of an issue, which, in various cases, has been found to be a powerful remedy.

RANUNCŪLUSSCELĒRĀTUS. The systematic name of the marsh crow-foot. See *Ranunculus palustris*.

RAPA, (*Rapa*, *a*, f. *Éty.* uncertain). *Rapum.* The turnip. *Brassica rapa* of Linnæus. Turnips are accounted a salubrious food, demulcent, detergent, somewhat laxative and diuretic, but liable, in weak stomachs, to produce flatulencies, and prove difficult of digestion. The liquor pressed out of them, after boiling, is sometimes taken medicinally in coughs and disorders of the breast. The seeds are occasionally taken as diuretics; they have no smell, but a mild acrid taste.

RAPE. See *Rapus*.

RAPHANĪA, (*Raphania*, *a*, f. from *raphanus*, the radish or sharlock; because the disease is said to be produced by eating the seeds of that plant). A genus of disease in the class *neuroses* and order *spasmi* of Cullen; characterized by a spasmodic contraction of the joints, with convulsive motions, and a most violent pain returning at various periods. It begins with cold chills and lassitude, pain in the head, anxiety about the præcordia. These symptoms are followed by spasmodic twitchings in the tendons of the fingers and of the feet, discernible to the eye, heat, fever, stupor, delirium, sense of suffocation, aphonia, and horrid convulsions of the limbs. After these, vomiting and diarrhæa come on, with a discharge of worms. About the eleventh or the twentieth day copious sweats succeed, or purple exanthemata, or tabes, or rigidity of all the joints.

RAPHĀNUS HORTENSIS. *Radicala.* *Raphanus niger.* The radish. The several varieties of this plant,

Raphanus sativus of Linnæus, are said to be employed medicinally in the cure of calculous affections. The juice, made into a syrup, is given to relieve hoarseness. Mixed with honey or sugar, it is administered in pitting asthma; and, as antiscorbutics, their efficacy is generally acknowledged.

RAPHANUS NIGER. See *Raphanus hortensis*.

RAPHANUS RUSTICANUS, (*Raphanus*, i, m. *ραβανος*, *παρα το ραδιω φαινεσθαι*, from its quick growth). *Armoracia*. Horse-radish. The plant which affords this root is the *Cochlearia armoracia*; *foliis radicalibus lanceolatis crenatis, caulinis incis* of Linnæus. Class *Tetradynamia*. Order *Siliculosa*. Horse-radish has long been received into the materia medica, is also well known at our tables. "It affects the organs both of taste and smell with a quick penetrating pungency; nevertheless it contains in certain vessels a sweet juice, which sometimes exudes in little drops upon the surface. Its pungent matter is of a very volatile kind, being totally dissipated in drying, and carried off in evaporation, or distillation by water, and rectified as the pungency exhales, the sweet matter of the root becomes more sensible, though this also is, in a great measure, dissipated or destroyed. It impregnates both water and spirit, by infusion or by distillation, very richly with its active matters. In distillation with water, it yields a small quantity of essential oil, exceedingly penetrating and pungent."

Dr. Cullen has mentioned every thing necessary to be known, respecting the medicinal virtues of horse-radish, we shall therefore transcribe all that the ingenious professor has written on this subject. "The root of this only is employed; and it affords one of the most acrid substances of this order (*Siliquose*),

and therefore proves a powerful stimulant, whether externally or internally employed. Externally, it readily inflames the skin, and proves a rubefacient that may be employed with advantage in palsy and rheumatism; and, if its application be long continued, it produces blisters. Taken internally, Dr. Cullen says it may be so managed as to relieve hoarseness, by acting on the fauces. Received into the stomach, it stimulates this, and promotes digestion; and therefore is properly employed as a condiment with our animal food. If it be infused in water, and a portion of this infusion be taken with a large draught of warm water, it readily proves emetic, and may either be employed by itself to excite vomiting, or to assist the operation of other emetics. Infused in water, and taken into the stomach, it proves stimulant to the nervous system, and is thereby useful in palsy; and, if employed in large quantity, it proves heating to the whole body; and hereby it proves often useful in chronic rheumatism, whether arising from scurvy or other causes. Bergius has given us a particular method of exhibiting this root, which is, by cutting it down, without bruising, into small pieces, and these, if swallowed without chewing, may be taken down in large quantities, to that of a table-spoonful. And the author alleges, that, in this way, taken in the morning for a month together, this root has been extremely useful in arthritic cases; which, however, I suppose to have been of the rheumatic kind. It would seem, in this manner employed, analogous to the use of unbruised mustard seed; it gives out in the stomach its subtle volatile parts, that stimulate considerably without inflaming. The matter of horse-radish, like the same matter of the other siliquose plants carried into the blood-vessels, passes readily into the kid-

neys, and proves a powerful diuretic, and is therefore useful in dropsy; and we need not say, that, in this manner, by promoting both urine and perspiration, it has been long known as one of the most powerful antiscorbutics."

RAPHANUS SATIVUS. The systematic name of the radish plant. See *Raphanus hortensis*.

RAPHANUS SYLVESTRIS. The poor man's pepper is sometimes so called. See *Lepidium*.

RAPHE, (*Raphe, es*, f. *ρᾶφι*, a future). The rough eminence which divides the scrotum, as it were, in two. It proceeds from the root of the penis inferiorly towards the perinæum.

RAPHE CEREBRI. The longitudinal eminence of the corpus callosum of the brain is so called, because it appears somewhat like a future.

RAPUM, (*Rapum, i*, n. *Ety.* uncertain). See *Rapa*.

RAPUNCULUS, (*Ranunculus, i*, m. dim. of *rapa*, the turnip). The wild turnip.

RAPUNCULUS VIRGINIANUS. The name given by Morrison to the blue cardinal flower. See *Lobelia*.

RAPUS, (*Rapus, i*, m.). *Rapa*. *Napus*. *Napus dulcis*. Garden or sweet navew. French turnip. *Brassica rapa* of Linnæus. The seeds of this plant are sometimes used medicinally. They possess similar virtues to those of mustard. See *Sinapi*.

RASH, (*Exanthema*), consists of red patches on the skin, variously figured; in general confluent, and diffused irregularly over the body, leaving interstices of a natural colour. Portions of the cuticle are often elevated in a rash, but the elevations are not acuminated. The eruption is usually accompanied with a general disorder of the constitution, and terminates in a few days, by cuticular exfoliations.

RASPBERRY. See *Rubus idæus*.

RATTLESNAKE ROOT. See *Seneca*.

RAUCEDO, (*Raucedo, inis*, f. from *raucus*, hoarse). *Raucitas*. Hoarseness. It is always symptomatic of some other disease.

RAUCITAS, (*Raucitas, atis*, f. from *raucus*, hoarse). Hoarseness.

REAGENTS. *Reagentia*. Tests. Such substances as enable the chemist to draw conclusions respecting the nature and properties of the bodies to be examined, by means of those alterations which they suffer themselves, or produce in others. As tests or reagents for alkalies are employed the blue syrup of violets; paper stained red, with a decoction of *Fernambuc*, or *Brazil wood*; or stained yellow by the tincture of turmeric root; and the tincture of litmus reddened by a very weak acid, and the red alkanet tincture.

REALGAR. A metallic substance of a red colour, more or less lively and transparent, and often crystalized in brilliant needles. It is formed by a combination of arsenic with sulphur. See *Arsenic*.

RECEPTACULUM CHÏLI, (*Receptaculum, i*, n. from *recipio*, to receive). The existence of such a receptacle in the human body is doubted. In brute animals the receptacle of the chyle is situated on the dorsal vertebrae where the lacteals all meet.

RECTIFICATION, (*Rectificatio, onis*, f. from *rectifico*, to make clean). A second distillation, in which substances are purified by their more volatile parts being raised by heat carefully managed; thus, spirit of wine, æther, &c. are rectified by their separation from the less volatile and foreign matter which altered or debased their properties.

RECTUM, (*Rectum, i*, n. from its straight position). *Rectum intestinum*. The last portion of the large intestines in the pelvis. See *Intestines*.

RECTUS ABDOMINIS. This long and strait muscle is situated near its fellow, at the middle and fore part of the abdomen, parallel to the linea alba, and between the aponeuroses of the other abdominal muscles. It arises sometimes by a single broad tendon from the upper and inner part of the os pubis, but more commonly by two heads, one of which is fleshy, and originates from the upper edge of the pubis, and the other tendinous, from the inside of the symphysis pubis, behind the pyramidalis muscle. From these beginnings, the muscle runs upwards the whole length of the linea alba, and, becoming broader and thinner as it ascends, is inserted by a thin aponeurosis into the edge of the cartilago ensiformis, and into the cartilages of the fifth, sixth, and seventh ribs. This aponeurosis is placed under the pectoral muscle, and sometimes adheres to the fourth rib. The fibres of this muscle are commonly divided by three tendinous intersections, which were first noticed by Berenger, or, as he is commonly called, Carpi, an Italian anatomist, who flourished in the sixteenth century. One of these intersections is usually where the muscle runs over the cartilage of the seventh rib; another is at the umbilicus; and the third is between these two. Sometimes there is one, and even two, between the umbilicus and the pubis. When one, or both of these occur, however, they seldom extend more than half way across the muscle. As these intersections seldom penetrate through the whole substance of the muscle, they are all of them most apparent on its anterior surface, where they firmly adhere to the sheath; the adhesions of the rectus to the posterior layer of the internal oblique, are only by means of cellular membrane, and of a few vessels which pass from one to another.

Albinus and some others have seen

this muscle extending as far as the upper part of the sternum.

The use of the rectus is to compress the fore part of the abdomen, but more particularly the lower part; and, according to the different positions of the body it may likewise serve to bend the trunk forwards, or to raise the pelvis. Its situation between the two layers of the internal oblique, and its adhesions to this sheath, secure it in its place, and prevent it from rising into a prominent form when in action; and lastly, its tendinous intersections enable it to contract at any of the intermediate spaces.

RECTUS ANTERIOR BREVIS. See *Rectus capitis internus minor*.

RECTUS ANTERIOR LONGUS. See *Rectus capitis internus major*.

RECTUS CAPITIS INTERNUS MAJOR. *Rectus anterior longus* of Winslow. This muscle is situated on the anterior part of the neck, close to the vertebræ. It was known to most of the antient anatomists, but was not distinguished by any particular name until Cowper gave it the present appellation, and which has been adopted by most writers, except Winslow. It is a long muscle, thicker and broader above than below, where it is thin, and terminates in a point. It arises, by distinct flat tendons, from the anterior points of the transverse processes of the five inferior vertebræ of the neck, and, ascending obliquely upwards, is inserted into the anterior part of the cuneiform process of the occipital bone. The use of this muscle is to bend the head forwards.

RECTUS CAPITIS INTERNUS MINOR. Cowper, who was the first accurate describer of this little muscle, gave it the name of *rectus internus minor*, which has been adopted by Douglas and Albinus. Winslow calls it *rectus anterior brevis*. It is in part covered by the rectus major. It arises fleshy from the upper and fore

part of the body of the first vertebra of the neck, near the origin of its transverse process, and, ascending obliquely inwards, is inserted near the root of the condyloid process of the occipital bone, under the last described muscle. It assists in bending the head forwards.

RECTUS CAPITIS LATERALIS. This muscle seems to have been first described by Fallopius. Winslow calls it *transversalis anticus primus*. It is somewhat larger than the rectus minor, but resembles it in shape, and is situated immediately behind the internal jugular vein, at its coming out of the cranium. It arises fleshy from the upper and fore part of the transverse process of the vertebra of the neck, and, ascending a little obliquely upwards and outwards, is inserted into the occipital bone, opposite to the stylo-mastoid hole of the os temporis. This muscle serves to pull the head to one side.

RECTUS CAPITIS POSTICUS MAJOR. This, which is the *rectus major* of Douglas and Winslow, is a small, short, and flat muscle, broader above than below, and is situated, not in a straight direction, as its name would insinuate, but obliquely, between the occiput and the second vertebra of the neck, immediately under the complexus. It arises, by a short thick tendon, from the upper and posterior part of the spinous process of the second vertebra of the neck; it soon becomes broader, and ascending obliquely outwards, is inserted, by a flat tendon, into the external lateral part of the lower semi-circular ridge of the os occipitis. The use of this muscle is to extend the head, and pull it backwards.

RECTUS CAPITIS POSTICUS MINOR. This is the *rectus minor* of Douglas and Winslow. It is smaller than the last described muscle, but resembles it in shape, and is placed close by its fellow, in the space be-

tween the recti majores. It arises, by a short thick tendon, from the upper and lateral part of a little protuberance in the middle of the back part of the first vertebra of the neck, and, becoming broader and thinner as it ascends, is inserted, by a broad flat tendon, into the occipital bone, immediately under the insertion of the last described muscle. The use of it is to assist the rectus major in drawing the head backwards.

RECTUS EXTERNUS OCULI. *Abductor oculi. Indignabundus.* The outer straight muscle of the eye. It arises from the bony partition between the foramen opticum and lacrum, being the longest of the straight muscles of the eye, and is inserted into the sclerotic membrane, opposite to the outer canthus of the eye. Its use is to move the eye outwards.

RECTUS FEMORIS. *Rectus five Gracilis anterior* of Winslow. A straight muscle of the thigh, situated immediately at the fore part. It arises from the os ilium by two tendons. The foremost and shortest of these springs from the outer surface of the inferior and anterior spinous process of the ilium; the posterior tendon which is thicker and longer than the other, arises from the posterior and outer part of the edge of the cotyloid cavity, and from the adjacent capsular ligament. These two tendons soon unite, and form an aponeurosis, which spreads over the anterior surface of the upper part of the muscle; and through its whole length we observe a middle tendon, towards which its fleshy fibres run on each side in an oblique direction, so that it may be stiled a penniform muscle. It is inserted tendinous into the upper edge and anterior surface of the patella, and from thence sends off a thin aponeurosis, which adheres to the superior and lateral part of the tibia. Its use is to extend the leg.

RECTUS INFERIOR OCULI. *Depressor oculi. Deprimens. Humilis.*

The inferior of the straight muscles of the eye. It arises within the socket, from below the optic foramen, and passes forwards to be inserted into the sclerotic membrane of the bulb on the wider part. It pulls the eye downwards.

RECTUS INTERNUS FEMORIS. See *Gracilis*.

RECTUS INTERNUS OCULI. *Adducens oculi. Bibitorius.* The internal straight muscle of the eye. It arises from the inferior part of the foramen opticum, between the obliquus superior, and the rectus inferior, being, from its situation, the shortest muscle of the eye, and is inserted into the sclerotic membrane opposite to the inner angle. Its use is to turn the eye towards the nose.

RECTUS MAJOR CAPITIS. See *Rectus capitis posterior major*.

RECTUS SUPERIOR OCULI. *Attollens oculi. Levator oculi. Superbus.* The uppermost straight muscle of the eye. It arises from the upper part of the foramen opticum of the sphenoid bone below the levator palpebrae superioris, and runs forward to be inserted into the superior and fore part of the sclerotic membrane by a broad and thin tendon.

RECURRENT NERVES. Two branches of the par vagum in the cavity of the thorax. The right is given off near the subclavian artery, which it surrounds, and is reflected upwards to the thyroid gland; the left a little lower, and reflected around the aorta to the œsophagus, as far as the larynx. They are both distributed to the muscles of the larynx and pharynx.

REDDLE. A species of ochre or argillaceous earth, of a dark red colour, sometimes used medicinally as a tonic and antacid.

RED SAUNDERS. See *Santalum rubrum*.

REGIMEN. A term employed in medicine to express the plan of diet.

REGINA PRATI. See *Ulmaria*.

REGULAR GOUT. See *Arthritis*.

REGULUS, (*Regulus, i, m. dim. of rex, a king*; so called because the alchemists expected to find gold, the king of metals, collected at the bottom of the crucible after fusion). A name given by the alchemists to metallic matters when separated from other substances by fusion; as, regulus of antimony, regulus of arsenic, &c.

REGULUS OF ANTIMONY. The pure semi-metal antimony. See *Antimony*.

REGULUS OF ARSENIC. Pure arsenic. See *Arsenic*.

REMEDIUM DIVINUM. See *Imperatoria*.

REMITTENT FEVER. See *Febris continua*.

REMORA ARATRI, (*Remora, æ, f. from remoror, to hinder, and aratrum, i, n. a plough*; so called because it hinders the plough). See *Ononis*.

REMOTE CAUSE. See *Exciting cause*.

RENAL GLANDS. *Glandulae renales.* Renal capsules. Supra-renal glands. The supra-renal glands are two hollow bodies, like glands in fabric, and placed one on each side upon the kidney. They are covered by a double tunic, and their cavities are filled with a liquor of a brownish red colour. Their figure is triangular; and they are larger, in the fœtus than the kidneys; but in adults they are less than the kidneys. The right is affixed to the liver, the left to the spleen and pancreas, and both to the diaphragm and kidneys. They have arteries, veins, and lymphatics and nerves; their arteries arise from the diaphragmatic, the aorta, and the renal arteries. The vein of the right supra-renal gland empties itself into the vena cava; that of the left into the renal vein; their lymphatic vessels go directly to the thoracic duct; these are nerves common alike to these glands and the kidneys. They

have no excretory duct, and their use is at present unknown. It is supposed they answer one use in the fœtus, and another in the adult, but what these uses are is uncertain. Boerhaave supposed their use to consist in their furnishing lymph to dilute the blood returned after the secretion of the urine in the renal vein; but this is very improbable, since the vein of the right supra-renal gland goes to the vena cava, and the blood carried back by the renal vein wants no dilution. It has also been said, that these glands not only prepare lymph, by which the blood is fitted for the nutrition of the delicate fœtus; but that in adults they serve to restore in themselves, to the blood of the vena cava, the irritable parts which it loses by the secretion of bile and urine. Some, again, have considered them as diverticula in the fœtus, to divert the blood from the kidneys, and lessen the quantity of urine. The celebrated Morgagni believed their office to consist in conveying something to the thoracic duct. It is singular, that in children who are born without the cerebrum, these glands are extremely small, and sometimes wanting.

RENAL VESSELS. See *Emulgent vessels*.

RENES, (*Ren, nis*, m. ἀπὸ τοῦ ῥένειν; because through them the urine flows). See *Kidneys*.

RENNET. The gastric juice and contents of the stomach of calves. It is much employed in preparing cheese, and, in pharmacy, for making whey. To about a pound of milk, in a silver or earthen basin placed on hot ashes, add three or four grains of rennet, diluted with a little water; as it becomes cold the milk curdles, and the whey, or serous part, separates itself from the caseous part. When these parts appear perfectly distinct, pour the whole upon a strainer, through which the whey will pass,

while the curds remain behind. This whey is always rendered somewhat whitish, by a very small and much divided portion of the caseous part; but it may be separated in such a manner, that the whey will remain limpid and colourless, and this is what is called clarifying it. Put into a basin the white of an egg, a glass of the serum of milk, and a few grains of tartareous acidulum in powder; whip the mixture with an ozier twig, and, having added the remainder of the unclarified whey, place the mixture again over the fire until it begins to boil. The tartareous acidulum completes the coagulation of the white part of the milk which remains; the white of egg, as it becomes hot, coagulates and envelops the caseous part. When the whey is clear, filter it through paper; what passes will be perfectly limpid, and have a greenish colour. This is clarified whey.

RESIN, BLACK. See *Resina nigra*.

RESIN ELASTIC. See *Indian rubber*.

RESIN-TREE, ELASTIC. See *Indian rubber*.

RESIN, WHITE. See *Resina flava*.

RESIN, YELLOW. See *Resina flava*.

RESINA ALBA. See *Resina flava*.

RESINA ELASTICA. See *Indian rubber*.

RESINA FLAVA. *Resina alba* Yellow resin is what remains in the still after distilling oil of turpentine, by adding water to the common turpentine. It is of very extensive use in surgery as an active detergent, and forms the base of the *unguentum resina flava*.

RESINA LUTEA NOVI BELGII Botany bay gum. All the information that has been hitherto collected respecting the history of the yellow gum is the following:

The plant that produces it is low and small, with long grassy leaves; but the fructification of it shoots out in a singular manner from the centre of the leaves, on a single straight stem, to the height of twelve or fourteen feet. Of this stem, which is strong and light, like some of the reed class, the natives usually make their spears. The resin is generally dug up out of the soil under the tree, not collected from it, and may perhaps be that which Tasman calls 'gum lac of the ground.'

Mr. Boles, surgeon of the Lady Penrhyn, gives a somewhat different account; and as this gentleman appears to have paid considerable attention to the subject, his account may certainly be relied upon. After describing the tree in precisely the same manner as above, he observes, that at the top of the trunk of the tree, long grassy leaves grow in great abundance. The gum is found under these leaves in considerable quantities; it commonly exudes in round tears, or drops, from the size of a large pea to that of a marble, and sometimes much larger. These are by the heat of the sun frequently so much softened, that they fall on the

ground, and in this soft state adhere to whatever they fall upon; hence the gum is frequently found mixed with dirt, wood, the bark of the tree, and various other substances: so that one lump has been seen composed of many small pure pieces of various sizes united together, which weighed nearly half a hundred weight. It is produced in such abundance, that one man may collect thirty or forty pounds in the space of a few hours. The convicts have another method of collecting it; they dig round the tree, and break off pieces of the roots which always have some, and frequently considerable quantities of the gum in them. This gum appears nearly, but not entirely, the same as that which exudes from the trunk of the tree; the former is often mixed with a strong smelling resinous substance of a black nature, and is so interwoven in the wood itself, that it is with difficulty separated. The latter appears a pure unmixed resinous substance.

Several experiments have been made principally with the view of determining what menstruum would dissolve the gum the most readily, and in the greatest quantity.

The following table shews the quantity of GUM that is dissolved by one ounce of various menstrea.

	℥	3	℥	gr.
Alcohol	2			
Rectified sp.	2			
Ether	1	3		
Sp. eth. vitr.	1	3		
Sp. eth. nitr.	1	3		
Brandy		7		
Lixiv. sapon.		1		
Cyder			1	5
Calcavalla				18
Calc. viv. et aqua				10
Port				8 ¹
Ol. tereb.				4
Water				4 ²

carried over

			3	3	6	gr.
Aq. kali	-	-	-	-	-	3
Aq. ammon. p.	-	-	-	-	-	2
Acid. vitr. dil.	-	-	-	-	-	2
Acid. nitr. dil.	-	-	-	-	-	2
Acet. dist.	-	-	-	-	-	2
Aq. calcis	-	-	-	-	-	2
Ol. oliv.	-	-	-	-	-	2

The diseases in which this resin is administered, are those of the primæ viæ, and principally such as arise from spasm, a debility, a loss of tone, or a diminished action in the muscular fibres of the stomach and bowels, such as loss of appetite, sickness, vomiting, flatulency, heart-burn, pains in the stomach, &c. when they were really idiopathic complaints, and not dependent upon any disease in the stomach, or affections of other parts of the body communicated to the stomach. In debilities and relaxations of the bowels, and the symptoms from thence arising, such as purging and flatulency, it has been found of good effect. In certain cases of diarrhæa, however, (and it seemed those in which an unusual degree of irritability prevailed), it did not answer so well, unless given in small doses, and combined with opiates, when the patient seemed to gain greater advantage than when opiates only were had recourse to. In case of amenorrhæa, depending on (what most of those cases do depend upon), a sluggishness, a debility, and flaccidity of the system, this medicine, when assisted by proper exercise and diet, has, by removing the symptoms of dyspepsia, and by restoring the tone and action of the muscular fibres, been found very serviceable. This medicine does not, in the dose of about half a drachm, appear to possess any remarkably sensible operation. It neither vomits, purges, nor binds the belly, nor does it materially in-

crease the secretion of urine or perspiration. It has indeed sometimes been said to purge, and at others to occasion sweating, but they are not constant effects, and when they are not constant effects, and when they do occur, it generally depends on some accidental circumstance. It should seem to possess in a very extensive degree, the property of allaying morbid irritability, and of restoring tone, strength, and action, to the debilitated and relaxed fibre. When the gum itself is given, it should always be the pure unmixed part; if given in the form of a draught, it should be mixed in water with mucilage of gum arabic; if made into pills, a small portion of castile soap may be employed; it was found the lixiv. sapon. dissolved it entirely. It is commonly, however, made into a tincture by mixing equal parts of the gum and rectified spirit; one drachm of this tincture, (containing half a drachm of the pure gum), made into a draught with water and syrup, by the assistance of 15 grains of gum arabic in mucilage, forms an elegant medicine, and at the same time very palatable.

RESINA NIGRA. *Colophonia*. What remains in the retort after distilling the balsam of turpentine from the common turpentine.

RESINS, (*Resina*, æ, f. from *pes*, to flow).

RESOLVENTS, (*Medicamenta Resolventia*, from *resolvo*, to loosen). This term is applied by surgeons to such substances as discuss inflammatory tumours.

RESOLUTION. A termination of inflammatory affections in which the diseases disappear without inducing any other disease.

RESPIRATION, (*Respiratio, onis*, f. from *respiratio*, to breathe). The act of inspiring and expiring are so called. In order to deliver the physiology of this function, it is necessary to give a brief anatomical description of the several parts engaged. The bags of the pleura are filled by the lungs; by which we understand two viscera, one right and another left, in figure corresponding with the bags themselves which they fill, having a broad basis below, and being terminated above at the first rib by an obtuse cone. Anteriorly their surface is flat, laterally convex, and posteriorly it is rounded; internally it is concave, especially that of the left lungs, for the purpose of containing the heart. The right lung is the largest, and is most frequently divided into three lobes, which is seldom the case with the left. They are freely suspended by the great blood-vessels; Between the lungs and pleura is found a watery vapour, of a coagulable nature, like that of the pericardium; which transudes from the surface of the lungs and of the pleura, continually in the fœtus, and not unfrequently in the adult. In dropsy, this vapour is increased, or thickens to a kind of sebaceous matter; or, lastly, it concretes into fibres, forming adhesions of the lungs.

The external membrane of the lungs is simple, and thinner than the pleura, although continuous with it. It spreads from the adhesion of the great blood-vessels of the heart, over the lungs in every direction, and when entire, may be easily inflated, even after being separated from the lungs. The same membrane passes over the intervals between the lobules, like a bridge. It is joined to the lungs by cellular texture.

The lungs are made up of lobes separated by intermediate intervals, in which there is loose cellular substance. Their first division is into two large lobes, and one middle one of a smaller size, which, however, cohere together: they are afterwards repeatedly subdivided into successively smaller lobes, always surrounded by cellular membrane, till at last the lobules are resolved into very small membranous cells, which in adults are filled with air, are of various figures, and communicate on all sides with each other. The elementary parts of the lungs, therefore, are not oval bags, surrounded by muscular texture, with a single orifice which receive the air from the windpipe, but they admit the air exhaling from the ultimate branches of the trachea, so that being effused into irregular spaces, it passes and repasses freely from any one portion of the lungs into all the others. This is demonstrated by inflation, for air blown into any, even the most minute lobule, through its branch of the trachea, passes into all the rest. In man, and in the smaller animals, the cellular fabric of the intervals is neither shut up from the vesicles of the lungs, nor are the lobes surrounded by any peculiar membrane; in the largest animals, there is no communication between the air vesicles and the cellular spaces which surround the lobules.

The air passes into these vesicles through the wind-pipe. The wind-pipe arises from the larynx and receives the air through it alone. Its first part is single and simple, partly fleshy and partly cartilaginous, the œsophagus lying below it and to its left, is supported on the broad and flat vertebræ of the neck; in other words, within the cellular substance that surrounds the wind-pipe, there is situated a canal, composed of alternate cartilaginous and muscular rings. The

cartilaginous rings, thin and elastic, anteriorly somewhat flat and thick, are joined together by their posterior extremities, which are thinner; and the circle is completed by strong transverse muscular fibres, adhering to both the loose extremities of the cartilage. The lower circles are less; the uppermost is often augmented by an appendix, that next to the division is perpendicular.

The fleshy ring, situated alternately with the cartilaginous ones, are composed of red muscular fibres. Some of these are transverse, connecting the detached ends of the annular cartilages; others descend from each upper to the next lower ring. But other muscular fibres again, descend from the cricoid cartilage, and having reached below the division of the bronchia, vanish upon the lungs. The transverse fibres contract the wind-pipe; the longitudinal ones shorten it. Within the lungs, between the imperfect rings, there is a sort of muscular fabric, but less uniformly disposed.

In the cellular coat which surrounds the muscular one, but especially behind, in the interval between the cartilages, are placed numberless simple glands, which, by very small ducts, like pores, opening into the cavity of the wind-pipe, deposit within that cavity a watery and pellucid mucus, not coagulable into films, and very bland, which is of the greatest use in defending the exceedingly sensible membrane from the impurities of the air, which is loaded with particles, irritating by their mechanical figure or chemical acrimony. Numerous conglobate glands are situated around the trachea and its bronchia, but these are of the lymphatic kind, although their black fluid frequently penetrates into the trachea. Lastly, the internal tube of the wind-pipe is lined by a membrane, covered by epidermis, continuous with the

skin and membranes of the mouth, smooth, soft, and very irritable. It is connected with the muscular coat by cellular substance.

The vessels of this entire part of the wind-pipe, in the neck, come from the lower thyroids; in the thorax, from other small branches of the subclavian trunks, or the mammaries, or the bronchials properly so called. Its nerves, arising from the recurrent and intercostals, are numerous.

In the upper part of the thorax, the wind-pipe is received between the laminae of the posterior mediastinum; and at the third vertebra, or a little above, is divided into two branches similar to the trunk, formed in like manner of imperfect cartilages, and furnished with similar glands; each of these enters the lung to which it corresponds, and the right is something shorter and larger than the left. Having entered the lungs, the cartilaginous rings gradually degenerate into fragments, become more angular, triangular, and intermixed with a larger portion of membrane, till at length, by the diminution of the cartilages, the ultimate branches of the bronchia become membranous.

Its ultimate branches are invisible, and exhale air into the cellular spaces of the lungs in adults, and from the same spaces receive the arterial expired vapour.

The vessels of the bronchia, are the bronchial veins and arteries. The latter are generally two; one coming from the upper intercostal of the aorta, which is distributed either to the right only, or to both the lungs; the other, from the trunk of the aorta, goes to the left lung. Sometimes there are more; as when there are three, by the addition of a second from the aorta. At other times, there is only one artery common to both lungs. The thoracic part of the bronchia, situated without the

lungs, has its proper vessels from the aorta, or from the subclavian, or the mammary, or the intercostal. The bronchial veins are very commonly two; the right from the vena azygos, the left from a peculiar branch of the subclavian vein, the left superior intercostal. These blood-vessels accompany the branches of the trachea; and descend into their membranes, the arteries inosculate with the pulmonary arteries, and the veins with the veins, forming a vascular web in the internal cellular substance. There are some instances where the pulmonary vein itself has given small branches to the lungs, to the wind-pipe, and to the surface of the lungs.

But there are other larger vessels belonging to the lungs, the pulmonary artery, and the vein. The great artery, in the foetus larger than the aorta, and in the adult but little less, has two branches; the right larger but shorter, the left narrower and longer. In the foetus, the trunk itself is continued into the descending aorta, and is known by the name of ductus arteriosus. In the adult, that trunk degenerates into a solid ligament. The four pulmonary veins accompany the branches of the artery and of the trachea, through the lungs, surrounded by a good deal of cellular substance; which substance, being increased, at last composes the lungs themselves. Within this cellular fabric, the air-vessels and blood-vessels are subdivided, and in the ultimate cellular spaces, the ultimate veins and arteries spread, reticularly interwoven; and here the small arteries exhale a plentiful vapour into the aerial cells of the lungs, and the veins absorb a watery vapour from them. Hence, coloured water, the whey of milk, or thin wax, being injected into the pulmonary artery, flow with froth into the wind-pipe; or, on the contrary, penetrate from the bronchia into the pulmonary ar-

tery. In like manner, injections pass from the pulmonary vein into the bronchia; or from thence, into the veins: lastly, they readily pass from the arteries into the pulmonary veins; or return from the veins into the arteries.

The lymphatic vessels, as in other parts, form a net-work upon the surface of the lungs, from whence branches run to the cavity of the posterior mediastinum, to the glands seated on the œsophagus, and to the thoracic duct. The nerves are small, especially the anterior, the posterior ones being somewhat larger: they come from a nerve of the eight pair; but they receive some addition, accompanying the large blood-vessels, from the recurrent, and likewise from the cardiac plexus. Hence the lungs have but little sensation; but that of the little nerves, divided upon the substance of the bronchia, is very acute. Nor are the lungs of an irritable nature.

The quantity of blood which enters into the lungs is exceedingly great, equal to (or even perhaps greater than) that which is sent in the same time throughout the rest of the body; which, therefore, indicates this viscus to be subservient to some very important purpose. That this use depends manifestly upon the air, appears from the universal consent of nature, in which we scarcely find an animal which does not respire; also from the structure of the lungs in the foetus, in which, being useless, on account of the absence of air, they receive only a very small portion of that blood, which the pulmonary artery conveys from the heart. We come now to speak of respiration, or the inhalation and expulsion of air by the lungs.

Air, physically considered, is an element, fluid, invifible, elastic, with an indestructible spring, and soniferous. But the air, which we com-

monly receive into the lungs, is impure, filled with a great quantity of watery and other vapours, also with salts, acids, &c. with the seeds of plants and animals, and other foreign particles; and is ponderous; weighing, however, 850 times less than water, a cubic foot of air being between 610 and 694 grains. This air, which surrounds the earth on all sides, being compressed by its incumbent columns, perpendicularly and laterally, enters with great force wherever it meets with less resistance, as appears from experiments made in vacuo, and from the phenomena of the air-pump; so that its pressure on the human body is not less than 30,000 pounds. It is repelled chiefly by the pores of membranes, though these are permeable by water: it likewise penetrates oil or mucus with difficulty.

The ambient air is excluded from all parts of the human body, by dense skin, which, even when dry, is impervious to the air; by the fat lying under it; by the narrowness of the absorbent vessels, and by the equability of the resistance. We must investigate why the air enters the lungs, which, in an adult, are always filled with air, and therefore resist the pressure of the whole atmosphere with an equivalent force. That the lungs always contain air is evident; because, however you compress them, they are still lighter than water; and even after they have been inflated but a few times, they always swim; whereas, in the foetus, before air has been admitted into them, they sink to the bottom.

On the equilibrium being destroyed, the air invariably descends in every direction to that place where it meets with least resistance. But air that is dense and heavy descends more easily than that which is light, whose force scarcely exceeds that of the air in the lungs, nor is able by the same force

to overcome the resistance of the bronchia, and of the force by which the air contained in the lungs is compressed. Hence an animal lives with greater ease in a dense than in a light atmosphere; although that air is always better tolerated, which is pure in proportion to its levity; such as that of the highest mountains of the Alps. Therefore, that the air may enter the lungs, they must make a less resistance to it than before; namely, the air, which is already in the cellular fabric of the lungs, must be rarified: but this effect will be produced, if the cavity of the breast, which is filled by the lungs be dilated. The air, which is always in the lungs, expands into this increased space, by which, being weakened in its spring, it makes less resistance to the external air; consequently, a portion of external air descends into the lungs, sufficient to restore to the air, now contained in the lungs, the same density with that of the external air.

We must, therefore, describe the powers which dilate the breast. The breast or thorax is composed of bones, muscles, and cartilages; being almost of the shape of an elliptic barrel, somewhat compressed before, but behind divided by an eminence, whose hoops are the ribs, and of remarkable strength. In the lateral parts of this structure, the lungs are situated; the central and lower parts contain first the pericardium, and then some of the abdominal viscera.

The basis of the thorax is formed by a column, a little curved, at the upper part gibbous backwards, so that its summit is situated most behind. To this twelve vertebræ are affixed. But they also coalesce, by the union of their bodies into a single column, which projects forwards between the two cavities of the breast; divides the right from the left; and

is plain in the fore part, and broad towards the sides. A slight sinuosity receives the ribs into that place where the arch separates from the body. They are bound together into one column, both by the elastic plate interposed between the bodies of every two, and coalescing with both; and by other ligaments and spines lying upon one another, and by the junction of the ribs; on which accounts they scarcely admit of motion amongst themselves. The sides of the breast are formed of twelve ribs. These are in general bent in the form of an irregular arch, having a considerable curvature laterally and backwards, but extending in their fore part towards a right line. The bony parts of the ribs are, however, parallel with each other. The greatest part of the rib is bony; of which the posterior portion is round and thick, and the anterior thin and flat. The anterior remaining part of the rib consists of a cartilage; which in general preserves the figure of the rib, broad, flat, adhering to an irregular hollow of the bony part; and which does not change into bone, unless in extreme old age.

The posterior, bony, and thick part of each rib terminates in a head. These are inserted into pits scooped out of the bodies of the uppermost and two lowermost vertebræ, and in the contiguous margins of each of the other two. The vertebræ are tied to the ribs by strong ligaments, of which the principal is distributed upon each adjacent vertebra, in a radiated manner from each rib; other ligaments tie the transverse process to the tubercle of the rib, and others connect the contiguous ribs, and also the transverse processes, with each other. Moreover, between the angle of incurvation and the articulation with the vertebræ, each of the ten upper ribs has a tubercle, which, being connected with the plain side of the

transverse process of the corresponding vertebra, are tied by short and strong ligaments to that process, in such a manner, that, while the juncture is very strong, the rib can ascend and descend for a short way.

Of the anterior cartilages, the seven uppermost reach to the sternum, and strengthened by short ligaments, they enter with a double head into lateral depressions in that bone, which are incrustated with cartilage. Of the five remaining ribs, the uppermost is agglutinated by strong cellular substance to the seventh, and each lower one to the one immediately above it, so that they form a continuous margin, which is itself fastened to the sternum. The cartilages are connected with each other, both by proper ligaments, and by cartilaginous appendages joined by cellular substance: the two lowermost are free, and connected only with the muscles. These inferior cartilages are united to one another, and to the sternum, by strong ligaments.

The first rib is the shortest and most solid. As they follow in succession to the seventh and eighth, every two of them form larger and more moveable circles. The eighth is the longest of all; and below it, they always become shorter, the lower they are.

The upper rib descends; the second joins the sternum almost at a right angle, while the others ascend both to the vertebræ and to the sternum, but more to the latter. The bony part of the ribs is placed in such a direction, that the uppermost have their anterior surface declined forwards, almost transversely. About the third rib it is placed almost perpendicularly; and below the middle ones, it projects a little forwards. Besides, the strength of the ribs is very different. The uppermost, being short, transverse, rather united than articulated with the sternum,

and, lastly, often consolidated, make the greatest resistance. The mobility of the lower ribs increases successively to the lowest, which adhering only to muscles, moves most freely of all.

The sternum, in general, is a thin spongy bone, in adults of a single piece, but in the foetus variously multiply. Its upper part is broader, octagonal, and supported by the clavicles, which are united with it by a triangular head, and very strong articulation, and by the first rib on each side. The next part, which is longer and narrower, grows broader downwards, and its sides receive the ribs into proper angular cavities. The lower part, which is less and shorter, is obtusely shaped like a tongue. This is continued into a detached appendage, partly bony, and partly cartilaginous, which is called the ensiform cartilage; of various shapes, being sometimes obtuse like a little tongue, sometimes pointed, sometimes bifid, and sometimes perforated.

In order, therefore, to dilate the seat of the lungs, and thus to produce that condition which causes the external air to descend into the lungs, the thorax must be elevated. For thus all the sections of the thorax form right angles, and its capacity is increased. This motion is performed by various muscles, which either operate constantly, or only at certain times. The whole of the intercostal muscles always elevate the ribs. Under this name we comprehend 22 muscles; of which 11 are external, or subcutaneous; and as many internal, separated from the pleura only by fat and cellular substance. The origin of the external intercostals is at the posterior articulation of the ribs; their anterior termination is in the bony part of each rib, at some distance from the cartilage, so that the remaining space between the cartilages, all the way to the sternum, in

place of the muscles, is filled with an aponeurosis. Their direction is such, that they descend obliquely forwards, from the lower edge of the upper rib to the upper edge of the lower rib. Almost all authors agree that they elevate the ribs; because they descend from the upper and more fixed, to the lower and more moveable rib, in such a manner, that their lower point lies more distant from the vertebral articulation, or fulcrum of the lever of the ribs.

But the internal intercostals arise at some distance from the vertebræ, near the outside of the tubercles. From thence they proceed as far as the sternum, into which the first of this kind are inserted above. Except the anterior part of the first internal muscles, their direction is contrary to that of the former; so that they descend backwards, from the lower margin of the upper rib, to the upper edge of the lower rib. Therefore their action is disputed, because their lower insertion is made into a point of the rib, nearer its articulation with the vertebræ, which, therefore, seems to be the least moveable; however, they elevate the ribs notwithstanding this; for the immobility of the upper rib, arising from its articulation, weight, and ligaments, far exceeds the mobility produced by its greater distance from the fulcrum. This is proved by the dissection of living animals; in which it appears, that the internal muscles act during the elevation of the ribs, and rest when they are depressed; by threads fixed to a flexible human skeleton, and drawn in the direction of the internal intercostal muscles, which always and invariably raise the inferior rib towards the superior; and by the firmness of the upper ribs, which serve as a fixed point to the lower ones: for the first ribs are from eight to twelve times less moveable than the other true ribs; while the differ-

ence of distance from the centre of motion, is scarcely the twentieth part of the whole lever. And lastly, by experiment on the dead subject; for, on raising its thorax, the internal intercostals swell.

By the action, therefore, of these muscles, the thorax is elevated, not altogether as one machine, nor would respiration be assisted by such a motion; but the ribs, turning upon their articulations, behind are but little moved, while with their anterior extremities, they descend and form larger angles, both with the sternum and vertebræ; and in the middle of their arches, they ascend and raise their lower edges forwards. At the same time, the sternum is thrust forward from the vertebræ and from the junctures with the ribs. Thus the ribs are both farther from the vertebræ, and the right ribs recede from the left; and both diameters, from the right to the left, and from the sternum to the vertebræ, are increased by almost two lines each: and as this occurs in every imaginable section of the thorax, the cavity of the breast will be sufficiently dilated. This happens especially in women, and in men whose breathing is somewhat laborious. These effects are produced least of all by the first ribs, but more by the succeeding ones. In strong inspirations, the ribs descend both behind and before, and, along with these, the sternum; and the spaces between the cartilages are lessened. But this dilatation is neither sufficient for healthy respiration, nor is it almost observable in men; although, even then, the intercostal muscles, by retaining and elevating the ribs, very much assist the inspiration in a secondary way, by affording a fixed point to the diaphragm, so that the whole force of that muscle may be spent, not in depressing the ribs, but in lowering itself. The greater part, therefore, of the space

which the thorax gains in inspiration, arises from the action of the diaphragm.

By the diaphragm we understand a muscle expanded in a curvilinear plate, which, in general, separates the pulmonary bags from the abdomen in such a manner, that the middle and tendinous part is the highest, and supports the pericardium; that the lateral portions, which arise from the solid parts of the thorax and loins, are every where lower; and that its posterior portions are lowest of all. The fleshy fibres of this muscle arise from the internal or posterior surface of the ensiform cartilage to the very point, and from the sixth, seventh, eighth, ninth, tenth, eleventh ribs, and apex of the twelfth; after which follows an interval, in which the naked pleura is contiguous to the peritonæum. Thereafter muscular appendages of the diaphragm, much stronger, collected into two, three, or four round muscles on each side, arise fleshy from the transverse process of the first lumbar vertebra, and from the side of the body of the second; and tendinous from the middle of the body of the second, third, and fourth, and from the cartilages placed between them, on the whole higher up in the left side, and lower down in the right.

All these fibres, becoming tendinous, form the centre of the diaphragm, which resembles, in figure, a trefoil leaf, and supports the pericardium with its middle and broader angle, while the lateral wings, of which the left is narrower, descend backwards. This central portion is more moveable than the rest; but in the middle tendinous part, and neighbouring muscular substance, it is resisted by the heart; the lateral wings and contiguous portions are the most moveable. The fibres of this tendon form a most beautiful web, principally indeed on the upper part; which

stretches from each muscular portion, to the muscular portion opposite to it: and then they form remarkable inferior fasciculi, transverse, right, left, and posterior, which last portion is the uppermost.

There are two holes in the diaphragm; of which the right, in the right side of its tendon, is obtusely square, and circumscribed by four strong tendinous fasciculi; the left, which is elliptical, lies betwixt the right and left fleshy portions, arising from the middle of the bodies of the lumbar vertebræ: under this opening they decussate and cross each other once and again, but above they end in the tendon. Therefore it is probable that the latter is contracted during the action of the diaphragm, and that the former remains immovable: for tendons are but little changed during muscular motion.

The structure of the parts, and the dissection of living animals, demonstrate, that the fleshy portions of the diaphragm, by ascending on all sides from fixed points to middle and moveable parts, depress these, and by that means draw downward the lateral bags of the thorax, which contain the lungs; and thus augment the perpendicular diameter of the breast. The muscular portions are more depressed; the tendon less, both because it is fixed to the pericardium, and because its own substance does not contract. The œsophagus, and even the vena cava, are compressed, while the diaphragm acts. The diaphragm almost alone performs the office of respiration in a healthy man who is at rest; and also in those whose ribs are fractured, or the sternum burst, or where the person will not make use of his ribs on account of pain. The force of the diaphragm also, in dilating the breast, is greater, according to calculation, than all the rest of the powers which contribute to respira-

tion. The extent of an inspiration is thus far limited, because, during the extreme action of the diaphragm, the lower ribs are drawn inwards, and the breast is so far straitened. To oppose this, the intercostal muscles interfere in a moderate inspiration; in an excessive one they are not equal to the diaphragm. The phrenic nerve, when irritated, more evidently than in most other muscles, forces the diaphragm to perform its office. The lungs themselves are entirely governed by the air, ribs, and diaphragm; being in immediate contact with these, as appears through a large incision, or through the pleura, or pellucid part of the diaphragm, when the containing parts remain entire.

In violent inspirations, occasioned by an increased quantity of blood driven into the lungs, or by any obstacle occurring in them, several other powers elevating the thorax, assist in dilating the breast, which are inserted into the thorax, clavicles, or scapulæ; such as the scaleni muscles, mastoidei, trapezii, cervicales descendentes, serrati superiores, pectorales, and levatores parvi, for which anatomy must be consulted.

Thus, there are powers which increase the capacity of the thorax in all its three dimensions. By these the cavity of the breast is dilated, so that it compresses the lungs less than before: into that space the lungs strive to extend themselves, since they are never destitute of air, which, as soon as the pressure is taken off, becomes rarified, and expands itself. Independent of the action of the muscles, the lungs possess no peculiar inherent power of attracting air: and even when they are most full of air, on closing the trachea, the animal, however, attempts to inspire, by the efforts of its intercostal muscles and diaphragm. It follows, that the air, gravitating, and pressed on all sides by the incumbent columns of the at-

mosphere, must enter the thorax; and with greater force the less air is in the lungs; and with the greatest, if they contain no air: but air will not enter the thorax, - if the air, being admitted to the lungs through a wound in the breast, compress their surface. In this action, therefore, which is called inspiration, the bronchia, are every way increased, both in length and breadth; because all the diameters of the thorax are increased, and the inflated lungs remain immediately contiguous to the pleura. At the same time, the vessels, which are joined with the bronchia by a cellular sheath, become longer and are extended, and the small angles become larger; by which means, the circulation is facilitated. Besides, when the vesicular substance of the lungs is filled with air, the space through which the capillary vessels of the lungs run, is increased, the branches of the arteries and veins are stretched out at greater angles, the lobes press less upon each other, the compression of the neighbouring parts is lessened, and, therefore, the blood sent from the heart will flow with greater ease and celerity through the large and small arteries of the lungs. Hence, by inflating the lungs, and by that means facilitating the passage of the blood to the left ventricle, moribund animals are resuscitated, and in the same way persons who are taken out of the water apparently drowned. But, on account of its great levity, the pressure of the air upon the blood does not deserve notice, as being three hundred times less than the force of the heart; and insufficient to force the air against the blood, which may easily be done by a syphon.

Is air contained between the lungs and the thorax? Is this air rarified in inspiration, and afterwards becoming condensed, and compressing the lungs, does it cause expiration?

Is this opinion confirmed by the analogy of birds, of which it is strictly true? Every thing concurs to confute this opinion: behind the pleura, in living quadrupeds, as well as in dead human bodies, the naked lungs are visible, without any intermediate space betwixt them: on perforating the pleura, the lungs retract themselves towards the vertebræ as soon as the air comes in contact with them. In birds, the lungs, being pervious, admit the air through large holes into the cavity of the thorax. But in these there is a manifest space betwixt the lungs and the pleura, which would be equally manifest in quadrupeds, if the lungs were not contiguous with the pleura. Large wounds, admitting the air into one cavity of the thorax only, diminish the respiration; but such wounds, as let the air into both cavities, suppress it. When the thorax is opened under water, it emits no bubbles of air through the said water; but in birds, in whose thorax there is air, it does. The imaginable space betwixt the lungs and the thorax is filled by vapour, or a very little water. Adhesions of the lungs injure the respiration but in a small degree; which ought entirely to cease, if any intermediate air betwixt the lungs and thorax were necessary to respiration. Finally, the external air, being admitted to any of the membranes of the human body, inflames them, if they be not defended by plentiful mucus, and of this the pleura is destitute.

Respiration, whether by the admixture of a subputrid vapour, or in some other way, certainly vitiates the air, and renders it unfit either for inflating the lungs or supporting flame; and lastly, it deprives that element of its elasticity. It is probable that this happens from putrefaction, since, by a crowd of men the air is rendered pestilential, and fevers of the most malignant kind are generated in a

few hours. In whatever way it happens, we are certain, that, in the lungs, the air is vitiated; loses its elasticity; and cannot keep the lungs distended, so as to transmit the quantity of blood now increased by the dilatation of the pulmonary arteries, into the veins. Nor can the will dilate the breast beyond certain bounds, or assist the passage of the blood. A state therefore will take place, in which the blood cannot pass through the lungs.

Thus a new resistance to the blood continually coming from the heart is generated: and in long retentions of the breath, as in making violent efforts, the venous blood, especially of the head, stagnates before the right ventricle of the heart, which is closed up, because it cannot evacuate itself into the lungs; and tumefies the face with redness, and sometimes bursts the veins of the brain, neck, intestines, kidneys, or lungs, and even the right auricle of the heart. This is the cause of excessive anxiety of mind; this is the cause of death in compressed air, in persons drowned or strangled, which is much more sudden than is commonly imagined with regard to drowned people. A living person, therefore, that he may remove those inconveniencies which arise from the passage of the blood being obstructed, slackens the powers of inspiration, and excites to action those of expiration, in order to free the breast from the too greatly rarified air.

These powers are, first, the elasticity of the ribs, which being drawn upwards out of their natural situation, as soon as the elevating powers cease to act, spontaneously replace themselves at more acute angles with the sternum and vertebræ. There is also the elastic force of the bronchia and vesicles distended with air, by which they endeavour to contract. Hence

expiration is performed more easily and quickly than inspiration; and hence it is the last action of dying people.

These are assisted by the abdominal muscles; the oblique, straight, and transverse. The former of these are fastened by one part to the lower ribs; and by another part they are attached to the os pubis and ilium, which are immovable, when compared with the breast. Therefore the straight muscles, being contracted, flatten the arch into which the abdominal viscera were protruded by the depression of the diaphragm, reduce the convexity of the abdomen nearer to a straight line: force the abdominal viscera upwards and backwards against the diaphragm, which alone can give way; and press it up into the thorax, which is thus rendered shorter. The oblique muscles, for the same reasons, compress the lateral parts of the abdomen, carry the liver and stomach backwards, and press them towards that place where there is the least resistance. Lastly, all of them draw down the ribs which were elevated by the intercostals. The transverse muscles, indeed, do not draw down the ribs; but they pull the cartilages of the false ribs a little inwards, render the whole abdomen much narrower, and force the same viscera against the diaphragm. As accessory powers may be reckoned the sternocostal, and the long internal intercostal muscles, which are called depressors. By this joint force the elevated ribs descend; the middle ones more, the uppermost less, the lowest most of all; their margins are drawn inwards: the cartilages ascend, and return into acute angles with the sternum; and the sternum itself recedes backwards with the ribs. By these means the thorax, is rendered narrower in every direction and shorter, and expels as much air out of the

lungs as is sufficient to remove the uneasiness.

In violent respiration, when the inspirations are fuller, the more powerful expirations derive assistance from some other causes, as the sacro-lumbalis, longissimus and quadratus muscles. By this force, leaden bullets, weighing above a drachm, may be blown to the distance of 363 feet; which force is equal to a third part of the pressure of the atmosphere. But, in a healthy person, the muscles of the abdomen alone suffice, and the lungs are not so much emptied as in blowing.

The effects of expiration are the compression of the blood-vessels of the lungs; the diminution of the angles of the bronchia; the resting the weight of the adjacent vessels on the reticular vessels; the expulsion of the corrupted air from the lungs; the propulsion through the veins of that part of the blood, which is impacted in the capillary arteries, to the left side of the heart, and the impeding that part of the blood which is coming from the right ventricle. Expiration, therefore, stops the ready entrance of the blood into the lungs; and as the whole thorax is compressed at the same time, it repels the venous blood into the veins of the head, and fills the brain and its sinuses.

In this manner the necessity for respiration arises anew, as often as the collapsed vessels of the lungs resist the blood expelled from the right ventricle of the heart: this is one cause of death in those animals which expire in vessels exhausted of air. The lungs in those which have remained long in vacuo, from having the air drawn out from them, become dense, solid, and heavier than water; and, therefore, impervious to the blood. Of the same kind is the death of those who are killed by lightning, and perhaps by the noxious va-

pours of caverns. Therefore, in consequence of a most intelligent structure, at the first perception of the uneasiness arising from the opposition to the passage of the blood through the lungs, the expiring powers become relaxed, the inspiring powers are excited into action, and the motion of the blood through the lungs is rendered free and accelerated.

Are there other causes of alternate respiration? Is any thing to be derived from the compression of the vena sine pari, of the phrenic nerve, or from the blood not being sent to the brain? But these are disproved by comparative anatomy; which, where there is no such nerve or vein, finds the same alternation in respiration every where. Does it proceed from the alternate contraction of antagonist muscles, among which, those of expiration relax those of inspiration, and the reverse? But, according to this argument, all the muscles of the human body would be perpetually alternating in their motions.

From what has been said, it sufficiently appears, that respiration is absolutely necessary to a healthy adult; because, whether the lungs remain long in a state either of expiration or of inspiration, death will be the consequence. Therefore no animal, that has lungs like ourselves, after it has breathed for some time, so that the air shall have penetrated into the inmost parts of the lungs, and the pulmonary artery shall have brought a new quantity of blood to that viscus, can subsist longer than a few minutes without the use of air, without perishing, or at least falling into a state which differs from death only in the possibility of recovery. In an animal recently born, this necessity for air does not take place very instantaneously.

But the use of respiration is different from this necessity; which nature might have avoided, either by

forming no lungs at all, or by constructing them similar to those of the foetus. The use, therefore, of respiration must be very considerable, since all animals are furnished either with lungs, or with gills, or with a wind-pipe distributed through all parts of the body.

To investigate this utility, let us compare the blood of the adult with that of the foetus, and with the vital fluid in fishes. It appears, that in the foetus the blood is destitute of its florid redness and solid density; that the blood of fish is cold, and has less density, and a tender crassamentum. It is therefore probable, that the blood acquires both these properties in the lungs.

Is animal heat generated principally in the lungs? Does it arise from the alternate extension and contraction, relaxation and compression, of the vessels, by which the solid parts of the blood are perpetually rubbed together, and suffer attrition from their constriction? The lungs, therefore, will add to the office of the rest of the arteries, because in them the blood is alternately relaxed and compressed more than in any other part of the body. But when the lungs are obstructed, ulcerated, and almost destroyed, morbid heat is increased in the human body: and in the lungs, the cold air comes most nearly in contact with the blood.

The density is, indeed, promoted by the copious discharge of watery vapour from the vessels of the lungs, by which the rest of the mass becomes specifically heavier. In the same manner as in other arteries, the blood, being alternately retarded and accelerated, is figured by the moulds of the ultimate arteries, becomes spherical, and therefore denser, having more ponderous globules, and less light fluid. The pulmonary vein also being smaller than its corresponding artery, is of considerable

use in compressing the globules, and in increasing their attraction. Nevertheless, cold animals, with very small lungs, have dense and coagulable blood; as also the chick in ovo. The course of the blood through the lungs is shorter: through the whole body the course is longer, and the artery weaker; the ventricle, by which the blood is propelled, is also weaker.

Is the air itself received into the blood in the lungs, and does it there produce necessary vibrations? Is this demonstrated from the resistance of the body to the weight of the external air; from the air found in the blood-vessels, in the cellular substance, and in the cavities of the human body; from the cracking produced by extending the joint; from air being manifestly poured from the trachea into the hearts of many animals, as the locust; from the escape of air from the blood and animal fluids in Mr. Boyle's vacuum; from the necessity of a vital oscillation in the blood; and from the increased redness of the pulmonary blood?

That no elastic air is here received into the blood, is demonstrated from its not being able to enter into the blood, if it retain its elasticity; from the inutility of its reception, if its elasticity be lost in the blood; from the perfect immutability of the blood by cold; from the minuteness of the inhaling vessels; from the sides of the vesicles being perpetually covered with mucus; from the elastic nature of air being unfit to pass through capillary vessels; and from its repulsion by water, that hinders it from passing through moistened paper, linen, or leather. Again, air thrown into the trachea never passes into the heart; or only when it is driven with excessive force. In the vessels and humours of the human body, air, from a state of inelasticity, becomes elastic in consequence of putrefaction, frost, or an external vacuum. But

Such air exists in every liquid, and is taken into our bodies with the aliments, and with vapours, mixing slowly and difficultly. There never were any elastic bubbles of air observed in the blood of a living animal, unless after wounds; air being inflated into the blood-vessels of any animal, kills it certainly and speedily. Nor is there any thing sufficiently certain in the increased redness of the blood in the pulmonary veins. Lastly, air indeed is absorbed by most fluids, and by water, but slowly, and only at the end of several days after the former air has been exhausted by the pump. It then likewise lays aside its elastic nature; and no reason has been advanced why the air should either be more speedily absorbed by the blood, or why it should retain its elasticity after its absorption.

Is the blood cooled in the lungs? Is this proved from the death of animals in air heated to the same degree with the animal, as is believed to have happened from very sultry summer weather, and scorching east winds? Are the pulmonary veins, therefore, less than the arteries? Does the desire of cold in hard-working people arise from thence? That the blood is cooled in the lungs, is thus far true, that it warms the contiguous air, and therefore imparts to it something of its own heat. But that this was not the design of nature, is evident; since no one has said, that the venous blood is hotter than the arterial, although some assert that it is colder; and nobody ever observed the left ventricle of the heart colder than the right. But the venous blood enters the lungs. If it be cooled there, it follows that the arteries must receive it still colder. Therefore, the blood recovers that heat which it lost, and even more: and besides, a person may live in an air much hotter than the blood itself, of which we have a familiar example

in baths, and warm climates. The size of the pulmonary artery in the foetus, which does not respire, is greater; and the larger area of the right auricle and ventricle of the heart, which is likewise much greater in the foetus, seems to be a receptacle subservient to frequently necessary retardations, and the narrowness of the vein contributes to the acceleration of the blood.

Does the blood derive its redness from the air? This is contradicted by what we see in cold animals, which though they make almost no use of the air, have blood equally red with that of warm animals; by the certain connection of redness in the blood of frogs, with their having plenty of food, and of paleness with want of food; and by the air, as we have just now said, having no access to the blood. Nevertheless, redness is produced, and restored to the blood by the contact of air, and is destroyed by its removal. Does some subtle element from the air penetrate the blood, and cause its colour, as light is required for the colours of plants?

Why do tortoises, frogs, lizards, snails, earwigs, and many other insects, live long without air? In them, the lungs are given, not so much for the preparation of the blood, of which they have but a small quantity, as for assisting them in swimming; hence their lungs are supplied with veins from the cava, and with arteries from the aorta. Insects inhale and exhale air, through points in the skin. Why do all animals, however small, such as little birds, perish in air that is not renewed? Because the air, which has once entered the lungs, is contaminated by inelastic, watery, and alkaline vapours, and therefore it becomes noxious: not because it becomes lighter; for the mercury falls but little in air, which has not been renewed, and which has killed an animal. Hence, on the other hand,

animals survive longer in air which is more compressed than that of the atmosphere: for in that case, the proportion of the elastic element is greater, and therefore the air is more slowly contaminated. But, even in other cases, confined air becomes deleterious, and filled with vapours, by stagnation alone. Why do animals swell in an exhausted receiver? From the expansion of the air, which exhaled in an inelastic state in the blood?

There is a certain connection between the pulse and respiration. According to the common course of nature, three or four pulsations are reckoned to one respiration. If the quantity of blood sent to the heart be increased, the frequency, both of the pulse and respiration, are increased. This is the reason of the panting in a person taking exercise, which accelerates the motion of the venous blood. If the blood meet with much resistance in the lungs, and do not pass freely from the right into the left ventricle of the heart; to accelerate its course, both the number and magnitude of the respirations are increased. This is the cause of sighing, yawning, and panting; of which the first is a deep inspiration; the second slow, and very great; and the third, frequent and imperfect. The number of respirations, however, does not increase with the pulse; of which we have an example in fevers, in which the lungs are not affected.

The mucus, which lines the sensible membrane of the bronchia, may become troublesome, both by its quantity and acrimony; it has been even known to cause suffocation in a dropsy of the lungs. Therefore, its superabundance, adhesion, or acrimony, is removed by coughing; namely, by irritating the respiratory system, the mucus or concretions are loosened and expelled by large inspirations,

and expirations, alternately succeeding each other with rapidity, and by strokes of the abdominal muscles.

Laughter differs from coughing in its cause, which resides commonly in the mind, or at least consists in the titillation of some of the cutaneous nerves; and also, because, after one deep inspiration, there are frequent but imperfect expirations, through the contracted glottis, and the air is not totally evacuated from the lungs. Hence laughter, in a moderate degree, conduces to health; because, in place of one full inspiration, several inspirations and expirations happen in the same time, and thus the concussion is greater. Hence its danger, from stagnation of the blood; because the expiration is not full, and therefore the blood is admitted into the pulmonary artery, but is not suffered to pass through it. Weeping begins with a deep inspiration, after which follow short alternate inspirations and expirations; and it is finished with a deep expiration, which is immediately followed by an inspiration: hence it has nearly the same good and bad effects; and, when moderate, it relieves the distress arising from grief. Hiccough is a very great, sonorous, and sudden inspiration. Sneezing consists of one deep inspiration, succeeded by a single powerful expiration; and by the torrent excited, the acrid matter, irritating the nostrils, is blown away.

The secondary uses of respiration are very numerous. It exhales copiously, and removes from the blood something highly noxious; for by remaining in the air, it will cause suffocation; and the breath of many people, crowded in a close and small place, impregnates the air with a suffocating quality. On the other hand, it absorbs from the air a thin vapour, of which the use is perhaps not sufficiently known. It is also a force, which perpetually compresses

the abdomen, and all its viscera; it evacuates the stomach, intestines, gall-bladder, receptacle of the chyle, urinary bladder, intestinum rectum, and the womb; it comminutes the aliments, and forces the blood through the liver, spleen, and mesentery. It causes a kind of flux and reflux in the blood, so that it is alternately pressed back towards the extremities of the veins, and a little after is propelled towards the heart by an accelerated velocity, as into an empty space. Moreover, inspiration attracts the odoriferous particles from the air, and conveys them to the sensorium. But even sucking, so necessary to the new-born infant, is effected by inspiration, and by forming a larger space, in which the air contained in the mouth is rarified, so that the pressure of the external air forces the milk into that part where it is least resisted. Lastly, the voice itself depends upon the air, and seems to be the principal manifest effect of respiration.

It has been thought proper to insert thus much of the truly scientific enquiry concerning respiration, from the physiology of the immortal Haller. The industry of the modern physiologists, aided by the luminous discoveries in chemistry, has proved, by decisive and beautiful experiments, that, in inspiration, the oxygen of the inspired air combines with the carbon disengaged from the blood, and forms carbonic acid, which is expired together with the azotic gas; that a certain quantity of hydrogen is likewise disengaged from the venous blood, which, by uniting with the oxygen of the atmospherical air, forms the vapour which is exhaled with the air; that another portion of the vapour proceeding directly from the pulmonary transpiration, is dissolved in the air that is expired; and that the caloric or matter of heat being separated from the vital

air, unites with the blood, and restores it to the temperature of 93 to 94. Thus, the use of respiration consists in the formation of the blood, in the production of its temperature, and in the destruction of several superfluous principles with which this fluid is loaded by the chyle, and in the course of the circulation.

REST HARROW. See *Ononis*.

RESTA BOVIS. The rest harrow is so called because it hinders the plough; hence *resta bovis*. See *Ononis*.

RESUSCITATION. The restoring of persons, apparently dead, to life. Under this head, strictly speaking, is considered the restoring of those who faint, or have breathed noxious and irrespirable air; yet it is chiefly confined to the restoring of those who are apparently dead from being immersed in a fluid, or by hanging. Dr. Curry, of Guy's hospital, has written a very valuable book on this subject; and such is its importance, that we have thought proper to insert the following account:

"From considering," he observes, "that a drowned person is surrounded by water instead of air, and that in this situation he makes strong and repeated efforts to breathe, we should expect that the water would enter and completely fill the lungs. This opinion, indeed, was once very general, and it still continues to prevail among the common people. Experience, however, has shewn, that unless the body lies so long in the water as to have its living principle entirely destroyed, the quantity of fluid present in the lungs is inconsiderable; and it would seem that some of this is the natural moisture of the part accumulated; for, upon drowning kittens, puppies, &c. in ink, or other coloured liquors, and afterwards examining the lungs, it is found that very little of the coloured liquor has gained admittance to them.

—To explain the reason why the lungs of drowned animals are so free from water, it is necessary to observe, that the muscles which form the opening into the wind-pipe are exquisitely sensible, and contract violently upon the least irritation, as we frequently experience when any part of the food or drink happens to touch them. In the efforts made by a drowning person, or animal, to draw in air, the water rushes into the mouth and throat, and is applied to these muscles, which immediately contract in such a manner as to shut up the passage into the lungs. This contracted state continues as long as the muscles retain the principle of life, upon which the power of muscular contraction depends; when that is gone, they become relaxed, and the water enters the wind-pipe, and completely fills it. On dissecting the body of a recently drowned animal, no particular fulness of the vessels within the skull, nor any disease of the brain or its membranes, are visible. The lungs also are found, and the branches of the wind-pipe generally contain more or less of a frothy matter, consisting chiefly of air, mixed with a small quantity of colourless fluid. The *right* cavity of the heart, and the trunks of the large internal veins which open into it, and also the trunk and larger branches of the artery which carries the blood from this cavity through the lungs, are all distended with dark coloured blood, approaching almost to blackness. The *left* cavity of the heart, on the contrary, is nearly, or entirely empty, as are likewise the large veins of the lungs which supply it with blood, and the trunk and principal branches of the great artery which conveys the blood from hence to the various parts of the body. The external blood-vessels are empty; and the fleshy parts are as pale as if the animal had been bled to death. When

a body has lain in the water for some time, other appearances will also be observable; such as, the skin livid, the eyes bloodshot, and the countenance bloated and swollen; but these appearances, though certainly unfavourable, do not absolutely prove that life is irrecoverably gone. It is now known, that in the case of drowning, no injury is done to any of the parts essential to life; but that the *right* cavity of the heart, together with the veins and arteries leading to and from that cavity, are turgid with blood, whilst every other part is almost drained of this fluid. The practice of holding up the bodies of drowned persons by the heels, or rolling them over a cask, is unnecessary; the lungs not being filled with any thing that can be evacuated in this way. Therefore such a practice is highly dangerous, as the violence attending it may readily burst some of those vessels which are already overcharged with blood, and thus convert what was only suspended animation, into absolute and permanent death. The operation of inflating the lungs is a perfectly safe, and much more effectual method of removing any frothy matter they may contain; and whilst it promotes the passage of the blood through them, also renders it capable of stimulating the *left* cavity of the heart, and exciting it to contraction. As soon as the body is taken out of the water, it should be stripped of any clothes it may have on, and be immediately well dried. It should then be wrapped in dry warm blankets, or in the spare clothes taken from some of the by-standers, and be removed as quickly as possible to the nearest house that can be got convenient for the purpose. The fittest will be one that has a tolerably large apartment, in which a fire is ready, or can be made. The body may be carried in men's arms, or laid upon a door; or, in case the house be at

a distance from the place, if a cart can be procured, let the body be placed in it, on one side, upon some straw, with the head and upper parts somewhat raised; and in this position a brisk motion will do no harm. Whatever be the mode of conveyance adopted, particular care should be taken that the head be neither suffered to hang backwards, nor to bend down with the chin upon the breast. When arrived at the house, lay the body on a mattress, or a double blanket, spread upon a low table, or upon a door supported by stools; the head and chest being elevated by pillows. As the air of a room is very soon rendered impure by a number of people breathing in it, for this reason as well as to avoid the confusion and embarrassment attending a crowd, no more persons should be admitted into the apartment where the body is placed, than are necessary to assist immediately in the recovery: in general, six will be found sufficient for this purpose, and these should be the most active and intelligent of the bystanders. It will be found most convenient to divide the assistants into two sets; one set being employed in restoring the heat of the body, while the other institutes an artificial breathing in the best manner they are able. Every skilful person should be provided with a flexible tube made of elastic gum, half a yard in length, to introduce into the wind-pipe, and also with a similar tube to which a syringe can be affixed, to be put into the œsophagus. Should these not be at hand, air should be thrown into the lungs in the best manner that can be suggested at the time. Should it still be found that the air does not pass readily into the lungs, immediate recourse must be had to another and more effectual method for attaining that object. As this method, however, requires address, and also some knowledge of the parts about the

throat, we would recommend that when there is not a medical gentleman present, the mode already described be tried repeatedly before this be attempted. As a quantity of frothy matter occupying the branches of the wind-pipe and preventing the entrance of the air into the lungs, is generally the circumstance which renders this mode of inflation necessary, the mouth should be opened from time to time to remove this matter as it is discharged. While one set of the assistants are engaged in performing artificial respiration, the other should be employed in communicating heat to the body. The warm bath has been usually recommended for this purpose; but wrapping the body in blankets, or woollen cloths, strongly wrung out of warm water, and renewing them as they grow cool, besides being a speedier and more practicable method of imparting heat, has this great advantage, that it admits of the operation of inflating the lungs being carried on without interruption. Until a sufficient quantity of warm water can be got ready, other methods of restoring warmth may be employed; such as the application of dry warm blankets round the body and limbs; bags of warm grains or sand, bladders or bottles of hot water, or hot bricks applied to the hands, feet, and under the arm-pits, the bottles and bricks being covered with flannel: or the body may be placed before the fire, or in the sunshine if strong at the time, and be gently rubbed by the assistants with their warm hands, or with cloths heated at the fire or by a warming pan. The restoration of heat should always be gradual, and the warmth applied ought never to be greater than can be comfortably borne by the assistants. If the weather happen to be cold, and especially if the body has been exposed to it for some time,

heat should be applied in a very low degree at first: and if the weather be under the freezing point, and the body when stripped, feel cold and nearly in the same condition with one that is frozen, it will be necessary at first to rub it well with snow, or wash it with cold water; the sudden application of heat in such cases, having been found very pernicious. In a short time, however, warmth must be gradually applied. To assist in rousing the activity of the vital principle, it has been customary to apply various stimulating matters to different parts of the body. But as some of these applications are in themselves hurtful, and the others serviceable only according to the time and manner of their employment, it will be proper to consider them particularly. The application of all such matters in cases of apparent death, is founded upon the supposition that the skin still retains sensibility enough to be affected by them. It is well known, however, that even during life, the skin loses sensibility in proportion as it is deprived of heat, and does not recover it again until the natural degree of warmth be restored. Previous to the restoration of heat, therefore, to a drowned body, all stimulating applications are useless, and so far as they interfere with the other measures, are also prejudicial. The practice of rubbing the body with salt or spirits is now justly condemned. The salt quickly frets the skin, and has in some cases produced sores, which were very painful and difficult to heal after recovery. Spirits of all kinds evaporate fast, and thereby, instead of creating warmth, as they are expected to do, carry off a great deal of heat from the body. Spirit of hartshorn, or of sal volatile, are liable to the same objection as brandy or other distilled spirits, and are besides very distressing to the eyes of the assistants. When there is reason to

think the skin has, in any degree recovered its sensibility, let an assistant moisten his hand with spirit of hartshorn, or *eau de luce*, and hold it closely applied to one part: in this way evaporation is prevented, and the full stimulant effect of the application obtained. A liniment composed of equal parts of spirit of hartshorn and salad oil, well shaken together, would appear to be sufficiently stimulating for the purpose, and as it evaporates very slowly, will admit of being rubbed on without producing cold. The places to which such remedies are usually applied, are, the wrists, ancles, temples, and the parts opposite the stomach and heart. The intestines, from their internal situation and peculiar constitution, retain their irritability longer than the other parts of the body, and, accordingly, various means have been proposed for increasing the action of their fibres, in order to restore the activity of the whole system. Tobacco-smoke, injected by way of glyster, is what has been generally employed with this view, and the *fumigator*, or instrument for administering it, makes a part of the apparatus which is at present distributed by the different societies established for the recovery of drowned persons. Of late, however, the use of tobacco-smoke has been objected to, and upon very strong grounds; for when we consider that the same remedy is successfully employed with the very opposite intention, namely, that of lessening the power of contraction in the muscles, and occasioning the greatest relaxation consistent with life, it must be acknowledged to be a very doubtful, if not dangerous remedy, where the powers of life are already nearly exhausted: Instead of tobacco-smoke then, we would recommend a glyster, consisting of a pint or more of water, moderately warmed, with the addition of one or two table spoon-

fuls of spirit of hartshorn, a heaped tea spoonful of strong mustard, or a table spoonful of essence of peppermint; in defect of one or other of these, half a gill or more, of rum, brandy, or gin may be added, or the warm water given alone. This step, however, need not be taken, until artificial respiration has been begun; for it will answer but little purpose to stimulate the heart through the medium of the intestines, unless we, at the same time, supply the left cavity with blood fitted to act upon it; which we cannot do without first removing the collapsed state of the lungs, and promoting the passage of the blood through them by a regular inflation. As the stomach is a highly sensible part, and intimately connected with the heart and brain, the introduction of some moderately warm and stimulating liquor into it, seems well calculated to rouse the dormant powers of life. This is very conveniently done by means of the syringe and flexible tube. The quantity of fluid thrown in ought not to exceed half a pint, and may be either warm aegus, or water with the addition of one or other of the stimulating matters recommended above, using, however, only half the quantities mentioned there. As soon as the pulse or beating of the heart can be felt, the inside of the nostrils may be occasionally touched with a feather dipped in spirit of hartshorn, or sharp mustard; it being found by experience, that any irritation given to the nose, has considerable influence in exciting the action of the muscles concerned in respiration. When the natural breathing commences, the flexible tube and canula should be withdrawn, and any farther inflation that may be necessary, performed by blowing into the nostril. Letting blood has been generally thought requisite in every case of suspended animation. The practice, however, does not appear

to have been founded upon any rational principle at first, and it has been continued from the force of custom, rather than from any experience of its good effects. In the case of drowned persons there is not, as in those who suffer from hanging or apoplexy, any unusual fulness of the vessels of the brain; and the quantity of blood that can be drawn from the external veins, will not sensibly diminish the accumulation of it in those near the heart. Besides, blood-letting, which always tends to *lessen* the action of the heart and arteries in the living body, cannot be supposed to have a directly opposite effect in cases of apparent death; on the contrary, if employed here, it will hazard the entire destruction of those feeble powers which yet remain, and to increase and support which all our endeavours should be directed. When the several measures recommended above, have been steadily pursued for an hour or more, without any appearance of returning life, electricity should be tried; experience having shewn it to be one of the most powerful stimuli yet known, and capable of exciting contraction in the heart and other muscles of the body, after every other stimulus had ceased to produce the least effect. Moderate shocks are found to answer best, and these should, at intervals, be passed through the chest in different directions, in order, if possible, to rouse the heart to act. Shocks may likewise be sent through the limbs, and along the spine; but we are doubtful how far it is safe or useful to pass them through the brain, as some have recommended. The body may be conveniently insulated, by placing it on a door, supported by a number of quart bottles, whose sides are previously wiped with a towel, to remove any moisture they may have contracted. By experiments made on different animals, it is found that

the blood passes through the lungs most readily when they are fully distended with air; consequently, that if the lungs of a drowned person are inflated, and kept in the expanded state whilst the electric shock is passed through the chest, the blood accumulated in the *right* cavity of the heart and its vessels, will move forward without any resistance, should the heart be brought to contract upon it. As soon as the shock is given, let the lungs be emptied of the air they contain, and filled again with fresh air; then pass another shock, and repeat this until the heart is brought into action, or until it appear that all farther attempts are useless. In order more certainly to pass the shock through the heart, place the knob of one discharging rod above the collar-bone of the right side, and the knob of the other above the short ribs of the left: the position of the discharging rods, however, may be changed occasionally, so as to vary the direction of the shock. Two thick brass wires, each about eighteen inches long, passed through the two glass tubes, or wooden cases well varnished, and having at one end a knob, and at the other a ring to fasten the brass chain to, form very convenient discharging rods; and by means of them, the shock may be administered without the risque of its being communicated to the assistants, or carried off by the skin being wet. When the patient is so far recovered as to be able to swallow, he should be put into a warm bed, with his head and shoulders somewhat raised by means of pillows. Plenty of warm wine-whey, ale-possiet, or other light and moderately nourishing drink, should now be given, and gentle sweating promoted, by wrapping the feet and legs in flannels well wrung out of hot water. If the stomach and bowels feel distended and uneasy, a glyster, consisting of a

pint of warm water, with a table spoonful of common salt, or an ounce or more of glauber's or Epfom salt, dissolved in it, may be administered. The general practice, in this case, is to give an emetic; but considering that the powers of the machine are still very weak, the agitation of vomiting is certainly hazardous. The patient should on no account be left alone, until the senses are perfectly restored, and he be able to assist himself; several persons having relapsed and been lost, from want of proper attention to them, after the vital functions were, to all appearance, completely established. Either from the distention which the arteries of the lungs have suffered, or from the sudden change from great coldness to considerable warmth, it now and then happens, that the patient is attacked, soon after recovery, with inflammation of some of the parts within the chest. This occurrence is pointed out by pain in the breast or side, increased on inspiration, and accompanied with frequent, and full or hard pulse, and sometimes with cough. Here the taking away some blood from the arm, or the application of cupping-glasses, leeches, or a blister, over the seat of the pain, will be very proper; but the necessity for these measures, as well as the time for putting them in practice, should be left to the judgment and discretion of a medical person. Dull pain in the head, lasting sometimes for two or three days, is by no means an unfrequent complaint in those who are recovered from this and from the other states of suspended animation; and here also a moderate bleeding from the neck, either with the lancet or with cupping-glasses, may prove serviceable.

In hanging, the external veins of the neck are compressed by the cord, and the return of the blood from the head thereby impeded, from

the moment that suspension takes place; but as the heart continues to act for a few seconds after the wind-pipe is closed, the blood which is sent to the head during this interval, is necessarily accumulated there. Hence it is, that in hanged persons the face is greatly swollen, and of a dark red or purple colour: the eyes are commonly suffused with blood, enlarged, and prominent. On dissection, the blood-vessels of the brain are found considerably distended; but, in general, no further marks of disease appear within the skull. The lungs are found generally quite collapsed, and free from frothy matter. The heart and the large blood-vessels adjoining to it, exhibit the same appearances as in the bodies of drowned persons. From the great accumulation of blood in the vessels of the head, many have been of opinion, that hanging kills chiefly by inducing apoplexy; but the following experiment made at Edinburgh several years ago, by an eminent medical professor there, clearly proves, that in hanging, as well as in drowning, the exclusion of air from the lungs is the immediate cause of death. A dog was suspended by the neck with a cord, an opening having been previously made in the wind-pipe, below the place where the cord was applied, so as to admit air into the lungs. In this state he was allowed to hang for three quarters of an hour, during which time the circulation and breathing went on. He was then cut down, without appearing to have suffered much from the experiment. The cord was now shifted below the opening into the wind-pipe, so as to prevent the ingress of air to the lungs; and the animal being again suspended, he was completely dead in a few minutes. Upon the whole, then, it appears, that the same measures recommended for drowned persons, are also necessary here; with this addition, that opening the ju-

gular veins, or applying cupping-glasses to the neck, will tend considerably to facilitate the restoration of life, by lessening the quantity of blood contained in the vessels of the head, and thereby taking off the pressure from the brain. Except in persons who are very full of blood, the quantity taken away need seldom exceed an ordinary tea cupful, which will in general be sufficient to unload the vessels of the head, without weakening the powers of life.

RETE MUCOSUM, (*Rete*, is, n. a net). *Corpus reticulare*. *Corpus mucosum*. *Mucus Malpighii*. A mucous substance, deposited, in a net-like form, between the epidermis and cutis, which covers the sensible cutaneous papillæ, connects the epidermis with the cutis, and gives the colour to the body: in Europeans it is of a white colour, in Ethiopians black. See *Skin*.

RETICULAR, (*Reticularis*, from *rete*, a net). Interwoven like a net.

RETIFORM, (*Retiformis*, from *rete*, a net, and *forma*, resemblance). Net-like.

RETINA, (*Retina*, æ, f. from *rete*, a net). The third or innermost membrane of the eye expanded round the choroid coat, to the ciliary ligament. It is the true organ of vision, and is formed by an expansion of the pulp of the optic nerve.

RETORT, (*Retorta*, æ, f. from *retorqueo*, to bend back again; probably so called because its neck was curved and bent back again). A chemical vessel employed for many distillations, and most frequently for those which require a degree of heat superior to that of boiling water. They differ in form and materials: when pierced with a little hole in their roof, they are called tubulated retorts. They are made of common glass, stone ware, and iron.

RETRACTOR ANGULI ORIS. Albinus calls the buccinator thus. See *Buccinator*.

RETRAHENTES AURIS. *Posterior auris* of Winslow. Two small bundles of muscular fibres which arise from the external and posterior part of the mastoid process of the temporal bone immediately above the insertion of the sterno-cleido-mastoideus muscle. They are inserted into that part of the back of the ear which is opposite to the septum which divides the concha and scapha. Their use is to draw the ear backwards, and stretch the concha.

RETROVERSION. See *Uterus, Retroversion of.*

REVERBERATORY FURNACE. See *Furnace.*

RHABARBĀRUM, (*Rhabarbarum*, *i. n.* from *Rha*, and *barbarus*, wild; so called because it was brought from the banks of the Rha in Russia). *Rhabarbarum verum.* *Rhabarbarum tartaricum.* *Rheum.* Rhubarb. It was not until the year 1732 that naturalists became acquainted with any plant which seemed to afford the *Rhabarbarum officinale*, when some plants received from Russia by Jussieu at Paris, and Raud at Chelsea, were said to supply this important desideratum, and as such were adopted by Linnæus, in his first edition of the *Species Plantarum*, under the name of *Rheum rhabarbarum*. This, however, was not generally received as the genuine rhubarb plant; and with a view to ascertain this matter more completely, Kaun Boerhaave procured from a Tartarian rhubarb merchant the seeds of those plants whose roots he annually sold, and which were admitted at Petersburg to be the true rhubarb. These seeds were soon propagated, and were discovered by De Gorter to produce two distinct species, viz. the *R. Rhabarbarum* of Linnæus, or as it has since been called, the *R. undulatum*, and another species, a specimen of which was presented to Linnæus, who declared it to be a new one, and was

first mentioned in the second edition of the *Sp. Plantarum*, in 1762, by the name of *R. Palmatum*. Previous to this time De Gorter had repeatedly sent its seeds to Linnæus, but the young plants which they produced constantly perished; at length he obtained the fresh root, which succeeded very well at Upsall, and afterwards enabled the younger Linnæus to describe this plant, ann. 1767. But two years antecedent to this Dr. Hope's account of the *Rheum palmatum*, as it grew in the botanic garden near Edinburgh, had been read before the Royal Society at London; and of the great estimation in which this plant was held by him, we have the following proof; "From the perfect similarity of this root with the best foreign rhubarb, in taste, smell, colour, and purgative qualities, we cannot doubt of our being at last possessed of the plant which produces the true rhubarb, and may reasonably entertain the agreeable expectation of its proving a very important acquisition to Britain."

But from the relation we have given, it appears that both the seeds of the *R. palmatum*, and the *R. undulatum*, were transmitted to Petersburg, as those of the true rhubarb; we are therefore to conclude, that the former species has an equal claim to this importance with the latter; and from further enquiries made in Russia, there is the best authority for believing that the *R. compactum* also affords this very useful drug. The seeds of the *R. palmatum* were first introduced into Britain in 1762, by Dr. Hounsy (who sent them from Russia), and were supposed to be a part of that already mentioned; and since their prosperous cultivation by the late professor of botany at Edinburgh, the propagation of this plant has been gradually extended to most of our English

gardens, and with a degree of success which promises in time to supersede the importation of the foreign root. Two sorts of rhubarb roots are usually imported into this country for medical use, viz. the Chinese, and the Tartary rhubarb; the first is in oblong pieces, flattish on one side, and convex on the other; compact, hard, heavy, internally of a dull red colour, variegated with yellow and white, and when recently powdered, appears yellow, but on being kept becomes gradually redder. The second is the most valuable, and is brought to us in roundish pieces, with a large hole through the middle of each; it is more soft and friable than the former sort, and exhibits, when broken, many streaks of a bright red colour. "The marks of the goodness of rhubarb are, the liveliness of its colour when cut; its being firm and solid, but not flinty or hard; its being easily pulverable, and appearing when powdered of a fine bright yellow colour; its imparting to the spittle when chewed a deep saffron tinge, and not proving limy or mucilaginous in the mouth; its taste is subacid, bitterish, and somewhat styptic; the smell lightly aromatic."

The purgative qualities of rhubarb are extracted more perfectly by water than by rectified spirit: the root remaining after the action of water is almost if not wholly inactive; whereas after repeated digestion in spirit, it proves still very considerably purgative. The virtue of a watery infusion, on being inspissated by a gentle heat is so much diminished, that a dram of the extract is said to have scarcely any greater effect than a scruple of the root in substance. The spirituous tincture loses less; half a dram of this extract proving moderately purgative. The qualities of this root are that of a gentle purgative, and so gentle that it is often in-

convenient on account of the bulk of the dose required, which in adults must be from 3*ss* to 3*j*. When given in a large dose it will occasion some griping, as other purgatives do; but it is hardly ever heating to the system, or shews the other effects of the more drastic purgatives. The purgative quality is accompanied with a bitterness, which is often useful in restoring the tone of the stomach when it has been lost; and, for the most part, its bitterness makes it sit better on the stomach than many other purgatives do. Its operation joins well with neutral laxatives; and both together operate in a lesser dose than either of them would singly. Some degree of stipticity is always evident in this medicine; and as this quality acts when that of the purgative has ceased, so, in cases of diarrhæa, when any evacuation is proper, rhubarb has been considered as the most proper remedy to be employed. It must, however, be remarked here, that in many cases of diarrhæa, no further evacuation than what is occasioned by the disease, is necessary or proper. The use of rhubarb, in substance, for keeping the belly regular, for which it is frequently employed, is by no means proper, as the astringent quality is ready to undo what the purgative has done; but it is found that the purpose mentioned may be obtained by it, if the rhubarb is chewed in the mouth, and no more is swallowed than what the saliva has dissolved. And it must be remarked, that in this way employed it is very useful to dyspeptic persons. Analagous to this, is the use of rhubarb in solution, in which it appears to me, that the astringent quality is not so largely extracted as to operate so powerfully as when the rhubarb was employed in substance.

The officinal preparations of this drug are, a watery and a vinous infusion, a simple and a compound tinc-

ture. It is also an ingredient in different compositions; as, the elixir ex aloë et rheo, pilulæ stomachicæ, and some others.

RHABARBÄRUM ALBUM. See *Meechoacanna*.

RHABARBÄRUM ANTIQUORUM. See *Rhaponticum*.

RHABARBÄRUM MONACHÖRUM. *Hippolapathum*. *Patientia*. Monks rhubarb. Garden patience. This root, which is supposed to possess the virtues of rhubarb, but in an inferior degree, is obtained from the *Rumex patientia* of Linnæus, and, according to Professor Murray, from the *Rumex alpinus* of Linnæus. It is obviously more adstringent than rhubarb, but comes very far short of its purgative virtue.

RHABARBÄRUM SIBIRICUM The plant directed for medicinal purposes by this name is the *Rheum undulatum*; *foliis subvillosis undulatis petiolis equalibus* of Linnæus. It possesses similar virtues to those of the palmate species, and is in common use in Russia.

RHABARBÄRUM TARTARICUM. See *Rhabarbarum*.

RHABARBÄRUM VERUM. See *Rhabarbarum*.

RACHIS, (ΡΑΧΙΣ, the spine of the back). See *Spine*.

RHACHĪTIS. See *Rachitis*.

RHAGÄDES, (*Rhagas*, ῥᾱdis, *pavac*, from ῥᾱγγω, to break or bruise). Malignant, dry, and deep cutaneous fissures.

RHAMNUS, (*Rhamnus*, ῥ, m. *ρᾱμνος*, from ρᾱω, to destroy because of its many thorns). Buck-thorn.

RHAMNUS CATHARTICUS. The systematic name of the buck-thorn. See *Spina cervina*.

RHAMNUS FRANGÜLA. The systematic name of the black alder. See *Frangula*.

RHAMNUS ZIZYPHUS. The systematic name of the tree which affords the jujubs. See *Jujuba*.

RHAPONTIC, RHUBARE. See *Rhaponticum*.

RHAPONTICUM, (*Rhaponticum*, ῥ, n. the Rha of Pontus, i. e. the Rha in Russia, a river on whose bank it grew). *Rhabarbarum Dioscoridis* *Rhabarbarum antiquorum*. The root of this plant, *Rheum rhaponticum* of Linnæus, appears to have been the true rhubarb of the antients. By some it is confounded with the modern rhubarb, though considerably different from that root in appearance, as well as in quality. The rhapontic is of a dusky colour on its surface, and a loose spongy texture; it is more adstringent than rhubarb, and less purgative; in this last intention two or three drachms are required for a dose.

RHAPONTICUM VULGARE OFFICINARUM. *Centaureum majus*. Greater centaury. The root of this plant *Centaurea centaureum* of Linnæus, was formerly used as an aperient and corroborant in alvine fluxes. It is now totally discarded from the materia medica of this country.

RHEUM, (*Rheum*, ῥ, n. *ρῑον*, from *Rha*, a river in Russia). See *Rhabarbarum*.

RHEUM PALMATUM. The systematic name of the officinal rhubarb. See *Rhabarbarum*.

RHEUM RHAPONTICUM. The systematic name of the rhapontic rhubarb. See *Rhaponticum*.

RHEUM UNDULATUM. The systematic name of the officinal rhubarb *Rhabarbarum sibiricum*. See *Rhabarbarum sibiricum*.

RHEUMA, (*Rheuma*, ῥῑtis, n. *ρῑευμα*, from ῥῑω, to flow). The discharge from the nostrils or lungs arising from cold; hence the following line of the school of Salerno:

Si fluit ad pectus, dicatur rheum catarrhus,

Ad fauces branchus, ad nares coryza.

RHEUMATISM, (*Rheumatismus*, *i*, *ῥευματισμός*; from *ῥεῦματις*, to be affected with defluxions). This term so-called from its being formerly used in the same sense as *rheuma*; but, in the present day, the meaning of this word is applied to a genus of disease in the class *pyrexia* and order *blegmata* of Cullen; characterized by pyrexia, pains in the joints, increased by the action of the muscles belonging to the joint, and heat on the part. The blood, after venæsection, exhibits an inflammatory crust. Rheumatism terminates in *arthrodynia*, *lumbago*, and *ischias*. Rheumatism is distinguished into *acute* and *chronic*. The acute is preceded by shivering, heat, thirst, and frequent pulse; after which the pain commences, and soon fixes on the joints. The chronic rheumatism is distinguished by pain in the joints, without pyrexia, and is divided into three species; *Lumbago*, affecting the loins; and *Ischias*, or *schiatrica*, affecting the hip, and *arthrodynia*, or pains in the joints. The acute species mostly terminates in one of these species.

RHIBESIA, (*Rhibesia*, *æ*, f. from *ribes*, a currant). See *Ribes nigrum*, *Ribes rubrum*, and *Fruits summer*.

RHINÆUS, (*Rhinæus*, f. *musculus*; from *ῥίς*, the nose). See *Compressor naris*.

RHODIA, (*Rhodia*, *æ*, f. *podia*; from *ῥόδον*, a rose; so called because its root smells like the damask rose). The *radix rhodiæ* of some pharmacopœias, is the produce of the *Rhodiola rosea* of Linnæus, called rose-wort. When dry, it has a very pleasant smell, resembling that of the damask rose. In this odorous matter the medical virtue of the root resides. Poultices in which this root enters as a chief ingredient, are said to allay violent pains of the head.

RHODIUM LIGNUM, (*Rhodium*, *i*, *ῥόδιον*; from *ῥόδον*, a rose, a wood

which smells like roses). *Rhodium*, or rose wood. The wood or root of a tree supposed to be the *Genista canariensis*; *foliis ternatis, utrinque pubescentibus*; *ramis angulatis* of Linnæus. It is brought from the Canary islands in long crooked pieces, full of knots, externally of a whitish colour, internally of a deep yellow, with a red cast. The largest, smoothest, heaviest, and deepest coloured pieces, should be chosen. Rose wood has a slightly bitterish, somewhat pungent, balsamic taste, and a fragrant smell, especially when scraped or rubbed, resembling that of roses. An essential oil is obtained from it, which is used principally as a perfume, but possesses cordial and corroborant virtues.

RHODOLA ROSÆA. The systematic name of the rose wort. See *Rhodia*.

RHODODENDRON, (*Rhododendron*, *dri*, n. *ῥοδοδένδρον*; from *ῥόδον*, a rose, and *δένδρον*, a tree; so called because its flowers resemble the rose). The oleander, or rose bay. *Rhododendron chrysanthemum* Linnæi. *Rhododendron foliis oblongis impunctis supra scabris venosissimis, corolla rotata irregulari, gemma florifera ferrugineo-tomentosa*. Suppl. Plant. Class *Decandria*. Order *Monogynia*. It was first recommended by Koelpin as an efficacious medicine, not only in rheumatism and gout, but even in venereal cases; and it is now very generally employed in chronic rheumatisms. The leaves, which are the part directed for medicinal use, have a bitterish subadstringent taste. Taken in a large dose, they prove a narcotic poison; and, in moderate doses, they are said to occasion heat, thirst, a degree of delirium, and a peculiar sensation of the parts affected.

RHODODENDRON CHRYSANTHEMUM. The systematic name of the oleander, or rose-bay. See *Rhododendron*.

RHŒAS, (*Rhœas, rhœadis*, f. ποῖας; from *pea*, to flow). The wild poppy is sometimes so called. See *Papaver erraticum*.

RHOMBOIDÆUS, (from *ῥομβός*, a geometrical figure whose sides are equal, but not right-angled, and *εἶδος*, resemblance). *Rhomboideus major* and *minor*. This muscle, which is so named from its shape, is situated immediately under the trapezius.—We find it usually, though not always, divided into two portions, which Albinus describes as two distinct muscles. The uppermost of these, or *rhomboides minor*, arises tendinous from the spinous process of the three inferior vertebræ of the neck, and from the ligamentum colli; the lowermost, or *rhomboides major*, arises tendinous from the spinous processes of the back: the former is inserted into the basis of the scapula, opposite to its spine; the latter into all the basis of the scapula, below its spine. Its use is to draw the scapula obliquely upwards, and directly backwards.

RHUBARB. See *Rhabarbarum*.

RHUBARB, MONKS. See *Rhabarbarum monachorum*.

RHUBARB, RHAPONTIC. See *Rhaponticum*.

RHUS, (*Rhus*, *i*, n. ῥύς; from *peu*, to flow; so called because it stops fluxes). The sumach tree.

RHUS BELGICA. The Dutch myrtle is sometimes so termed. See *Myrtus brabantica*.

RHUS CORIARIA. See *Sumach*.

RHUS RADICANS. A poisonous plant, *Rhus vernix* of Linnæus, the efficacy of which Dr. Fresnoi has endeavoured to prove, in the disease called paralysis, and herpetic affections. He, in order that others should not suffer by his experiments, began by taking an infusion of one of the three folioli, of which each leaf of this plant consists; and as this dose produced no sensible effect, he

increased the number to twelve. His urine and perspiration were increased in quantity, and he had some pains in his belly. He relates seven cases, in which he thinks he can remove all doubt of the efficacy of this infusion, in herpetic affections. From these the following are selected:

“A country woman, (says Dr. Fresnoi), came to me in the month of July 1780, to consult me about the herpes farinosa, with which her face had been covered for more than a year. She was ordered to make an infusion of this plant; and in six weeks was entirely free from the disease.”

He likewise relates five cases of paralysis, which were cured by the use of this plant.

The leaves of this plant are to be cut when in the greatest vigour, about the month of June. “Those who cut this plant (says Dr. F.), wear leathern gloves, on account of its poisonous qualities.” The same gentleman observes, he saw one case in which inflammation of the eye-lids was produced by the vapour from the plant. Four pounds of the leaves being distilled with thirty-two pounds of water, gives it a slight odour, although the plant is entirely free from it. Its taste is pungent, and inflames the mouth. The decoction which remains in the still is brown, and is generally covered with a light brown pellicle. When strained and evaporated, it gives a shining black extract. The leaves inflame and swell the hands and arms of those who take them out of the still, and brings on an itching, which remains for several days. Forty-two pounds of the leaves afford twenty ounces of extract, of a proper consistence for pills.

“A girl, in Flanders, (says Dr. Fresnoi), already subject to fits, laid down some flowers in her bed-room. Next day she told me, that she had undergone a great change; that she

ad had no fits, and slept much better. "It occurred to me, (says Dr. F.) that the flowers occasioned this change. Next day, the flowers being removed, and the window opened, the convulsions reappeared; on their being again introduced, the fits disappeared; which proved plainly it was the effect of the flowers. The success of the extract in tussis convulsiva exceeded my hopes; forty-two children being cured of this disorder in Valenciennes during the end of the year 1786. Four grains of extract dissolved in four ounces of syrup, of which one table spoonful given to the child every third hour, generally abates the cough, and mostly leaves them.

RHUS TIPHINUM. The systematic name of the Virginian sumach, whose seeds are said to be useful in stopping hæmorrhages.

RHUS VERNIX. The systematic name of a species of sumach which contains a poisonous resin. See *Rhus ulmifera*.

RHYAS, (*Rhyas*, *adis*, f. *ῥυας* or *ῥυα*, a disease of the eye). A decrease or defect of the lachrymal canal. The proximate cause is a native defect; or it may originate from excision, erosion, or acrimony. This disorder is commonly incurable, and it induces an incurable *epiphora*, or a continual weeping.

RHYTIDOSIS. See *Rutidosi*.

RIBES NIGRUM, (*Ribes*, *is*, pl. *ibes*, *ium*, black currants). This indigenous plant, *Ribes nigrum* of Linnaeus, (*Ribes inerme*, *racemis pilosis*, *tribus oblongis*. Class *Pentandria*. Order *Monogynia*), affords larger berries than those of the red, which are said to be peculiarly useful in sore throats, and to possess a diuretic power in a very considerable degree. The leaves of the black currant are extremely fragrant, and have been likewise recommended for their medicinal virtue. The officinal prepa-

rations of the berries in the London pharmacopœias are the *syrupus ribis nigri*, and the *succus ribis nigri inspissatus*.

RIBES RUBRUM. The red currant. *Ribes rubrum* of Linnaeus. *Ribes inerme*, *racemis glabris pendulis*, *floribus planiusculis*. Class *Pentandria*. Order *Monogynia*. The white currant tree is merely a variety of the red, the fruit of both is perfectly analogous; therefore what is said of the one, applies to the other. The red currant is abundantly cultivated in gardens, and from its grateful acidity is universally accepted, either as nature presents it, or variously prepared by art with the addition of sugar. Considered medicinally, it is esteemed to be moderately refrigerant, antiseptic, attenuant, and aperient. It may be used with considerable advantage to allay thirst in most febrile complaints, to lessen an increased secretion of bile, and to correct a putrid and scorbutic state of the fluids, especially in sanguine temperaments; but, in constitutions of a contrary kind, it is apt to occasion flatulency and indigestion.

RIBS, (*Costa*, *e*, f. *a costodiendo*, because they guard the vital viscera). The ribs are the long curved bones which are placed in an oblique direction at the sides of the chest. Their number is generally twelve on each side; but, in some subjects, it has been found to be thirteen, and in others, though more rarely, only eleven. They are distinguished into true and false ribs. The seven upper ribs, which are articulated to the sternum, are called *true ribs*; and the five lower ones, which are not immediately attached to that bone, are called *false ribs*. At the posterior extremity of each rib we observe a small head, divided by a middle ridge into two articulating surfaces, covered with cartilage, which are received into two cavities contiguous to each

other, and formed in the upper and lower part of each dorsal vertebra, as we have already observed in our description of the spine. This articulation, which is secured by a capsular ligament, is a species of ginglymus, and allows only of motion upwards and downwards. The head of each rib is supported by a short neck, and immediately beyond this we find a flattened tubercle, affording an oblong and slightly convex surface, which is articulated with the transverse process of the lowest of the two dorsal vertebræ, with which its head is articulated. At some little distance from this tuberosity, the rib makes a considerable curve, which is usually called its angle. From the tubercle to the angle the ribs are of considerable thickness, and approaching to a cylindrical shape; but, from the angle to their anterior extremity, they become thinner and flatter. To this anterior extremity is fixed a long, broad, and strong cartilage, which, in each of the true ribs, reaches to the sternum, where its articulation is secured by a capsular ligament, and by other ligamentous fibres. The cartilages of the sixth and seventh ribs being longer than the rest, are extended upwards, in order to reach the sternum, the inferior portion of which is about on a level with the fifth rib. The cartilages of these two ribs are usually united into one, so as to leave no space between them. The false ribs are supported in a different manner; their cartilages terminate in an acute point before they reach the sternum, the eighth rib being attached by its cartilage to the lower edge of the cartilage of the seventh, or last of the true ribs; the ninth in the same manner to the eighth; and the tenth to the ninth; the cartilages of each rib being shorter than that of the rib above it. The eleventh and twelfth,

which are the two lowermost ribs, are not fixed at their anterior extremities like the other ribs, but hang loose, and are supported only by their ligamentous fibres, and by muscles and other soft parts.

The external surface of each rib is somewhat convex, and its internal surface slightly concave. On the inferior and interior surface of these bones we observe a long fossa, for the lodgment of the intercostal vessels and nerves. This channel, however, does not extend through the whole length of the rib, being observable neither at the posterior extremity, where the vessels have not yet reached the bone, nor at the fore end, where they are distributed to the parts between the ribs. We seldom see any marks of it in the short ribs, as in the first, second, eleventh, and twelfth.

Thus far we have given a description, which is applicable to the ribs in general; but, as we find them differing from each other in shape, length, situation, and other respects, it will be right to speak of each rib in particular.

The *first* rib, which is the shortest of any, is likewise the most curved. It is broader than the other ribs, and, instead of being placed, as they are, obliquely, and with its edges upwards and downwards, it is situated nearly in a transverse direction, one of its edges being placed inwards, or nearly so. Of these edges, the inner one is sharp, and the outer one somewhat rounded. Its inner surface is smooth, and its superior surface is sometimes slightly depressed anteriorly by the clavicle. The head of this rib, instead of being angular, is flattened, and slightly convex, being received into a cavity, which is formed wholly in the first vertebra, and not by two vertebræ, as is the case with the other ribs.

The *second* rib is longer than the

first, but shorter than the ribs below it. Its angle is placed at a small distance from its tuberosity, and its head is articulated with two vertebræ, like the other ribs. The other ten ribs, the two last only excepted, differ from the general description we have given, chiefly in the difference of their length, which goes on gradually increasing, from the first or uppermost, to the seventh or last of the true ribs, and as gradually diminishing from that to the twelfth. Their obliquity, in respect to the spine, likewise increases as they descend, as does the distance between the head and angle of each rib, from the first rib to the ninth. The two lowest ribs differ from all the rest in the following particulars: Their heads, like that of the first rib, are rounded, and received into a cavity formed entirely in the body of one vertebra; they have no tubercle for their articulation with the transverse processes, to which they are only loosely fixed by ligaments, and in this respect the tenth rib is sometimes found to agree with them; they are much shorter than the rest of the false ribs, and the twelfth is still shorter than the eleventh. The length of the latter, however, is different in different subjects, and is not always found to be the same on both sides in the same skeleton. Anteriorly, as we have already observed, their cartilages are short and loose, not being attached to the cartilages of the other ribs; and this seems to be, because the most considerable motions of the trunk are not performed on the lumbar vertebræ alone, but likewise on the lower vertebræ of the back; so that if these two ribs had been confined anteriorly, like the rest, and likewise united to the bodies of two vertebræ, and to the transverse process, this disposition would have impeded the motion of the two last vertebræ of the back, and con-

sequently would have affected the motion of the trunk in general.

RIBWORT. The *Plantago lanceolata* of Linnæus, or narrow-leaved plantain is sometimes so termed.

RICE. See *Oryza*.

RICINUS, (*Ricinus*, i. m. *quasi* *ειν ουρος*, a dog's nose, because they flick to the noses of dogs). *Cataputia major*. *Ricinus vulgaris*. *Palma christi*. Mexico feed. *Ricinus communis*; *foliis peltatis subpalmatis serratis*. Class *Monoecia*. Order *Monadelphica*. This plant appears to be the *Kixi* or *Kapotry* of Dioscorides, who observes, that the seeds are powerfully cathartic; it is also mentioned by Ætius, Paulus Ægineta, and Pliny. The ricinus was first cultivated in England, in the time of Turner, and is now annually reared in many gardens in the neighbourhood of London; and in that of Dr. Saunders, at Highbury, the plant grew to a state of great perfection. An oil extracted from the seeds of this plant, and known by the name of *oleum ricini*, *palma christi*, or castor oil, is the drug to which the pharmacopœias refer, and which has lately come into frequent use, as a quick but gentle purgative.

The London College directs this oil to be expressed from the seeds in the same way as that of the oil of almonds, and without the assistance of heat, by which the oil would seem to be obtained in the purest state. However, we have some reason to believe that this method is seldom practised, and that the oil usually employed here is imported from the West Indies, where it is commonly prepared in the following manner: "The seeds being freed from the husks or pods, which are gathered upon their turning brown, and when beginning to burst open, are first bruised in a mortar, afterwards tied up in a linen bag, and then thrown

into a large pot, with a sufficient quantity of water (about eight gallons to one gallon of the seeds), and boiled till the oil is risen to the surface, when it is carefully skimmed off, strained, and kept for use. Thus prepared, the oil is entirely free from acrimony, and will stay upon the stomach when it rejects all other medicines." Mr. Long remarks, that the oil intended for medicinal use is more frequently cold drawn, or extracted from the bruised seeds by means of a hand-press. But this is thought more acrimonious than that prepared by coction. Dr. Browne is also of this opinion, and prefers the oil procured by coction to that by expression; he attributes its greater mildness to the action of the fire, observing, that the expressed oil, as well as the mixed juices of the seeds, are far more active and violent in their operation.

Dr. Cullen observes, that "this oil, when the stomach can be reconciled to it, is one of the most agreeable purgatives we can employ. It has this particular advantage, that it operates sooner after its exhibition than any other purgative I know of, as it commonly operates in two or three hours. It seldom gives any griping, and its operation is generally moderate, to one, two, or three stools only. It is particularly suited to cases of costiveness, and even to cases of spasmodic cholera.

In the West Indies it is found to be one of the most certain remedies in the dry belly-ach, or colica pictorum. It is seldom found heating or irritating to the rectum; and therefore is sufficiently well suited to hæmorrhoidal persons.

The only inconvenience attending the use of this medicine is, that as an oil it is nauseous to some persons; and that, when the dose is large, it occasions sickness at the stomach for some time after it is taken. To ob-

viate these inconveniencies, several means have been tried; and it is found that the most effectual means is the addition of a little ardent spirit.

For this, in the West Indies, they employ rum; but that I might not withdraw any part of the purgative, I employ the *Tinct fennæ comp.* This added in the proportion of one to three parts of the oil, and very intimately mixed, by being shaken together in a phial, both makes the oil less nauseous to the taste, and makes it sit more easy on the stomach. The common dose of this oil is a table spoonful, or half an ounce; but many persons require a double quantity.

RICINUS COMMUNIS. The systematic name of the plant which affords the castor oil. See *Ricinus*.

RICINUS MAJOR. *Ricinoides. Pineus purgans. Pinbones indicæ. Faba cathartica. Nux cathartica americana. Nux barbadiensis.* An oblong black seed, the produce of the *Jatropha curcas; foliis cordatis angulatis* of Linnæus. It affords a quantity of oil, which is given in many places as the castor oil is in this country, to which it is very nearly allied. The seeds of the *Jatropha multifida* are of an oval and triangular shape, of a pale brown colour, are called purging nuts, and give out a similar oil.

RICINUS VULGARIS. See *Ricinus*.

RICKETS. See *Rachitis*.

RIGOR. A coldness, attended by a shivering, more or less perfect.

RIMA, (*Rima, æ, f.*). A fissure or opening; as the *rima laryngis, rima vulvæ*.

RIMA GLOTTIDIS. The opening of the glottis, through which the air passes in and out of the lungs.

RIMULA, (*Rimula, æ, f. dim. of rima, a fissure*). A small fissure.

RINÆUS. See *Compressor naris*.

RING-WORM. A species of herpes. See *Herpes*.

RISAGON. See *Cassumunar*.

ROASTING. A chemical process, generally performed in crucibles, by which mineral substances are divided, some of their principles being volatilized and others changed, so as to prepare them for other operations.

ROB. An old term for an inspissated juice.

ROBORANTS. (*Medicamenta Roborantia*, from *roboro*, to strengthen). Strengthening medicines. See *Stimulants*.

ROCCELLA. The principal use of this plant, *Lichen roccella* of Linnæus, is as a blue dye. It has been employed medicinally with success in allaying the cough attendant on phthisis, and in hysterical coughs.

ROCHELLE SALT. See *Tartris soda*.

ROCKAMBOLE. The *Allium scorodophrasum* of Linnæus. The root is used for pickles and high seasoned dishes.

ROCK-OIL. See *Petroleum*.

ROCK SAMPHIRE. See *Samphire*.

ROCKET, GARDEN. See *Eruca*.

ROCKET, ROMAN. See *Eruca*.

ROCKET, WILD. See *Eruca sylvestris*.

RORELLA. See *Ros solis*.

ROS CALABRINUS. The official manna is sometimes so termed.

ROS SOLIS, (*Ros, roris*, m. dew). *Rorella*. Sun dew. This elegant little plant, *Drosera rotundifolia scapis radicatis; foliis orbiculatis* of Linnæus, is said to be so acrid as to ulcerate the skin, and remove warts and corns, and to excite a fatal coughing and delirium in sheep who eat it. It is seldom given medicinally in this country but by the lower orders, who esteem a decoction of it as serviceable in asthmas and coughs.

ROSA ALBA. The white rose. The flowers of this species possess similar but inferior virtues to those of

the damask. They are directed in some officinal preparations.

ROSA CANINA. The systematic name of the dog rose. See *Cynobatus*.

ROSA CENTIFOLIA. The systematic name of the damask rose. See *Rosa damascena*.

ROSA DAMASCENA, (*Rosa, a, f.*). *Rosa pallida*. The damask rose. The pharmacopœias direct a syrup to be prepared from the petals of this rose, *Rosa centifolia* of Linnæus (*Rosa germinibus ovatis pedunculisque hispida, caule hispido aculeato, petiolis inermibus*. Class *Icosandria*. Order *Polygynia*), which is found to be a pleasant and useful laxative for children, or to obviate costiveness in adults. Most of the roses, though much cultivated in our gardens, are far from being distinctly characterized. Those denominated varieties are extremely numerous, and often permanently uniform; and the specific differences, as hitherto pointed out, are in many respects so adequate to the purpose of satisfactory discrimination, that it becomes a difficult matter to distinguish which are species, and which are varieties only. The London College, following Gerard and Parkinson, has still retained the name *rosa damascena*; but the damask rose is another species, widely different from the *centifolia*, as appears from the description given of it by Du Roi and Miller.

The petals are directed for medicinal use: they are of a pale red colour, and of a very fragrant odour, which to most people is extremely agreeable; and therefore this and most of the other roses are much used as nosegays. We may remark, however, that in some instances they have, under certain circumstances, produced alarming symptoms. The petals "impart their odorous matter to watery liquors, both by infusion and distillation. Six pounds of fresh roses impregnate, by distillation, a

gallon, or more, of water, strongly with their fine flavour. On distilling large quantities, there separates from the watery fluid a small portion of a fragrant butyraceous oil, which liquifies by heat, and appears yellow, but concretes in the cold into a white mass. An hundred pounds of the flowers, according to the experiments of Tachenius and Hoffman, afforded scarcely half an ounce of oil." The smell of the oil exactly resembles that of roses, and is therefore much used as a perfume. It possesses very little pungency, and has been highly recommended for its cordial and analeptic qualities. These flowers also contain a bitterish substance, which is extracted by water along with the odorous principle, and remains entire in the decoction after the latter has been separated by distillation or evaporation.

This fixed sapid matter of the petals manifests a purgative quality; and it is on this account that the flowers are received in the *Materia Medica*.

ROSA GALLICA. The systematic name of the red officinal rose. See *Rosa rubra*.

ROSA PALLIDA. See *Rosa damascena*.

ROSA RUBRA. Red officinal rose. The flowers of this species, *Rosa gallica* of Linnæus (*Rosa germinibus ovatis pedunculisque hispidis, caule petiolisque hispido aculeatis*. Class *Icosandria*. Order *Polyginia*), are valued for their adstringent qualities, which are most considerable before the petals expand; and therefore in this state they are chosen for medicinal use, and ordered by the pharmacopœias in different preparations, as those of a conserve, a honey, an infusion, and a syrup. The infusion of roses is a grateful cooling subadstringent, and useful in hæmoptysis, and other hæmorrhagic complaints; its efficacy, however, depends chiefly on the acid.

ROSA SYLVESTRIS. The dog rose, or *Rosa canina* of Linnæus. See *Cynobatus*.

ROSACEA. The term *gutta rosacea* is applied to little rosy-coloured spots upon the face and nose.

ROSE. A vulgar name for an erysipelas. See *Erysipelas*.

ROSE, DAMASK. See *Rosa damascena*.

ROSE, DOG. See *Cynobatus*.

ROSE, RED. See *Rosa rubra*.

ROSE ROOT. See *Rhodia*.

ROSE, WHITE. See *Rosa alba*.

ROSEA RADIX. See *Rhodia*.

ROSEBAY WILLOW HERB. This is the *Epilobium angustifolium* of Linnæus, common in our woods in moist situations. The young shoots are said to be little inferior to asparagus when boiled.

ROSEMARY. See *Rosmarinus*.

ROSEWOOD. See *Rhodium lignum*.

ROSEWORT. See *Rhodia*.

ROSIN. The same as resin. See *Resina*.

ROSMARINUS, (*Rosmarinus*, i. m. *quasi rosa*, *σμύρις*, because it smells like myrrh). *Rosmarinus hortenensis*. Common rosemary. *Rosmarinus officinalis* of Linnæus. Class *Diandria*. Order *Monogynia*. The leaves and tops of this plant have a fragrant aromatic smell, and a bitterish pungent taste. Rosemary is reckoned one of the most powerful of those plants which stimulate and corroborate the nervous system; it has therefore been recommended in various affections supposed to proceed from debility or defective excitement of the brain and nerves, as in certain head-achs, deafness, giddiness, and in some hysterical and dyspeptic symptoms.

ROSMARINUS HORTENSIS. See *Rosmarinus*.

ROSMARINUS OFFICINALIS. The systematic name of the common rosemary. See *Rosmarinus*.

ROSMARINUS SYLVESTRIS. The

plant which bears this name in the pharmacopœias is the *Ledum palustre* of Linnæus. It has a bitter subastringent taste, and was formerly used in Switzerland in the place of hops. Its medicinal use is confined to the continent, where it is occasionally given in the cure of whooping cough, sore throat, dysentery, and exanthematous diseases.

ROTANG CANE. See *Sanguis draconis*.

ROTŪLA, (*Rotula*, æ, f. dim. of *rota*, a wheel; so called from its shape). See *Patella*.

ROUNDLEAVED SORREL. See *Rumex scutatus*.

ROUND LIGAMENTS. *Ligamenta rotunda*. A bundle of vessels and fibres contained in a duplicature of the peritonæum, that proceed from the sides of the uterus, through the abdominal ring, and disappear in the pudenda.

RUBĒDO, (*Rubedo*, inis, f.). A diffused, but not spotted, redness in any part of the skin; such as that which arises from blushing.

RUBEFACIENTS, (*Rubefacientia*; from *rubefacio*, to make red). Those substances which, when applied a certain time to the skin, induce a redness without blistering.

RUBEŌLA, (*Rubeola*, æ, f. from *ruber*, red; from *rubto*, to become red). *Morbilli*. The measles. A genus of disease in the class *pyrexie* and order *exanthemata* of Cullen; known by synocha, hoarseness, dry cough, sneezing, drowsiness; about the fourth day, eruption of small red points, discernible by the touch, which after three days end in mealy desquamation. The blood after venæsection exhibits an inflammatory crust. In addition to the symptoms already related, it is remarkable, that the eyes and eye-lids always shew the presence of this disease, being somewhat inflamed and suffused with tears.

The synocha continues during the whole progress of the disease.

RUBĪA, (*Rubia*, æ, f. from *ruber*, red; so called from its red roots). *Erythrodanum*. *Radix rubra*. Madder. *Rubia tinctorum*; *foliis annuis*, *caule aculeato* of Linnæus. Class *Tetandria*. Order *Monogynia*. The roots of this plant have a bitterish, somewhat austere taste, and a slight smell, not of the agreeable kind. It was formerly considered as a deobstruent, detergent, and diuretic, but it is now very seldom used.

RUBĪA TINCTORUM. The systematic name of the madder plant. See *Rubia*.

RUBĪGO FERRI. *Chalybis rubigo preparata*. Rust of iron. This is a yellow oxyd of iron, and therefore termed *oxydum ferri luteum* in the chemical nomenclature. It possesses corroborant and stimulating properties, and is exhibited with success in leucorrhœa, ataxia, asthenia, chlorosis, pyrosis, dyspepsia, rachitis, &c.

RUBUS ARCTĪCUS. The systematic name of the shrubby strawberry. See *Bacca norlandicæ*.

RUBUS CÆSIUS. The systematic name of the dewberry plant, whose fruit resemble the blackberry in appearance and qualities.

RUBUS CHAMÆMŌRUS.^u The systematic name of the clo d'berry tree. See *Chamæmorus*.

RUBUS FRUCTICŌSUS. The systematic name of the common bramble, which affords blackberries. See *Blackberry*.

RUBUS IDÆUS, (*Rubus*, i, m. from *ruber*; so named from its red fruit). *Rubus idæus* of Linnæus. *Rubus foliis quinato-pinnatis ternatisque*, *caule aculeato*, *petiolis canaliculatis*. Class *Icosandria*. Order *Polygynia*. The raspberry. The fruit of this plant has a pleasant sweet taste, accompanied with a peculiar grateful fla-

your, on account of which it is chiefly valued. Its virtues consist in allaying heat and thirst, and promoting the natural excretions. A grateful syrup prepared from the juice is directed for officinal use by the London pharmacopœia.

RUCTUS. An eructation.

RUE. See *Ruta*.

RUE, GOATS. See *Galiga*.

RUMEX ACETŌSA. The systematic name of the common sorrel. See *Acetosa*.

RUMEX ACŪTUS. The systematic name of the sharp pointed wild-dock. See *Oxylapathum*.

RUMEX ALPĪNUS. The systematic name of the plant which affords the monks rhubarb. See *Rhabarbarum monachorum*.

RUMEX AQUATĪCUS. The water dock. See *Hydrolapathum*.

RUMEX CRISPUS. The systematic name of the crisp-leaved dock. See *Oxylapathum*.

RUMEX HYDROLAPATHUM. The systematic name of the water dock. See *Hydrolapathum*.

RUMEX PATIENTĪA. The systematic name of the garden patience. See *Rhabarbarum monachorum*.

RUMEX SANGUINEUS. The systematic name of the bloody dock, whose root has an austere and adstringent taste, and is sometimes given by the vulgar in the cure of dysentery.

RUMEX SCUTĀTUS. The systematic name of the French sorrel, sometimes called *acetosa rotundifolia* in the shops. Its virtues are similar to those of common sorrel. See *Acetosa*.

RUPTURA. See *Hernia*.

RUPTURE. See *Hernia*.

RUPTURE WORT. See *Herniaria*.

RUSCUS, (*Ruscus*, *i*, *m*. *a russo colore*; from the carnation colour of its berries). *Muscum arcticum*, *Dios*. Butchers broom. Knee holly. A

small evergreen shrub, the *Ruscus aculeatus*; *foliis supra floriferis nudis* of Linnæus. Class *Dioecia*. Order *Syngenesia*. It grows in woods and thickets in this country. The root, which is somewhat thick, knotty, and furnished with long fibres, externally brown, internally white, and of a bitterish taste, has been recommended as an aperient and diuretic in dropsies, urinary obstructions, and nephritic cases. It is seldom used in this country.

RUSCUS ACULĒĀTUS. The systematic name of butchers broom. See *Ruscus*.

RUSCUS HYPOGLOSSUM. The systematic name of the uvularia. See *Uvularia*.

RUSH-NUT. The root of the *Cyperus esculentus* of Linnæus, a native of Italy, where it is collected and eaten, being more delicately and pleasantly tasted than our chestnuts.

RUSH, SWEET. See *Juncus odoratus*.

RUSSIA ASHES. The impure potash, as imported from *Russia*.

RUTA, (*Ruta*, *a*, *f*. *cōtē*; from *cōtē*, to preserve, because it preserves health). Common rue. *Ruta graveolens* of Linnæus. *Ruta foliis decompositis, floribus lateralibus quadrifidis*. Class *Decandria*. Order *Monogynia*. Rue has a strong and grateful smell, and a bitter, hot, penetrating taste; the leaves are so acrid, that by much handling they have been known to irritate and inflame the skin; and the plant, in its natural or uncultivated state, is said to possess these sensible qualities still more powerfully. The imaginary quality of the rue, in resisting and expelling contagion, is now laid aside. It is doubtless a powerful stimulant, and is considered, like other medicines of the fetid kind, as possessing attenuating, deobstruent, and antispasmodic powers. In the London pharmacopœia

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it is directed in the form of an extract; and it is also an ingredient in the *pulvis e myrrha comp.*

RUTA GRAVEÖLENS. The systematic name of the common rue. See *Ruta*.

RUTA MURARIÄ. The plant to which this name is given in the pharmacopœias, is the *Asplenium ruta muraria* of Linnæus. It is supposed by some to possess specific virtues in the cure of ulcers of the lungs, and is exhibited in the form of decoction.

RUTIDOSIS. A corrugation and subsiding of the cornea of the eye. The species are, 1. *Rutidosi*, from a wound or puncture penetrating the cornea. 2. *Rutidosi*, from a fistula penetrating

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the cornea. 3. *Rutidosi*, from a deficiency of the aqueous humour, which happens from old age, fevers, great and continued evacuations, and in extreme dryness of the air. 4. *Rutidosi* of dead persons, when the aqueous humour exhales through the cornea, and no fresh humour is secreted; so that the cornea becomes obscure and collapsed: this is a most certain sign of death.

RUYSCHIANA TUNICA. The internal surface of the choroid membrane of the human eye, which this celebrated anatomist imagined was a distinct lamina from the external surface.

RYE, COMMON. See *Secale*.

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S. A. The contraction of *secundum artem*.

S, or ss. Immediately following any quantity, imports *semis* half.

SABADILLA. See *Cavadilla*.

SABINA, (*Sabina*, æ, f. named from the Sabines, whose priests used it in their religious ceremonies). Savine. *Juniperus sabina* of Linnæus. *Juniperus foliis oppositis erectis decurrentibus, oppositionibus pyxidatis.* Class *Dioecia*. Order *Monadelphia*. The leaves and tops of this plant have a moderately strong smell of the disagreeable kind, and a hot, bitterish, acrid taste; it is a powerful and active medicine, and has been long reputed the most efficacious in the materia medica, for producing a determination to the uterus, and thereby proving emmenagogue; it heats

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and stimulates the whole system very considerably, and is said to promote the fluid secretions. Externally savine is recommended as an escharotic to foul ulcers, syphilitic warts, &c. A strong decoction of the plant in lard forms an useful ointment to keep up a constant discharge from blisters, &c.

SABULOUS. Gritty, sandy. A term often applied to the calcareous matter in urine.

SACCHARI ACIDUM. Acid of sugar. If one part of sugar be distilled with three parts of nitric acid, till nitrous gas ceases to be developed, and then re-distilled with three parts of the same acid, a white crystallized salt is found in the liquid residue, which is the acid of sugar.

SACCHARUM, (*Saccharum*, i, n.

σακχαρον, from *sacchar*, Arab.). Sugar. The cane from which the sugar is obtained in the West and East Indies, is the *Arundo saccharifera* of Linnæus. Class *Triandria*. Order *Digynia*. It is prepared from the expressed juice boiled with the addition of quick lime or common vegetable alkali. It may be extracted also from a number of plants, as the maple, birch, wheat, corn, beat-root, skirret, parsnips, and dried grapes, &c. by digesting in alcohol. The alcohol dissolves the sugar, and leaves the extractive matter untouched, which falls to the bottom. It may be taken into the stomach in very large quantities, without producing any bad consequences, although proofs are not wanting of its mischievous effects, by relaxing the stomach, and thus inducing disease. It is much used in pharmacy, as it forms the basis of syrups, lozenges, and other preparations. It is very useful as a medicine to favour the solution or suspension of resins, oils, &c. in water, and is given as a purgative for infants. Sugar is every where the basis of that which is called sweetness. Its presence is previously necessary in order to the taking place of vinous fermentation. Its extraction from plants which afford it in the greatest abundance, and its refinement for the common uses of life, in a pure and separate state, are among the most important of the chemical manufactures. The sugar cane, however, yields sugar, in a proportion so much larger than that in which the same matter is to be obtained from any other, that only this cane has been as yet cultivated expressly for the purpose of affording sugar to the extraction of the manufacturer. This cane has been from the most ancient times known in Asia. Of its produce some small proportion appears to have been, during the greatness of ancient Rome, imported by circu-

tous channels, into Europe. In the progress of the subsequent ages, the plant itself became known in Europe, and was introduced into cultivation. Before the data of the discovery of America, it was no uncommon cultivation in Spain. The Spaniards carried out plants of the sugar cane to America; but the plant had been, even before, propagated in this hemisphere. They had not been long seated in their new colonial seats, till they made sugar a principal article in their manufacture and agriculture. It has continued ever since to be the principal produce of the European colonial territories in the West India isles. It is produced also in very large quantities in the East. The Anglo-Americans extract it from the maple-tree. The cane is a produce of all the South Sea isles of late discovery. In Prussia, and other parts of Germany, it has begun to be extracted from a particular sort of beet. The following is the mode of its manufacture in the West Indies: The plants are cultivated in rows, on fields enriched by such manures as can most easily be procured, and tilled with the plough. They are annually cut. The cuttings are carried to the mill. They are cut into short pieces, and arranged in small bundles. The mill is wrought by water, wind, or cattle. The parts which act on the canes are upright cylinders. Between these the canes are inserted, compressed, squeezed till all their juice is obtained from them, and are themselves, sometimes, even reduced to powder. One of these mills of the best construction, bruises canes to such a quantity as to afford, in one day, 10,000 gallons of juice, when wrought with only ten mules. The expressed juice is received into a leaden bed. It is thence conveyed into a vessel called the receiver. The juice is found to consist of eight parts of pure water,

one part of sugar, one part of oil and gummy mucilage. From the greener parts of the canes there is apt to be at times derived, an acid juice, which tends to bring the whole unseasonably into a state of acid fermentation. Fragments of the ligneous part of the cane, some portions of mud or dirt which unavoidably remain on the canes, and a blackish substance called the crust, which coated the canes at the joints, are also apt to enter into contaminating mixture with the juice. From the receiver the juice is conducted along a wooden gutter lined with lead, to the boiling house. In the boiling house it is received into copper pans or cauldrons, which have the name of clarifiers. Of these clarifiers the number and the capacity must be in proportion to the quantity of canes, and the extent of the sugar plantation on which the work is carried on. Each clarifier has a syphon or cock, by which the liquor is to be drawn off. Each hangs over a separate fire; and this fire must be so confined, that by the drawing of an iron slider fitted to the chimney, the fire may be at any time put out. In the progress of the operations, the stream of juice from the receiver fills the clarifier with fresh liquor. Lime in powder is added in order to take up the oxalic acid, and the carbonaceous matters which are mingled with the juice. The lime also in the new salts, into the composition of which it now enters, adds itself to the sugar, as a part of that which is to be obtained from the process. The lime is to be put in in the proportion of somewhat less than a pint of lime to every hundred gallons of liquor. When it is in too great quantities, however, it is apt to destroy a part of the pure saccharine matter. Some persons employ alkaline ashes, as preferable to lime, for the purpose of extracting the extraneous matter;

but it is highly probable, that lime judiciously used might answer better than any other substance whatsoever. The liquor is now to be heated almost to ebullition. The heat dissolves the mechanical union, and thus favors the chemical changes, in its different parts. When the proper heat appears, from a rising scum on the surface of the liquor, to have been produced, the fire is then extinguished by the application of the damper. In this state of the liquor, the greater part of the impurities, being different in specific gravity from the pure saccharine solution, and being also of such a nature as to yield more readily to the chemical action of heat, are brought up to the surface in a scum. After this scum has been sufficiently formed on the cooling liquor, this liquor is carefully drawn off, either by a syphon, which raises a pure stream through the scum, or by a cock drawing the liquor at the bottom from under the scum. The scum in either case sinks down unbroken, as the liquor flows; and is now, by cooling, of such tenacity, as not to send to any intermixture with the liquor. The liquor drawn, after this purification, from the boiler, is received into a gutter or channel, by which it is conveyed to the grand copper, or evaporating boiler. If made from good canes, and properly clarified, it will now appear almost transparent. In this copper, the liquor is heated to actual ebullition. The scum raised to the surface by the boiling is skimmed off as it rises. The ebullition is continued till there be a considerable diminution in the quantity of the liquor. The liquor now appears nearly of the colour of Madeira wine. It is at last transferred into a second and smaller copper. An addition of lime-water is here made, both to dilute the thickening liquor, to detach superabundant acid, and to favour the forma-

tion of the sugar. If the liquor be now in its proper state, the scum rises in large bubbles, with very little discoloration. The skimming and the evaporation together produce a considerable diminution in the quantity of the liquor. It is then transferred into another smaller boiler. In this last boiler, the evaporation is renewed, and continued till the liquor is brought to that degree of thickness at which it appears fit to be finally cooled. In the cooler, a shallow wooden vessel of considerable length and wideness, commonly of such a size as to contain a hoghead of sugar; the sugar, as it cools, granulates, or runs into an imperfect crystallization, by which it is separated from the melasses, a mixed saccharine matter too impure to be capable even of this imperfect crystallization. To determine whether the liquor be fit to be taken from the last boiler to be finally cooled, it is necessary to take out a portion from the boiler, and try separately, whether it does not separate into granulated sugar and melasses. From the cooler the sugar is removed to the curing house. This is a spacious airy building. It is provided with a capacious cistern for the reception of melasses, and over the cistern is erected a frame of strong joist-work, unfilled and uncovered. Empty hogheads, open at the head, bored at the bottom with a few holes, and having a stalk of plantain leaf thrust through each of the holes, while it rises at the same time through the inside of the hoghead, are disposed upon the frames. The mass of saccharine matter from the coolers is put into these hogheads. The melasses drip into the cistern through the spongy plantain stalks in the holes. Within the space of three weeks the melasses are sufficiently drained off, and the sugar remains dry. By this process it is at last brought into the state of what is cal-

led muscovado or raw sugar. This is the general process in the British West Indies. In this state our West India sugar is imported into Britain. The formation of loaves of white sugar is a subsequent process. In the French West India Isles it has long been customary to perform the last part of this train of processes in a manner somewhat different, and which affords the sugar in a state of greater purity. This preparation, taking the sugar from the cooler, then puts it, not into hogheads with holes in the bottom as above, but into conical pots, each of which has at its bottom a hole half an inch in diameter, that is in the commencement of the process, stopped with a plug. After remaining some time in the pot, the sugar becomes perfectly cool and fixed. The sugar is then removed out of the hole; the pot is placed over a large jar, and the melasses are suffered to drip away from it. After as much of the melasses as will easily run off has been thus drained away, the surface of the sugar in the jar is covered with a stratum of fine clay, and water is poured upon the clay. The water oozing gently through the pores of the clay, pervades the whole mass of sugar, redissolves the melasses still remaining in it, with some parts of the sugar itself, and carrying these off by the holes in the bottom of the pot, renders that which remains the solution much purer than the muscovado sugar made in the English way. The sugar prepared in this manner is called clayed sugar. It is sold for a higher price in the European markets than the muscovado sugar; but there is a loss of sugar in the process by claying, which deters the British planters from adopting this practice so generally as do the French.

The raw sugars are still contaminated and debased by a mixture of acid, carbonaceous matter, oil, and

coloring resin. To free them from these is the business of the European sugar bakers. A new solution; clarification with alkaline substances fitted to attract away the oil, acid, and other contaminating matters; slow evaporation; and a final cooling in suitable moulds; are the processes which at last produce loaves of white sugar.

The melasses being nothing else but a very impure refuse of the sugar from which they drip, are susceptible of being employed in a new ebullition, by which a second quantity of sugar may be obtained from them. The remainder of the melasses is employed to yield rum by distillation.

In rum, alcohol is mixed with oil, water, oxalic acid, and a mixture of empyreumatic matter. The French prepare, from the mixture of melasses with water, a species of wine of good quality. In its preparation, the solution is brought into fermentation, then passed through strainers to purify it, then put in casks; after clearing itself in these, transferred into others, in which it is to be preserved for use. The ratio of these processes is extremely beautiful; they are all directed to purify the sugar from contaminating mixtures, and to reduce it into that state of dryness or crystallization, in which it is susceptible of being the most conveniently preserved for agreeable use. The heat in general acts both mechanically to effect a sufficient dissolution of the aggregation of the parts of the cane juice, and chemically, to produce in it new combinations into which caloric must enter as an ingredient. The first gentle heat is intended chiefly to operate with the mechanical influence, raising to the surface impurities which are more easily removed by skimming, than by any other means; a gen-

tle, not a violent heat, is in this instance employed, because a violent heat would produce empyreumatic salts, the production of which is to be carefully avoided. A boiling heat is, in the continuation of the processes, made use of, because, after the first impurities, have been skimmed off, contaminating empyreumatic salts are less readily formed, because a boiling heat is necessary to effect a complete development of the saccharine matter, and because the gradual concentration of the sugar is, by such a heat, to be best accomplished. Lime is employed, because it has a stronger affinity than sugar with all the contaminating matters, and particularly because it attracts into a neutral combination that excess of oxalic acid which is apt to exist in the saccharine solution. Skimming removes the new salts which the most easily assume a solid form. The dripping carries away a mixture of water, oil, earth, sugar, from the crystallized sugar: for, in all our crystallizations we can never perform the process in the great way, with such nicety as to preserve it free from an equality of proportions, that must necessarily occasion a residue. Repeated solution, clarification, evaporation, are requisite to produce pure white sugar from the brown and raw sugars; because the complete purification of this matter from acid and coloring matter, is an operation of great difficulty, and not to be finally completed without processes which are longer than can be conveniently performed, at the first, upon the sugar plantation. From vegetables of European growth, sugar is not to be easily obtained, unless the process of germination be first produced in them; or unless they have been penetrated by intense frost. Germination, or thorough freezing develops sugar into all vegetables in which its

principles of hydrogen and carbon, with a small proportion of oxygen, exist in any considerable plenty. It is not improbable, but that if penetration by a freezing cold could be commanded at pleasure, with sufficient cheapness, it would enable us to obtain saccharine matter in a large proportion, from a variety of substances, from which even germination does not yield a sufficient quantity. In the sugar beet, and some other European vegetables, sugar is naturally formed by the functions of vegetation to perfect combination. From these the sugar is obtained by rasping down the vegetable, extracting by water its saccharine juice, evaporating the water charged with the juice to the consistency of syrup, clarifying, purifying, and crystalizing it, just in the same manner as sugar from the sugar cane.

SACCHARUM CANADENSE. The sugar obtained from a species of maple-tree, the *Acer pseudo-platanus* of Linnaeus, in Canada, and imported into some parts of Europe. It is supposed to be efficacious in disorders of the breast. Every part of the plant contains a sweet saccharine juice. The trunk, root, or branches, wounded early in the spring, bleed a large quantity of clear liquor, which in its dilute state tastes somewhat sweetish, and being inspissated, yields the concrete sugar, with a syrupy matter resembling melasses. The unboiled juice has been drank as an antiscorbutic. The Canada sugar is much esteemed in France in disorders of the breast.

SACCHĀRUM NON PURIFICATUM. Brown sugar. It is often exhibited as a laxative in glysters, and internally, to children.

SACCHĀRUM OFFICINĀRUM. The systematic name of the sugar cane. See *Saccharum*.

SACCHĀRUM PURIFICĀTUM.

Refined or loaf sugar. See *Saccharum*.

SACCHĀRUM SATURNI. See *Cerussa acetata*.

SACCHO-LACTIC ACID. The sugar of milk in combination with oxygen.

SACCHOLATS, (*Saccholas, tis, m.*). Salts formed by the combination of the saccholactic acid with different bases, as saccholat of iron, saccholat of ammoniac, &c. &c.

SACCUS LACHRYMĀLIS, (*Saccus, i, m.*). The lachrymal sac is situated in the internal canthus of the eye, behind the lachymal caruncle, in a cavity formed by the *os unguis*. It receives the tears from the puncta lachrymalia, and conveys them into the ductus lachrymalis.

SACRO-LUMBĀLIS. A long muscle, thicker and broader below than above, and extending from the *os sacrum* to the lower part of the neck, under the *ferrati posici*, *rhomboides*, *trapezius*, and *latissimus dorsi*. It arises in common with the *longissimus dorsi*, tendinous without, and fleshy within, from the posterior part of the *os sacrum*; from the posterior edge of the spine of the ilium; from all the spinous processes, and from near the roots of the transverse processes of the lumbar vertebræ. At the bottom of the back it separates from the *longissimus dorsi*, with which it had before formed, as it were, only one muscle, and ascending obliquely outwards; gradually diminishes in thickness, and terminates above in a very narrow point. From the place where it quits the *longissimus dorsi*, to that of its termination, we find it fleshy at its posterior, and tendinous at its anterior edge. This tendinous side sends off as many long and thin tendons as there are ribs. The lowermost of these tendons are broader, thicker, and shorter than those above; they are inserted into

the inferior edge of each rib, where it begins to be curved forwards towards the sternum, excepting only the uppermost and last tendon, which ends in the posterior and inferior part of the transverse process of the last vertebra of the neck. From the upper part of the five, six, seven, eight, nine, ten, or eleven lower ribs, (for the number, though most commonly seven or eight, varies in different subjects), arise as many thin bundles of fleshy fibres, which after a very short progress, terminate in the inner side of this muscle, and have been named by Steno, *musculi ad sacro lumbalem accessorii*. Besides these, we find the muscle sending off a fleshy slip from its upper part, which is inserted into the posterior and inferior part of the transverse processes of the five inferior vertebrae of the neck, by as many distinct tendons. This is generally described as a distinct muscle. Diemerbroeck, and Douglas and Albinus after him, call it *cervicalis descendens*. Winslow names it *transversalis collateralis colli*. Morgagni considers it as an appendage to the sacro lumbalis. The uses of this muscle are to assist in erecting the trunk of the body, in turning it upon its axis or to one side, and in drawing the ribs downwards. By means of its upper slip, it serves to turn the neck obliquely backwards, or to one side.

SACRUM, (*Sacrum*, *i*, *n*. so called from *sacer*, sacred). *Os sacrum*. *Os basilare*. The os sacrum derives its name from its being offered in sacrifice by the ancients, or perhaps from its supporting the organs of generation, which they considered as sacred. In young subjects it is composed of five or six pieces, united by cartilage; but in more advanced age it becomes one bone, in which, however, we may still easily distinguish the marks of the former separation.

Its shape has sometimes been compared to an irregular triangle; and sometimes, and perhaps more properly, to a pyramid, flattened before and behind, with its basis placed towards the lumbar vertebrae, and its point terminating in the coccyx. We find it convex behind, and slightly concave before, with its inferior portion bent a little forwards. Its anterior surface is smooth, and affords four, and sometimes five transverse lines, of a colour different from the rest of the bone. These are the remains of the intermediate cartilages by which its several pieces were united in infancy. Its posterior convex surface has several prominences, the most remarkable of which are its spinous processes; these are usually three in number, and gradually become shorter, so that the third is not so long as the second, nor the second as the first. This arrangement enables us to sit with ease. Its transverse processes are formed into one oblong process, which becomes gradually smaller as it descends. At the superior part of the bone we observe two oblique processes, of a cylindrical shape, and somewhat concave, which are articulated with the last of the lumbar vertebrae. At the base of each of these oblique processes is a notch, which, with such another in the vertebrae above it, forms a passage for the twenty-fourth spinal nerve. In viewing this bone, either before or behind, we observe four, and sometimes five holes on each side, situate at each extremity of the transverse lines we described as marking the divisions of the bone. Of these holes, the anterior ones, and of these again, the uppermost, are the largest, and afford a passage to the nerves. The posterior holes are smaller, covered with membranes, and destined for the same purpose as the former. Sometimes at the bot-

tom of the bone there is only a notch, and sometimes there is a hole common to it and the os coccygis. The cavity between the body of this bone and its processes, for the lodgment of the spinal marrow, is triangular, and becomes smaller as it descends, till at length it terminates obliquely on each side at the lower part of the bone. Below the third division of the bone, however, the cavity is no longer completely bony, as in the rest of the spine, but is defended posteriorly only by a very strong membrane; hence a wound in this part may be attended with the most dangerous consequences. This bone is articulated above, with the last lumbar vertebra: laterally, it is firmly united, by a broad irregular surface, to the ossa innominata, or hip bone: and below it is joined to the os coccygis. In women the os sacrum is usually shorter, broader, and more curved, than in men, by which means the cavity of the pelvis is more enlarged.

SAFFLOWER. See *Carthamus*.

SAFFRON. See *Crocus*.

SAFFRON, BASTARD. The safflower is sometimes so called. See *Carthamus*.

SAFFRON, MEADOW. See *Colchicum*.

SAGAPENUM, (*Sagapenum*, i, n. σαγαπενου). The name is derived from some eastern dialect). *Serapinum*. It is conjectured that this concrete gummi-resinous juice is the production of an oriental umbelliferous plant. Sagapenum is brought from Persia and Alexandria in large masses, externally yellowish, internally paler, and of an horny clearness. Its taste is hot and biting, its smell of the alliaceous and fetid kind, and its virtues are similar to those which have been ascribed to assafoetida, but weaker, and consequently it is less powerful in its effects.

SAGE. See *Saliva*.

SAGE OF BETHLEHEM. See *Pulmonaria*.

SAGE OF JERUSALEM. See *Pulmonaria maculata*.

SAGE OF VIRTUE. See *Salvia hortenensis minor*.

SAGITTAL SUTURE, (*Sutura sagittalis*, from *sagitta*, an arrow). The suture which unites the two parietal bones. It has been named *sagittal*, from its lying between the coronal and lambdoidal sutures, as an arrow betwixt the string and the bow.

SAGITTARIA SAGITTIFOLIA. The systematic name of the common arrow-head, whose roots are esculent but not very nutritious.

SAGO. *Sagus*. *Sagu*. A dry fecula, obtained from the pith of a species of palm, the *Cycas circualis* of Linnæus, in the islands of Java, Molucca, and the Philippines. Sago becomes soft and transparent by boiling in water, and forms a light and agreeable liquid, much recommended in febrile, phthical, and calculous disorders, &c.

SAGU. See *Sago*.

SAINT ANTONY'S FIRE. See *Erysipelas*.

SAINT IGNATIUS'S BEAN. See *Faba indica*.

SAINT JAMES'S WORT. The common ragwort is sometimes so called. See *Jacobæa*.

SAINT JOHN'S WORT. See *Hypericum*.

SAINT VITUS'S DANCE. See *Chorea sancti Viti*.

SAL ABSYNTHII. Salt of wormwood. This salt is precisely the same as all the carbonats of potash. See *Kali preparatum*.

SAL ACETOCELLÆ. The salt of wood sorrel, usually vended for salt of lemons, is an acidulated oxylat of potash and called in the new chemical nomenclature *oxylas potassæ acidulus*.

SAL ALKALINUS FIXUS. See *Alkali, fixed*.

SAL ALKALINUS VOLATILIS. See *Ammoniac*.

SAL AMMONIAC. A saline concrete formed by the combination of the muriatic acid with ammoniac. This salt is found in places adjacent to volcanoes. It appears in the form of an efflorescence, or groups of needles, separate or compacted together, generally of a yellow or red colour, and mixed with arsenic and orpiment; but no use is made of that which is procured in this way. The sal ammoniac employed in the arts is prepared by a process we shall soon describe. The real origin of this factitious salt was unknown, till the beginning of the present century, though it had been made use of, in many of the arts, from time immemorial. M. Lemere, consul at Cairo, in a letter to the royal academy of Paris, dated 24th June 1719, first informed us how sal ammoniac is obtained from the foot of camel's dung, which is burnt at Cairo instead of wood. This foot is put into large round bottles, a foot and a half in diameter, and terminating in a neck two inches long. The bottles are filled up with this matter to within four inches of the neck. Each bottle holds about forty pounds of foot, and affords nearly six pounds of salt. The vessels are put into a furnace in the form of an oven, so that only the necks appear above. A fire of camel's dung is kindled beneath it, and continued for three days and three nights. On the second and the third day the salt is sublimated. The bottles are then broken, and the salt is taken out in cakes. These cakes, which are sent us just as they have been taken out of the bottles in Egypt, are convex, and unequal on the one side; on the middle of this side they exhibit each a tubercle, corresponding to the neck of the bottle in which it was prepared. The lower side is concave, and both are footy. Pomet makes mention of a sal ammoniac procured by the way

of Holland, in truncated cakes resembling sugar loaves. Geoffroy, who was the first in France that discovered from what materials this salt is obtained, and who even guessed successfully at the process employed at Cairo for preparing it; found out that this second species of sal ammoniac comes from the Indies, where it is prepared in much greater quantities than in Egypt, by the same process of sublimation, but in a different form. These Indian loaves consist of fourteen or fifteen pounds each, are hollow at the bottom, and formed of various layers. The cone is truncated, because its extremity being impure is always broken off. M. Baume has established, in the neighbourhood of Paris, a manufactory of ammoniacal salt, in which this salt is composed, not extracted as in Egypt. M. Baume's salt is likewise purer than the Egyptian. In this country sal ammoniac is likewise prepared in great quantities. The volatile alkali is obtained from foot, bones, and other substances known to contain it. To this the vitriolic acid is added, and this vitriolic ammoniac is decomposed by common salt by a double affinity. The liquor obtained in consequence of this decomposition contains sulphate of soda and sal ammoniac. The first is crystallized, and the second sublimated so as to form cakes, which are then exposed to sale. Lord Dundonald, by an ingenious process, extracted ammoniac from pit-coal. Ammoniacal muriate has a poignant, acrid, and urinous taste. Its crystals are in the form of long hexahedral pyramids, a number of them are sometimes united together in an acute angular direction, so as to exhibit the form of feathers. M. Rome de-Lille thinks the crystals of ammoniacal muriate to be octohædrons bundled together. This salt is sometimes, but not frequently, found in cubic

crystals in the middle of the concave hollow part of the sublimated cakes. This salt possesses one pretty singular physical property, a kind of ductility or elasticity, which causes it to yield under the hammer, or even the fingers, and makes it difficult to reduce it to a powder. Ammoniacal muriate is totally volatile, but a very strong fire is requisite to sublime it. This method is applied when it is wanted very pure, and entirely free of water; it is reduced to powder, put into a matras, and the vessel is then immersed half way into a sand bath, where it is gradually heated for several hours. By this means we obtain a mass consisting of striated needles, joined to each other longitudinally; when this operation is properly conducted, very regular cubic crystals are often found in the midst of the loaves. But if too strong a heat has been applied, the produce is only a shapeless, thick, and semi-transparent mass, with the appearance of having been melted. M. Baumé has observed, that by repeating sublimation of this salt, a small quantity both of ammoniac and muriatic acid is at length disengaged, so that according to that chemist ammoniacal muriate might perhaps be decomposed by continued sublimation. This fact requires confirmation. Ammoniacal muriate is liable to no alteration from air; it may be kept for a long time without suffering any change; it dissolves very readily in water. Six parts of cold water are sufficient to dissolve one of the salt. A considerable cold is produced as the solution takes place, and this cold is still keener when the salt is mixed with ice. This artificial cold is happily applied to produce several phenomena which could not otherwise take place, such as the congelation of water on certain occasions, the crystallization of certain salts, the fixation and preservation of

certain liquids, naturally very subject to evaporation, &c.

SAL AMMŌNIACUM ACETŌSUM. The spirit of myndererus is occasionally so called. See *Aqua ammonia acetata*.

SAL AMMŌNIACUM LIQUIDUM. The liquid acetite of ammoniac is sometimes so termed. See *Aqua ammonia acetata*.

SAL AMMŌNIACUM MARTIALE. See *Ferrum ammoniacale*.

SAL AMMŌNIACUM SECRĒTUM, GLAUBĒRI. See *Sulphas ammoniacæ*.

SAL AMMŌNIACUM TARTARĒUM. See *Tartaris ammoniacæ*.

SAL AMMŌNIACUM VEGETABILE. The liquid acetite of ammoniac. See *Aqua ammonia acetata*.

SAL AMMŌNIACUS FIXUS. The muriate of lime was formerly so termed. See *Lime* and *Murias calcis*.

SAL AMMŌNIACUS NITRŌSUS. See *Nitras ammoniacæ*.

SALCATHARTĪCUSAMĀRUS. See *Magnesia vitriolata*.

SAL CATHARTĪCUS ANGLICĀNUS. See *Magnesia vitriolata*.

SAL CATHARTĪCUS GLAUBĒRI. See *Natron vitriolatum*.

SAL COMMŪNIS. A muriat of soda. See *Murias sodæ*.

SAL CORNU CERVI SUCCO CITRI SATURĀTUM. Similar in virtues to the kali citratum. See *Kali citratum*.

SAL CORNU CERVI VOLATĪLE. See *Ammonia preparata*.

SAL CULINĀRIS. See *Murias sodæ*.

SAL DE DUOBUS. The sulphat of potash was so called. See *Kali vitriolatum*.

SAL DIURETĪCUM VEGETABĪLE CRYSTALLIZĀTUM. This salt is merely an acetite of soda, and possesses antiscrophulous and aperient virtues.

SAL DIURETĪCUS. See *Kali acetatum*.

SAL DIGESTIVUS SYLVII. A natural salt, formed of muriatic acid and potash. See *Murias potassæ*.

SAL EPSÖMENSIS. See *Magnesia vitriolata*.

SAL ESSENTIALIS TARTARI. See *Tartar, acid of*.

SAL FEBRIFUGUS SYLVII. See *Murias potassæ*.

SAL FONTIUM. See *Murias sodæ*.

SAL FOSSILIS. See *Murias sodæ*.

SAL GEMINÆ. See *Murias sodæ*.

SAL HERBARUM. This salt is a carbonate of potash. See *Kali preparatum*.

SAL MARINUS. See *Murias sodæ*.

SAL MARTIS. See *Ferrum vitriolatum*.

SAL MARTIS MURIATICUM SUBLIMATUM. See *Murias ferri ammoniacalis*.

SAL MICROCOSMICUS. The compound saline matter obtained by inspissating human urine.

SAL MIRABILIS GLAUBERI. See *Natron vitriolatum*.

SAL MURIATICUS. See *Murias sodæ*.

SAL PLANTARUM. This salt is a carbonate of potash. See *Kali preparatum*.

SAL POLYCHRESTUS. See *Kali vitriolatum*.

SAL POLYCHRESTUS GLASERI. A combination of sulphuric acid with potash. See *Kali vitriolatum*.

SAL POLYCHRESTUS SEIGNETTI. See *Tartris sodæ* and *Seignet salt*.

SAL PRUNELLÆ. See *Nitras potassæ fusus*.

SAL RUPELLENSIS. See *Tartris sodæ*.

SAL SATURNI. See *Cerussa acetata*.

SAL SEDATIVUS. See *Boracic acid*.

SAL SEDATIVUS HOMBERGII. See *Boracic acid*.

SAL SEDLICENSIS. The same as Epsom salt. See *Magnesia vitriolata*.

SAL SEIDCHÜLZENSIS. A sul-

phate of magnesia. See *Magnesia vitriolata*.

SAL SEIGNETTI. See *Tartris sodæ* and *Seignet salt*.

SAL SUCCINI. The succinic acid. See *Succinic acid*.

SAL TARTARI. Salt of tartar. See *Carbonas potassæ*.

SAL THERMARUM CAROLINARUM. A union of sulphuric acid with magnesia. See *Magnesia vitriolata*.

SAL VEGETABILIS. See *Kali tartarificatum*.

SAL-VOLATILE. See *Spiritus ammoniæ compositus* and *Ammonia preparata*.

SAL VOLATILIS SALIS AMMONIACI. See *Ammonia preparata*.

SALEP. *Salep. Salab.* The root of the *Orchis morio* of Linnæus. *Orchis bulbis indivisis, nectarii labio quadrilobo crenulato, cornu obtuso, petalis dorsilibus reflexis.* Class *Gynandria*. Order *Diandria*. This farinaceous powder is imported from Turkey. It may be obtained from several other species of the same genus of plants. It is an insipid substance, of which a small quantity, by a proper management, converts a large portion of water into a jelly, the nutritive powers of which have been greatly overrated. Salep forms a considerable part of the diet of the inhabitants of Turkey, Persia, and Syria. The method of preparing the salep is as follows: The new root is to be washed in water, and the fine brown skin which covers it is to be separated by means of a small brush, or by dipping the root in warm water, and rubbing it with a coarse linen cloth. The roots, thus cleaned, are to be spread on a tin plate, and placed in an oven, heated to the usual degree, where they are to remain six or ten minutes. In this time they will have lost their milky whiteness, and acquired a transparency like horn, without any

diminution of bulk. Being arrived at this state, they are to be removed in order to dry and harden in the air, which will require several days to effect; or they may be dried in a few hours, by using a very gentle heat. Salep, thus prepared, contains a great quantity of vegetable aliment; as a wholesome nourishment it is much superior to rice; and has the singular property of concealing the taste of salt water. Hence, to prevent the dreadful calamity of famine at sea, it has been proposed, that the powder of it should constitute part of the provisions of every ship's company. With regard to its medical properties, it may be observed, that its restorative, mucilaginous, and demulcent qualities, render it of considerable use in various diseases, when employed as aliment, particularly in sea-scurvy, diarrhæa, dysentery, symptomatic fever, arising from the absorption of pus, and the stone or gravel.

SALICORNIA EUROPÆA. The systematic name of the jointed glasswort, which is gathered by the country people and sold for samphire. It forms a good pickle with vinegar, and is little inferior to the samphire.

SALINE SUBSTANCES. The number of saline substances is very considerable; and they possess peculiar characters, by which they are distinguished from other substances. These characters are founded on certain properties, which it must be confessed, are not accurately distinctive of their true nature. By this means salts have been extended too much, their general properties being common to a great number of bodies. Taste and solubility in water, which have always been given as the characters of saline substances, are properties of many bodies which are not saline: as, for example, all mucilages, whether of the vegetable or animal kingdoms;

and, on the contrary, these two properties are scarcely perceptible in several saline substances. Naturalists have not succeeded better in their definition of salts. The crystalline form and transparency which several authors have assumed as characteristic of saline substances, belong likewise to many other matters, more especially earths, and are, besides, wanting in some of the salts.

It was, therefore, with great reason that Macquer asserted, that the limit between saline matters and such as are not saline is unknown. All such substance, however, as possess several of the four following properties are considered as saline: 1. A strong tendency to combination, or a very strong affinity of composition; 2. A greater or lesser degree of sapidity; 3. A greater or lesser degree of solubility in water; 4. Perfect incombustibility.

Before each of these properties is examined singly, it must be observed, that the saline quality of any given body is greater, the more of these properties it possesses, and the greater their intensity. It must not, however, be concluded, that substances are not of a saline nature because these properties are scarcely evident in them; as it may often happen, that two species, which possess them in a very small degree, exhibit them still less when they come to be united; and there are likewise instances of the contrary effect taking place. But in these cases, a more varied application of the chemical analysis, or synthesis, may serve to exhibit the saline properties more evidently.

1. *Concerning the tendency to combination, as a character of saline substances.* The greater number of salts have a tendency to combine with many different substances. It is among the salts that the most active

bodies, with respect to combination, are found. For this reason the chemists have at all times made great use of them, and have dignified certain salts with the names of solvents and menstua. This tendency to combination differs greatly in the several species of salts. Some possess it in so intense a degree, that they corrode, dissolve, or destroy every thing they touch, and that even the vitrifiable and quartzose stones cannot withstand their action. Such are several of the pure salts called acids and alkalis. Others, though they do not so strongly tend to combination, nevertheless unite with great readiness to several substances. And, lastly, there are salts which do not possess this property in any sensible degree, as is often observable in compound salts, whose principles have a strong affinity with each other, and are mutually saturated. It is not to be wondered that salts are seldom found in nature in a state of purity, when we attend to the effects of this property, of combining with various substances.

2. *Of taste, as a character of saline substances.* Sapidity has hitherto been considered as being so far peculiar to saline substances, that many philosophers have concluded these bodies to possess it exclusively, and that they are the principle of sapidity in all other bodies. Though this opinion is not yet clearly proved, because there are many bodies not at all saline, as, for example, the metals, which have a very sensible taste. But though instances may be urged of certain saline matters which have scarcely any taste, yet it cannot be denied, that the most eminently sapid bodies belong to this class: for which reason we have assumed this property as one of the leading characters of salts. The sapidity of saline matters varies, like their other properties, in the different species. In order to determine

its origin, and more especially the cause of the differences of its energy, it will be necessary to shew in what it consists. By sapidity is commonly understood an impression made on the organs of taste, by which we determine the good or bad qualities of any substance with regard to salubrity; it is therefore a peculiar action of the sapid body on the nerves of the tongue and palate of animals. But it may be asked, whether this property of bodies enables them to act sensibly on the nerves of the tongue; and whether it may not be equally exerted on all those parts of an animal which contain nerves? They who are acquainted with the animal economy cannot deny, that the action which excites the sensation of taste must produce its effects on any nerves, wheresoever situated; and that it must be proportioned to the sensibility of the subject, and the organs to which it is applied.

In this way of considering sapidity, we are naturally led to conclude, 1st, That its impression will be scarcely sensible on such parts of bodies as contain few nerves, or whose nerves do not possess a considerable degree of sensibility on account of their being covered, as on the skin, where they are defended by the reticular membrane and epidermis. It follows, therefore, that the taste of any salt must be very strong and active before it can act sensibly upon the skin. 2d, That the impression will be made with much more efficacy on these organs whose nerves are large, numerous, and of a form proper to admit an extended contact, or more violent agitation, and whose epidermis is very thin, so as to leave the nerves almost uncovered.

The superior part of the tongue, the palate, and the whole internal surface of the mouth, are capable of perceiving the taste of a great number of bodies, which make no impression

on the less sensible organs of the skin. 3d, That bodies which have no taste and no action when applied to the skin, may nevertheless produce a considerable effect on parts more delicately organized, or whose nerves possess a greater degree of sensibility, as is the case of the stomach and intestines. These considerations being admitted, we may distinguish three classes of tastes, and of lapid bodies, to which all saline matters may be referred. The first class comprehends salts of the strongest taste, capable of acting on the skin. The impression of this taste is so strong as to cause very acute pain; and if its action be continued for a certain time, the organization of the skin is entirely destroyed. This taste is causticity; and the salts which possess it are called caustic. The second class comprehends those whose sapidity is of a mean degree of intensity, and is not to be perceived but by the organs of taste. These are commonly distinguished by different names; as, bitter, adstringent, acid, acid urinous, &c. In the third class are arranged saline substances whose taste is sensible only in the stomach and intestines. These are not numerous. It is of importance to make some observations on the relations of these several classes of tastes. And, first, it must be observed, that there are many degrees in each of these classes, by which bodies differ from each other in intensity of taste.

Thus, among caustic salts, some act much more strongly than others; the former immediately destroying the organization of bodies, while the latter require a more considerable space of time to produce the same effect. This observation applies likewise to the bitter, adstringent, and urinous salts, as well as to those which have no sensible action but on the nerves of the stomach. In the second place, in considering the diversities

of the tastes, we are naturally led to the conclusion, that the several tastes are degrees of the same property, from the most caustic salt, to that whose action is too feeble to be perceived, but on the highly sensible organs of the stomach; and this reflexion seems to shew, that all tastes owe their origin to one and the same cause.

To determine the cause of sapidity, it will be proper to consider its strongest degree, that we may better distinguish the phenomena, and deduce its mode of action. The inquiry, therefore, relates to the cause of causticity; a property which has always been a subject of conjecture among chemists. Lemery, observing that very hot bodies are excessively caustic, and likewise that such salts as possess this property have been subjected to a strong degree of heat in their preparation, attributed the property of causticity to the particles of fire, which he supposed to be deposited among the particles of bodies. Mr. Baumé espoused this opinion. Meyer, an apothecary of Osnaburgh, after making a series of inquiries into the nature of caustic salts, constructed an ingenious system, or hypothesis, to which many chemists have been much attached, though at present it is held in no esteem.

This philosopher attributed causticity to a principle which he considered as a compound of fire and a peculiar acid; this he denominated *causticum*, or *acidum pingue*, after the ancient mists. He pursued this principle through its transitions and combinations, as Stahl had done before with his phlogiston; but his system was defective in the same manner as that of Stahl, as he did not succeed better in proving the existence of his *causticum*, than Stahl did that of his phlogiston. Dr. Black, whose researches were directed to the same subjects as those of Meyer, gave the finishing

stroke to his doctrine, by clearly showing, that the causticity of lime and alkalis, far from being owing to the addition of any principle, *acidum pingue*, as Meyer thought, arises, on the contrary, from the subtraction of an elastic fluid. Macquer is, beyond controversy, the chemist whose inquiries into the cause of causticity have been attended with the greatest success. The doctrine explained by him on this subject, in his Chemical Dictionary, is so clear, and established on such conclusive facts, that it is impossible to forbear assenting to his opinion. After observing that caustic bodies corrode and destroy our organs, by combining with their constituent principles, he remarks, that, in proportion as the combination proceeds, the caustic body by degrees loses its force; and that it ceases to be such, as soon as it has dissolved as much of the animal matter as it is capable of uniting with. Thus it is, that the pure fixed alkali, or lapis causticus, corrodes the skin on which it is applied, and, after a certain time, becomes saturated, and ceases to act. This salt really acts by a chemical force, since it produces its effects on the insensible skin of dead bodies, as M. Poulletier has proved by accurate experiments; and, in general, on all animal substances, which it dissolves. Causticity, therefore, depends on the tendency to combination; and the effect of this force on our organs, is merely the result of a combination of the caustic matter with the matter of which the organs are formed, in the same manner as caustic bodies lose their efficacy, when combined with any other substance with which they have a tendency to unite; and, in a word, causticity is always in proportion to the tendency to combination. Hence it is, that the most tasteless salt owes its want of causticity to its being al-

ready saturated with some other substance; and its taste will be rendered stronger, in proportion to the more or less complete separation of that substance. All the phenomena of saline bodies are in proof of this assertion.

3. *Concerning solubility as a character of saline bodies.* Solubility in water has been assumed by all chemists as one of the leading properties of salts. Yet this property, like that of taste, or the tendency to combination, is subject to great varieties. In some salts it is so powerful, that they cannot be deprived of the least portion of water they contain, but by elaborate processes long continued. Others have only a mean degree of solubility, which may be ascertained with considerable accuracy, as is the case with the neutral salts. And lastly, there are certain saline matters which are so little soluble, that they even seem in this respect to belong to the class of earths, and have in fact been considered as such by naturalists. The limits between those two classes of mineral bodies are very difficult to be determined, and chemists are not agreed on this head. Mr. Kirwan, in his mineralogy, appears to have adopted the opinion of Bergman, who thinks that all substances which require more than one thousand parts of water for their solution ought to be ranked among earths; and that all which are more soluble ought to be esteemed as salts. If this proportion should be received among chemists, as it deserves to be, we shall avoid the diversity of opinions and of language which has hitherto prevailed, to the discouragement and hindrance of such as enter into the study of chemistry. There is the same correspondence between the taste and solubility of salts, as there is between this last property and the tendency

to combination; for the solubility in water is an immediate consequence of that tendency to combination, and must therefore follow the same laws. It is found that the more taste and activity any salt possesses, the more soluble it is in water; and this general fact depends on their respective nature and properties.

4. *Of incombustibility as a character of saline bodies.* It is more difficult to acquire a clear idea of this property of saline bodies, than the others we have been speaking of. They have not yet been considered by any chemist in this point of view, and many writers have asserted that some salts, and among them nitre, are truly combustible. To shew the fallacy of this opinion, and to prove that all mineral salts are perfectly incombustible, would require a very intimate knowledge of the properties of these substances. The valuable experiments of M. Lavoiser show, that several combustible bodies form, by their combustion, acids of a particular nature, according to the substance burned.

Combustion is nothing more than a combination of the base of vital air, or oxygen, with combustible bodies. All bodies which have been completely burned, that is to say, which have combined with oxygen in a sufficient quantity to be saturated, enter into the class of incombustible bodies; or, which is the same thing, their tendency to combine with oxygen being satisfied, they are no longer capable of uniting with or absorbing more. These principles being once proved, if, on the one part, it be found that many salts are the residues of various combustible matters which have been burned; and if on the other part, an entire class of these salts be found to contain oxygen, and to exhibit the characters of substances which have passed through the process of combustion;

it will be easily conceived that they cannot continue to be combustible. These assertions are founded on a great number of facts; they prove that salts are compounded substances, most of them being formed by the union of certain combustible bodies with oxygen; and it will be understood with equal facility, that this character of incombustibility may be considered as the most certain and invariable property of saline matters. The proof of these important assertions will appear complete with regard to the class of acid salts, in the details which will constitute the particular history of those substances. There exists, nevertheless, a class of salts which appear evidently to be compounded, and do not contain oxygen. Such are the alkalies in general: but they are either composed of matters which are themselves incombustible; or if they contain any combustible substance, as is seen in ammoniac or volatile alkali, it is united to a substance evidently incombustible, which absolutely prevents this property from being sensible in the other substance.

5. *Concerning the nature and composition of saline substances in general.* Stahl, who paid great attention to the nature of saline bodies, was of opinion, that they are formed of water and earth. He collected every fact which was known in his time, and applied them to the illustration of his sublime theory. But that period of improvement has been succeeded by another, in which, by the multiplicity of experiments, and the magnitude of the discoveries concerning the influence of air in chemical phenomena, the theory of salts as invented by Stahl, and explained with great perspicuity by Macquer, is no longer found adequate to the explanation of the nature and compositions of those bodies. We are no longer contented with those distant

analogies, by which the most discordant facts are united, and which serve only to deceive by their illusive light. It is better to acknowledge our ignorance, than to advance extravagant theories, that must sooner or later be refuted by experiment.

Though the chemical nature of salts is not yet perfectly understood, and the general facts will not permit us to assert, that one single principle is the cause and origin of all saline bodies, as many eminent philosophers have thought; yet it must be admitted, that we are better acquainted with their composition than formerly. It is known that they, for the most part, contain a very great quantity of oxygen; and that this fluid is fixed, in combination with combustible matter, of a different nature in the different kinds of salts. There are sufficient proofs that many acids are thus composed; and it may be strongly presumed by analogy, that most of this class of salts are compounded in the same manner. Water, without being one of the immediate principles of salts, is often united, and adheres to them by a very strong attraction. As to the matter of fire, considered as phlogiston, which very great chemists have admitted in salts, there is too much uncertainty at present respecting the nature and even the existence of this matter, to justify the adoption of any decided opinion. It is not the same with caloric, which appears to form one of the principles of salts, or rather, to exist in a greater quantity in some than in others: such is the general cause of the fluidity, fusibility, and volatility of a great number of saline matters.

The presence of earth in most salts is not shown by any direct experiment; it is only known, that all native salts are mixed with a greater or less quantity of various earthy substances. But these do not belong to

them; they do not, properly speaking, enter into their composition, but are, as it were, accessaries. We do not, therefore, at present, know any other principles of saline substances, except several combustible matters, oxygen, some incombustible substances, and caloric. It is known, that most acids are the residues of burned bodies, and that they can contain different proportions of combustible matter and oxygen, so that they exist in very different states, according to the quantity of these constituent matters. Every thing more which has been said, in treatises of chemistry, upon the composition of salts in general, amounts to nothing more than hypotheses, more or less ingenious, but, at the same time, more or less remote from truth.

Concerning the Distribution, or methodical Division of Mineral Salts.

Those salts, which belong to the mineral kingdom are very numerous, many of them are the products of nature, and are formed by the action of fire, water, and air, and by the destruction of organized bodies; the greater number, however, are formed by art, or, at least, have not yet been found among natural products. The methodical treatment of these substances requires that they should be divided into orders, genera, and species.

The first order contains such saline substances as serve to compose the second order, and are therefore called primitive.

The second order contains secondary, compound, or neutral salts, which are formed by the mutual combination of the simple salts, and are consequently much less simple than them.

Each of these orders is divided into several genera, and these again into species.

ORDER I.

Simple or primitive Salts.

Under this order is comprehended those salts which were formerly thought to be simple or primitive, and which are occasionally called simple salts. The accurate experiments of the moderns have proved that these are for the most part compounded; but the term is retained with greater propriety when it is observed, that these salts compose, when united, the salts which are termed secondary. These salts are never met with perfectly pure in nature, but require artificial processes to render them so. This order is divided into three genera, comprehending saline terrestrial substances, alkalis, and acids.

GENUS I.

Saline terrestrial Substances.

The three substances which compose this genus have hitherto been considered as earths whose characters manifestly resemble those of salts.

This genus contains three species;
1. Barytes. 2. Magnesia. 3. Quicklime.

GENUS II.

Alkaline Salts.

These possess a urinous, burning, and caustic taste, turn the syrop of violets to a green, have a strong affinity for acids, dissolve animal substances, unite readily with water, combine with oils and fat, and render them miscible with water, dissolve sulphur, and are crystallizable. The species of this genus are,

1. Potash. 2. Soda. 3. Ammoniac.

GENUS III.

Acids.

These are distinguished by their sour taste when diluted with water; they redden blue vegetable colours.

Many exist in an aerial form; they unite with great rapidity to alkalis; their action on inflammable substances is much stronger than that of the last-mentioned salts, and most commonly reduces them to the state of bodies which have been burnt. The following species enter this genus:

Mineral Acids.

1. Carbonic.
2. Muriatic.
3. Fluoric.
4. Nitric.
5. Sulphuric.
6. Boracic.
7. Molybdic.
8. Tungstic.
9. Arsenic.
10. Succinic.

Vegetable Acids.

11. Acetic.
12. Citric.
13. Gallic.
14. Malic.
15. Benzoic.
16. Tartareous.
17. Oxalic.

Acids formed by the Action of Fire.

18. Pyro-tartarous.
19. Pyro-mucous.
20. Pyro-lignous.

Acids formed by the Nitric Acid.

21. Camphoric.
22. Suberic.
23. Ciceric.

Animal Acids.

24. Phosphoric.
25. Lithic.
26. Formic.
27. Bombic.
28. Zoonic.

ORDER II.

Secondary or Neutral Salts.

Under the name of secondary salts are comprehended such matters as

are composed of two primitive saline substances combined together. These salts are called neutral, because they do not possess the characters of primitive salts; that is to say, they are neither acid nor alkaline. There are, however, many salts, such as borax, chalk, and alkalis, when united with the carbonic acid, which exhibit some of the properties of primitive salts, though in a less eminent degree. These secondary salts have not so strong a taste as most of the primitive, their tendency to combination, and their solubility, being less considerable; but the criterion which distinguishes them more especially from the former is, that they cannot, like the primitive salts, communicate the saline properties to other bodies; their crystalline form is likewise a character much attended to by naturalists, and sometimes indicates their nature, though it may be productive of error when too much depended on.

The term base, is commonly applied to the more fixed matter which enters into the composition of neutral salts. As this base, which is sometimes volatile, communicates several general characters, sufficiently uniform in the several combinations it makes with acids, the name of the base is assumed to distinguish the genera of secondary salts. These salts are therefore divided into as many genera as there are saline or alkaline bases capable of being united with acids.

The first genus comprehends such as are formed by the union of fixed alkalis with acids. These are called perfect neutral salts, because the union of their component parts is very intimate.

The second genus includes such as are formed by the combination of the volatile alkali or ammoniac with acids. They are distinguished by the name of ammoniacal salts from that which has been given to their

base by later chemists. They may likewise be called imperfect salts, because they are much more easily decomposed than salts of the first genus.

The third genus embraces those which have lime for their basis. These are in general less perfect than those of the second genus, though lime has a stronger affinity to acids than ammoniac. These salts are denominated neutral calcareous salts.

Magnesia, combined with various acids, constitutes the fourth genus. They are more decomposable than those of the last mentioned genus, because lime and alkalis have a stronger affinity with acids than magnesia. They are distinguished by the name of magnesian neutral salts.

The fifth genus comprehends such as have pure argillaceous earth or alumine for their base. As alum is the principal of these combinations, the generic name of aluminous salts is given to them. Alkalis, lime, and magnesia, in most instances, decompose salts with an aluminous base.

The sixth genus comprehends neutral salts with a base of barytes or ponderous earth. These salts, as well as the two preceding genera, are but little known.

It may easily be imagined, that these bases, combined with the acids, must afford a great number of neutral salts; and that this number would be still more considerable, were we to admit, as peculiar salts, the union of the same substances with the acids.

In the subsequent arrangement of the various neutral salts, the order of the affinities of the acids is followed; that is to say, we begin with sulphuric salts, after which we place nitric salts, and after them, the salts into which the muriatic, the boracic, and the florid acids enter; and lastly, finish with the salts which contain carbonic acid, because that acid is the

weakest of them all. To denote all these salts, names composed of the acids and their bases are adopted, in order that this nomenclature may express the nature of each; and that

there no longer may be any error on this point, the different names which each neutral salt has received at different times, are exhibited.

GENUS I.

Neutral salts with basis of fixed alkali.

SPECIES.	ANTIEN T NAMES.
1. SULPHAT OF POTASH. The sulphuric acid with potash.	<div> <i>Vitriolated tartar.</i> <i>Sal de duobus.</i> <i>Arcanum duplicatum.</i> <i>Vitriol of potash.</i> </div>
2. SULPHAT OF SODA. The sulphuric acid with soda.	<div> <i>Glaubers salt.</i> <i>Vitriol of soda.</i> </div>
3. NITRAT OF POTASH. Nitric acid with potash.	<div> <i>Common nitre.</i> <i>Saltpetre.</i> </div>
4. NITRAT OF SODA. Nitric acid with soda.	<div> <i>Cubic nitre.</i> <i>Rhomboidal nitre.</i> </div>
5. MURIAT OF POTASH. The muriatic acid with potash.	<div> <i>Digestive salt.</i> <i>Febrifuge salt of Sylvius.</i> <i>Regenerated marine salt.</i> </div>
6. MURIAT OF SODA. The muriatic acid with soda.	<div> <i>Marine salt.</i> <i>Sea salt.</i> <i>Common salt.</i> <i>Kitchen salt.</i> </div>
7. BORAT OF POTASH. The boracic acid with potash.	<div> <i>Vegetable borax.</i> </div>
8. BORAX, or supersaturated borate of soda. The boracic acid with soda.	<div> <i>Common borax.</i> <i>Tincal.</i> </div>
9. FLUAT OF POTASH. The fluoric acid with potash.	<div> <i>Spathose tartar.</i> <i>Spar of tartar.</i> </div>
10. FLUAT OF SODA. The fluoric acid with soda.	<div> <i>Sparry soda.</i> </div>
11. CARBONAT OF POTASH. The carbonic acid with potash.	<div> <i>Cretaceous tartar.</i> <i>Chalk of potash.</i> </div>
12. CARBONAT OF SODA. The carbonic acid with soda.	<div> <i>Cretaceous soda.</i> <i>Chalk of soda.</i> </div>

GENUS II.

Ammoniacal neutral salts.

SPECIES.	ANTIEN T NAMES.
1. AMMONIACAL SULPHAT. The sulphuric acid with ammoniac.	<div> <i>Glaubers secret ammoniacal salt.</i> <i>Ammoniacal vitriol.</i> </div>
2. AMMONIACAL NITRAT. The nitric acid with ammoniac.	<div> <i>Ammoniacal nitre.</i> </div>

3. AMMONIACAL MURIAT. The } *Sal ammoniac.*
 muriatic acid with ammoniac.
4. AMMONIACAL FLUAT. The
 fluoric acid with ammoniac.
5. AMMONIACAL BORAT. The
 boracic acid with ammoniac.
6. AMMONIACAL CARBONAT. } *Sal volatile.*
 The carbonic acid with ammo- } *Concrete volatile alkali.*
 niac. } *Ammoniacal chalk.*

GENUS III.

Calcareous neutral salts.

SPECIES.

ANTIENNT NAMES.

1. CALCAREOUS SULPHAT. The } *Plaster of Paris.*
 sulphuric acid with lime. } *Gypsum.*
 } *Selenite.*
 } *Calcareous vitriol.*
2. CALCAREOUS NITRAT. The } *Calcareous nitre.*
 nitric acid with lime. }
3. CALCAREOUS MURIAT. The } *Fixed sal ammoniac.*
 muriatic acid with lime. } *Oil of lime.*
 } *Calcareous marine salt.*
4. CALCAREOUS FLUAT. The } *Cubic spar.*
 fluoric acid with lime. } *Vitreous spar.*
 } *Fusible spar.*
 } *Sparry fluor.*
 } *Fluorated lime.*
5. CALCAREOUS BORAT. The
 boracic acid with lime.
6. CARBONAT OF LIME. The } *Chalk.*
 carbonic acid with lime. } *Calcareous spar.*
 } *Calcareous earth.*

GENUS IV.

Magnesian neutral salts.

SPECIES.

ANTIENNT NAMES.

1. MAGNESIAN SULPHAT. } *Epsom salt.*
 The sulphuric acid with magnesia. } *Salt of Sedlitz.*
 } *Bitter cathartic salt.*
 } *Vitriolated magnesia.*
2. MAGNESIAN NITRAT. The
 nitric acid with magnesia.
3. MAGNESIAN MURIAT. The } *Marine salt with the base of magnesia.*
 muriatic acid with magnesia. }
4. FLUAT OF MAGNESIA. The
 fluoric acid with magnesia.

5. BORAT OF MAGNESIA. The boracic acid with magnesia.

6. MAGNESIAN CARBONAT. The carbonic acid with magnesia.

{ *Effervescent magnesia.*
 { *Mild magnesia.*
 { *Aerated magnesia.*
 { *Magnesian salt.*

GENUS V.

Aluminous neutral salts.

SPECIES.

ANTIEN T NAMES.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. ALUMINOUS SULPHAT. The sulphuric acid with aluminous earth. | { <i>Alum.</i>
{ <i>Vitriol of clay.</i> |
| 2. ALUMINOUS NITRAT. The nitric acid with aluminous acid. | { <i>Argillaceous nitre.</i>
{ <i>Nitrous alum.</i> |
| 3. ALUMINOUS MURIAT. The muriatic acid with aluminous earth. | { <i>Argillaceous marine salt.</i>
{ <i>Marine alum.</i> |
| 4. ALUMINOUS FLUAT. The fluoric acid with aluminous earth. | { <i>Sparry clay.</i>
{ <i>Argillaceous fluor.</i> |
| 5. ALUMINOUS BORAT. The boracic acid with aluminous earth. | { <i>Argillaceous borax.</i> |
| 6. ALUMINOUS CARBONAT. The carbonic acid with aluminous earth. | { <i>Effervescent clay.</i>
{ <i>Argillaceous chalk.</i> |

GENUS VI.

Neutral salts with a base of barytes, or barytic neutral salts.

SPECIES.

ANTIEN T NAMES.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. BARYTIC SULPHAT. The sulphuric acid with barytes. | { <i>Ponderous spar.</i>
{ <i>Barotic vitriol.</i> |
| 2. BARYTIC NITRAT. The nitric acid with barytes | { <i>Ponderous nitre.</i>
{ <i>Barytic nitre.</i> |
| 3. BARYTIC MURIAT. The muriatic acid with barytes. | { <i>Ponderous marine salt.</i> |
| 4. BARYTIC FLUAT. The fluoric acid with barytes. | |
| 5. BARYTIC BORAT. The boracic acid with barytes. | |
| 6. BARYTIC CARBONAT. The carbonic acid with barytes. | { <i>Aerated ponderous earth.</i>
{ <i>Cretaceous ponderous earth.</i>
{ <i>Barotic earth.</i> |

To these salts may be added such as are formed by the arsenic, molybdic, tungstenic, and succinic acids: the former of which may be distinguished by the terms *arseneats of potash, soda, &c.* the second *molybdats of potash, soda, and so on.*

Concerning vegetable salts.

The saline substances held in solution in the juices of plants or the water wherein they are infused are generally known by the name of *essential salts*. They are distinguished into six genera. The first contains vegetable salts analagous to those of the mineral kingdom. The second contains the pure acids of plants. In the third are placed such acid salts as are combined with a certain quantity of potash: these are called *acidules*. The fourth genus includes those which are formed by the action of the nitric acid upon certain vegetable matters. The fifth is composed of those which owe their formation to heat. The sixth genus is appropriated to such acids as are developed by a peculiar fermentation.

GENUS I.

The principal species contained in this genus are:

1. *Fixed alkalis combined with carbonic acid.* These are obtained from almost all plants by macerating them with acids. Potash is the most common, but soda exists in marine plants.

2. *Sulphat of potash.* This neutral salt is found in milfoil, in astringent and aromatic plants, in spurge, flax, &c.

3. *Sulphat of soda,* which exists in tamarisk and rotten wood.

4. *Nitre,* obtained from borage, turnsole, and tobacco.

5. *Muriat of potash and soda,* from marine plants.

6. *Sulphat of lime,* said to exist in rhubarb.

GENUS II.

1. *The citric acid.*
2. *The gallic acid.*
3. *The malic acid.*
4. *The benzoic acid.*

GENUS III.

1. *The tartarous acid.*
2. *The oxalic acid.*

GENUS IV.

1. *The pyro-tartarous acid.*
2. *The pyromucous acid.*
3. *The pyroligneous acid.*

GENUS V.

1. *The acid of sugar.*
2. *The camphoric acid.*
3. *The suberic acid.*
4. *The aceric acid.*

GENUS VI.

1. *The acetic acid.*

Concerning saline substances from the animal kingdom.

The animal kingdom abounds with many of the saline substances common to vegetables, such as lime, soda, the muriatic, oxalic, malic, benzoic, sebacic, and phosphoric acids. Besides these, animals afford

1. *The lactic acid.*
2. *The saccho-lactic acid.*
3. *The lithic acid.*
4. *The foracic acid.*
5. *The bombic acid.*

The nature of these animal acids is not yet well known.

In the history of saline substances it is only farther necessary to remark, that they possess generally the properties of crystallization, fusibility, efflorescence, and solubility.

SALIUNCA. See *Nardus celtica*.

SALIVA, (*Saliva*, *æ*, f. so called, *a salino sapore*, from its salt taste, or from *σαλός*, spittle). The fluid which is secreted by the salivary glands into the cavity of the mouth. The secretory organ is composed of

three pair of salivary glands. 1. The *parotid glands*, which evacuate their saliva by means of the *Stenonian duct* behind the middle dens molaris of the upper jaw. 2. The *submaxillary glands*, which pour out their saliva through the *Warthonian ducts* on each side of the frenulum of the tongue by a narrow osculum. 3. The *sublingular glands*, situated between the internal surface of the maxilla and the tongue, and pour out their saliva through numerous *Riverian ducts* at the apex of the tongue.

The saliva in the cavity of the mouth has mixed with it, 1. The *mucus of the mouth*, which exhales from the labial and genal glands. 2. A *rosid vapour*, from the whole surface of the cavity of the mouth. The saliva is continually swallowed with, or without masticated food, and some is also spit out. It has no colour nor smell; it is *tasteless*, although it contains a little salt, to which the nerves of the tongue are accustomed. Its *specific gravity* is somewhat greater than water. Its *consistence* is rather plastic and spumous, from the entangled atmospheric air. The *quantity* of twelve pounds is supposed to be secreted in twelve hours. During mastication and speaking the secretion is augmented, from the mechanical pressure of the muscles upon the salivary glands. Those who are hungry secrete a great quantity, from the sight of agreeable food. It is imperfectly dissolved by water; somewhat coagulated by alcohol of wine; and is congealed with more difficulty than water. It is inspissated by a small dose, and dissolved in a large dose, of mineral acids. It is also soluble in aerated alkali. Caustic alkali and quick lime extract volatile alkali from saliva. It corrodes copper and iron, and precipitates silver and lead in the form of corneous luna. It assists the spirituous fermentation

of farinaceous substances; hence barbarous nations prepare an inebriating drink from the chewed roots of the *Jatropha Manihot* and *Piper Methifiticum*. It possesses an antiseptic virtue, according to the experiments of the celebrated Pringle. It easily becomes putrid in warm air, and gives off volatile alkali.

Constituent Principles. Saliva appears to consist of water, albumen, ammoniacal salt, and animal earth. Of water, there is $\frac{4}{5}$ given out by distillation. The albumen is detected by alcohol of wine. The ammoniacal salt is demonstrated by triturating quick lime with saliva; and the animal earth from salival calculus, and the products of fire.

The use of the saliva is, 1. It augments the taste of the food, by the evolution of sapid matter. 2. During mastication, it mixes with, dissolves, and resolves into its principles, the food; and changes it into a putaceous mass, fit to be swallowed: hence it commences chymification. 3. It moderates thirst, by moistening the cavity of the mouth and fauces.

SALIVAL DUCTS. The excretory ducts of the salival glands. That of the parotid gland is called the *Stenonian duct*; those of the submaxillary glands, the *Warthonian ducts*; and those of the sublingual, the *Riverian duct*.

SALIVAL GLANDS. Those glands which secrete the saliva are so termed. See *Saliva*.

SALIVARIS HERBA.

SALIVATION. An increased secretion of saliva. See *Ptyalismus*.

SALIX, (*Salix*, *icis*, f. from *sala*, Heb.). *Salix alba*. The willow. The bark of the branches of the *Salix fragilis* of Linnæus, the crack willow. *Salix foliis serratis glabris ovato-lanceolatis, petiolis dentato-glandulosis*. Class *Dioecia*. Order *Di-*

andria. It manifests a considerable degree of bitterness to the taste, and is very adstringent. It is recommended as a good substitute for Peruvian bark, and is said to cure intermittents and other diseases requiring tonic and adstringent remedies.

SALIX ALBA. See *Salix*.

SALIX CAPREA. The systematic name of a species of willow, the bark of whose branches possess the same virtues with that of the *fragilis*. See *Salix*.

SALIX FRAGILIS. The systematic name of the common crack willow. See *Salix*.

SALIX PENTANDRIA. The bark of the branches of this species of willow possesses the same virtues as that of the *fragilis*. See *Salix*.

SALIX VITULINA. The bark of the branches of this species of willow may be substituted for the *fragilis*. See *Salix*.

SALPINGO-PHARYNGEUS. This muscle is composed of a few fibres of the palato-pharyngeus, which it assists in dilating the mouth of the Eustachian tube.

SALPINGO-STATHILINUS. See *Levator palati*.

SALPINGO-STAPHILINUS INTERNUS. See *Levator palati*.

SALSIFY. The root of the purple goats beard. See *Tragopogon pratense*.

SALSOLA KALI. Snail-seeded glass-wort or salt-wort. The systematic name of the plant which affords the mineral alkali. See *Soda* and *Barilla*.

SALSOLA SATIVA. The systematic name of a plant, which affords the mineral alkali. See *Soda* and *Barilla*.

SALSOLA SODA. The systematic name of a plant which affords mineral alkali. See *Barilla*, and *Soda*.

SALT, CATHARTIC. See *Magnesia vitriolata* and *Natron vitriolatum*.

SALT, COMMON. See *Murias soda*.

SALT, EPSOM. See *Magnesia vitriolata*.

SALT-PETRE. See *Nitras potassæ impurus* and *Nitre*.

SALT, ROCHELLE. See *Tartris soda*.

SALT, SEA. See *Murias soda*.

SALTS. See *Saline substances*. Salts, with respect to their chemical properties, are divided into two classes; into acid salts or acids, and into alkaline salts or alkalies; and from the mutual combination of these two arises a third class, viz. that of neutral salts. See *Acid* and *Neutral salts*.

SALTWORT. See *Salsola kali*.

SALVATELLA, (*Salvatella*, sc. *vena*, from *salus*, health, because the opening of it was formerly thought to be of singular use in melancholy). This vein runs along the little finger, unites upon the back of the hand with the cephalic of the thumb, and empties its blood into the internal and external cubital veins.

SALVIA, (*Salvia*, æ, f. *a salvendo*). Sage. *Salvia officinalis* of Linnæus. *Salvia foliis lanceolato-ovatis integris crenulatis, floribus spicatis, calycibus acutis*. Class *Diandria*. Order *Monogynia*. In ancient times sage was celebrated as a remedy of great efficacy, as would appear from the following lines of the school of Salernita:

*Cur moriatur homo, cui salvia crescit
in horto?*

*Contra vim mortis, non est medicamen
in hortis.*

*Salvia salvatrix, naturæ conciliatrix.
Salvia cum ruta faciunt tibi pocula
tuta.*

But at present it is not considered as an article of much importance. It has a fragrant strong smell; and a warm, bitterish, aromatic taste, like other plants containing an essential

oil. It has a remarkable property in resisting the putrefaction of animal substances, and is in frequent use among the Chinese as a tonic, in the form of tea, in debility of the stomach and nervous system.

SALVIA HORTENSIS MINOR. The small sage, or sage of virtue. A variety of the officinal sage, possessing similar virtues.

SALVIA OFFICINALIS. The systematic name of the garden sage. See *Salvia*.

SALVIA SCLAREA. The systematic name of the garden clary, called *horminum* in the pharmacopœias. The leaves and seeds are recommended as corroborants and antispasmodics, particularly in leucorrhœas and hysterical weaknesses. They have a bitterish warm taste, and a strong smell, of the aromatic kind.

SAMBUCUS, (*Sambucus*, i, f. from *jabucca*, Heb. a musical instrument, formerly made of this tree). The elder tree. *Sambucus nigra* of Linnæus. *Sambucus cymis quinque partitis, foliis pinnatis, caule arboreo.* Class *Pentandria*. Order *Trigynia*. This indigenous plant has an unpleasant narcotic smell, and some authors have reported its exhalations to be so noxious, as to render it unsafe to sleep under its shade. The parts of this tree that are proposed for medicinal use in the pharmacopœias are the inner bark, the flowers, and the berries. The first has scarcely any smell, and very little taste; on first chewing, it impresses a degree of sweetness, which is followed by a very slight but durable acrimony, in which its powers seem to reside. From its cathartic property it is recommended as an effectual hydragogue by Sydenham and Boerhaave. In small doses it is said to be an useful aperient and decobstruent in various chronic disorders. The flowers have an agreeable flavour; and infusions of them, when

fresh, are gently laxative and aperient. When dry, they are said to promote chiefly the cuticular excretion, and to be particularly serviceable in erysipelatous and eruptive disorders. Externally they are used in fomentations, &c. and in the London pharmacopœia are directed in the form of an ointment. The berries in taste are somewhat sweetish, and not unpleasant; on expression they yield a fine purple juice, which proves an useful aperient and resolvent in sundry chronic diseases, gently loosening the belly, and promoting the urine and perspiration. The official preparation of these berries, in the London pharmacopœia, is the *succus bacche sambuci spissatus*.

SAMBUCUS EBULUS. The systematic name of the dwarf elder. See *Ebulus*.

SAMBUCUS NIGRA. The systematic name of the elder tree. See *Sambucus*.

SAMPHIRE. The *Crithmum maritimum* of Linnæus. It is a low perennial plant, and grows about the sea-coast in several parts of the island. It has a spicy aromatic flavour, which induces the common people to use it as a pot-herb. Pickled with vinegar and spice it makes a wholesome and elegant condiment which is in much esteem.

SAMPSUCHUS. See *Sambucus*.

SANDARACHA, (*Sandaracha*, æ, f. *σανδαράχα*, a gummy resin; also a sort of arsenic from saghad narak, Arab.). See *Sandrack*.

SANDARACHA ARABUM. This resinous juice appears to have been the produce of a large species of juniper tree.

SANDRACK, (*Sandrack*, n. ind. an Arabian word). *Sandaracha*. Gum juniper. A concrete resin which exudes in white tears, more transparent than mastich, from the bark of the *Juniperus communis* of

Linnaeus. See *Juniperus*. Sandrack is almost totally soluble in alcohol, with which it forms a white varnish that dries speedily. Reduced to powder it is called *pounce*, which prevents ink from sinking into paper, from which the exterior coating of size has been scraped away.

SANGUIFICATION, (*Sanguificatio*, *onis*, f. from *sanguis*, blood). A natural function of the body, by which the chyle is changed into blood. The uses of sanguification are the generation of blood, which serves to fill the blood-vessels, to irritate and stimulate the heart and arteries, to generate or cause heat, to secrete the humours, and to excite the vital action.

SANGUINĀLIS, (*Sanguinalis*, *is*, f. from *sanguis*, blood; so named from its uses in stopping bleedings). The *Polygonum aviculare* or knot-grass is sometimes so called. See *Centumnodia*.

SANGUINĀRIA, (*Sanguinaria*, *a*, f. from *sanguis*, blood; so named from its use in stopping bleedings). The *Polygonum aviculare* or knot-grass is sometimes so termed. See *Centumnodia*.

SANGUINEOUS ĀPOPLEXY. See *Apoplexia*.

SANGUIS DRACŌNIS. Dragon's blood. The red resinous juice which is obtained by wounding the bark of the *Calamus rotang*, *caudice densissime aculeato, aculeis erectis, spadice erecto* of Willdenow. Class *Hexandria*. Order *Monogynia*. It is chiefly obtained from the Molucca islands, Java, and other parts of the East Indies. It is generally much adulterated, and varied in goodness and purity. The best kind is of a dark red colour, which, when powdered, changes to crimson; it readily melts and catches flame; has no smell, but to the taste discovers some degree of warmth and pungency. The ancient Greeks were well acquainted with

the adstringent power of this drug; in which character it has since been much employed in hæmorrhages, in alvine fluxes. At present, however, it is seldom used internally, being superseded by more certain and effectual remedies of this numerous class; and it enters no officinal composition but that of the *emplastrum thuris* of the London pharmacopœia.

SANGUISORBA OFFICINĀLIS. The systematic name of the Italian pimpinell. See *Pimpinella Italica*.

SANGUISŪGA, (*Sanguisuga*, *a*, f. from *sanguis*, blood, and *sugo*, to suck). The leech, or blood-sucker.

SANICLE. See *Sanicula*.

SANICLE, YORKSHIRE. See *Pinguicula*.

SANICŪLA, (*Sanicula*, *a*, f. from *sano* to heal; so called from its virtues in healing). Sanicle. This herb, *Sanicula europea* of Linnaeus, was formerly recommended as a mild adstringent, and is supposed to have received its name from its sanative power. Its sensible qualities are a bitterish and somewhat austere taste, followed by an acrimony which chiefly affects the throat. It is only in use in the present day amongst the country people.

SANICŪLA EBORĀCENSIS. The Yorkshire sanicle or butter-wort. See *Pinguicula*.

SANICŪLA EUROPEĀ. The systematic name of the sanicle. See *Sanicula*.

SANIES, (*Sanies*, *ei*, f.). *Ichor*. This term is sometimes applied to a thin, limpid, and greenish discharge; at other times to a thick and bloody kind of pus.

SANTALUM, (*Santalum*, *i*, n. *σανδαλ*, from *zandal*, Arab.). Saunders.

SANTĀLUM ALBUM. The systematic name of the yellow saunders. See *Santalum citrinum*.

SANTĀLUM ALBUM. The white saunders of the shop is said to be the

album of the tree whose medullary part is called *Santalum citrinum*.

SANTALUM CITRINUM. Yellow saunders. *Santalum album* of Linnæus. White saunders wood is of a pale white colour, often with a yellowish tinge, and, being destitute of taste or odour, it is superseded by the *santalum citrinum*, which is of a brownish yellow colour, of a bitterish aromatic taste, and of a pleasant smell, approaching to that of the rose. Both kinds are brought from the East Indies in billets, consisting of large thick pieces, which, according to Rumphius, are sometimes taken from the same, and sometimes from different trees. For though the white and yellow saunders are the wood of the same species of tree, yet the latter, which forms the central part of the tree, is not always to be found in sufficient quantity to repay the trouble and expence of procuring it especially, unless the trees be old; while the white, which is the exterior part of the wood, is always more abundant, and is consequently much cheaper.

Yellow saunders, distilled with water, yields a fragrant essential oil, which thickens in the cold into the consistence of a balsam, approaching in smell to ambergris, or a mixture of ambergris and roses; the remaining decoction, inspissated to the consistence of an extract, is bitterish and slightly pungent. Rectified spirit extracts, by digestion, considerably more than water; the colour of the tincture is a rich yellow. The spirit distilled off is slightly impregnated with the fine flavour of the wood; the remaining brownish extract has a weak smell, and a moderate balsamic pungency.

The wood is valued highly on account of its fragrance, hence the Chinese are said to fumigate their clothes with it, and to burn it in their temples in honour of their gods.

Though still retained in the *materia medica* of the Edinburgh pharmacopœia, it cannot be thought to possess any considerable share of medicinal power. Hoffman considers its virtues as similar to those of ambergris; and some others have esteemed it in the character of a corroborand and restorative.

SANTALUM RUBRUM. Red saunders. *Pterocarpus santalinus* of Linnæus. There is some reason to believe that several red woods, capable of communicating this colour to spirituous liquors, are sold as red saunders; but the true officinal kind appears, on the best authority, to be of this tree, which is extremely hard, of a bright garnet red colour, and bears a fine polish. It is only the inner substance of the wood that is used as a colouring matter, and the more florid red is mostly esteemed. On being cut it is said to manifest a fragrant odour, which is more especially in old trees. According to Lewis, this wood "is of a dull red, almost blackish colour on the outside, and a deep brighter red within; its fibres are now and then curled, as in knots. It has no manifest smell, and little or no taste; even of extracts made from it with water, or with spirit, the taste is considerable.

To watery liquors it communicates only a yellowish tinge, but to rectified spirit a fine deep red. A small quantity of an extract made with this menstruum, tinges a large one of fresh spirit of the same colour; though it does not, like most other resinous bodies, dissolve in expressed oils. Of distilled oils, there are some, as that of lavender, which receive a red tincture from the wood itself, and from its resinous extract, but the greater number do not. Red saunders has been esteemed as a medicine; but its only use attaches to its colouring property. The juice of this tree, like that of some others,

affords a species of *sanguis draconis*.

SANTOLINA, (*Santolina*, *æ*, f. from *santalum*, saunders, because it smells like the saunders wood). See *Abrotanum femina*.

SANTOLINA CHAMÆ-CYPARIS-SUS. The systematic name of the lavender cotton. See *Abrotanum femina*.

SANTONICUM, (*Santonicum*, *i*, n. *σαντονικον*; from *Santonia*, its native place). *Cina*. *Semen contra*. *Semen sanctum*. Tartarean southernwood or wormseed. *Artemisia santonica*; *foliis caulinis linearibus pinnato-multifidis*, *ramis indivisis*, *spicis secundis reflexis*, *floribus quinquefloris*, of Linnæus. Class *Syngenesia*. Order *Polygamia superflua*. The seeds of this plant are small, light, and oval, composed of a number of thin membranous coats of a yellowish green colour, with a cast of brown, easily friable upon being rubbed between the fingers into a fine chaffy kind of substance. They are brought from the Levant; have a moderately strong and not agreeable smell, somewhat of the wormwood kind, and a very bitter subacid taste. They are esteemed to be stomachic, emmenagogue, and anthelmintic; but it is especially for the last mentioned powers that they are now administered, and from their efficacy in this way they have obtained the name of wormseed.

SAPHENA, (*Vena saphena*, from *σαφνη*, visible). The large vein of the leg, which ascends along the little toe over the external ankle, and evacuates part of the blood from the foot into the popliteal veins.

SAPIENTIÆ DENTES, (*Sapientia*, *æ*, f.). The four last grinders are so called, because they appear when the person is supposed to be at years of discretion. See *Teeth*.

SAPINDUS SAPONARIA. The systematic name of the plant which affords soap nuts. See *Saponaria mucula*.

SAPON, (*Sapo*, *onis*, m.). Soap. A composition of oils or fats with alkaline salts. The medicinal soap, *sapo durus*, *sapo amygdalinus*, is made with oil of sweet almonds, and half its weight of potash or caustic alkali. Common or soft soap, *sapo mollis*, is made of tallow; Spanish, or Castile soap, of oil of almonds and the alkaline salt called soda or barilla. Black soap is a composition of train oil and an alkaline salt; and green soap, of hemp, linseed, or rape oil. Soap is a substance much used in surgery and medicine, and enters into various preparations of pills, plasters, and liniments. See *Soda*.

SAPONARIA, (*Saponaria*, *æ*, f. from *sapo*, soap; so called because its juice, like soap, cleans cloaths). Soap-wort. Buise-wort. This root is employed medicinally; it has no peculiar smell; its taste is sweetish, glutinous, and somewhat bitter. On being chewed for some time, it is said to discover a degree of acrimony, which continues to affect the mouth a considerable time. According to Neuman, two ounces of the root yielded eleven drachms of watery extract; but Cartheuser, from a like quantity, only obtained six drachms and twenty-four grains. This extract manifested a sweetish taste, followed by an acrid quality. The spirituous extract is less in quality, but of a more penetrating acrid taste. Decoctions of the root, on being sufficiently agitated produce a saponaceous froth; a similar soapy quality is observable also in the extract, and still more manifestly in the leaves, inasmuch that they have been used by the mendicant monks as a substitute for soap in washing of their cloaths; and Bergius, who made several experiments with the saponaria, declares, that it had all the effects of soap itself.

From these peculiar qualities of the saponaria, there can be little doubt of its possessing a considerable

share of medical efficacy, which we could wish to find faithfully ascertained.

The diseases for which the saponaria is recommended, as syphilis, gout, rheumatism, and jaundice, are not, perhaps, the complaints in which its use is most availing; for a fancied resemblance of the roots of saponaria with those of sarsaparilla, seems to have led physicians to think them similar in their effects; and hence they have both been administered with the same intentions, particularly in fixed pains, and venereal affections. Bergius says, "in arthritide, cura mercuriale, &c. nulum aptiorem potum novi." However, according to several writers, the most inveterate cases of syphilis were cured by a decoction of this plant, without the use of mercury.

Haller informs us, that Boerhaave entertained an high opinion of its efficacy in jaundice, and other visceral obstructions.

SAPONARIA CUCULA. *Bacca bermudenses.* Soap berries. A spherical fruit, about the size of a cherry, whose cortical part is yellow, glossy, and so transparent, as to shew the spherical black nut which rattles within, and which includes a white kernel. It is the produce of the *Sapindus saponaria* of Linnaeus, which grows in Jamaica. It is said that the cortical part of this fruit has a bitter taste, and no smell, that it raises a soapy froth with water, and has similar effects with soap in washing; that it is a medicine of singular and specific virtue in chlorosis. They are not known in the shops of this country.

SAPONARIA OFFICINALIS. The systematic name of the soap-wort. See *Saponaria*.

SAPONULES. *Saponuli.* Combinations of the volatile or essential oils with different bases; as, *saponule of alumine*.

SAPONULES ACID. Combinations of the volatile or essential oils with different acids.

SAPOTA. The oval fruited sapota, whose seeds are sometimes given in form of emulsion in calculous complaints, is the *Acras sapota* of Linnaeus. It is a native of South America, and bears a fruit like an apple, which has, when ripe, a luscious taste, resembling that of the marmalade of quinces, whence it is called natural marmalade.

SAPPAN LIGNUM. Logwood has been so called. See *Lignum campechense*.

SAPPHIRE. A gem of a sky-blue colour.

SARACENS CONSOUND. The golden rod is sometimes so termed. See *Virga aurea*.

SARCOCELE, (*Sarcocoele*, is, f. *σαρκουλη*; from *σάρξ*, flesh, and *κῆλη*, a tumour). Diseased testicle. This is a disease of the body of the testicle, and, as the term implies, consists, in general, in such an alteration made in the structure of it, as produces a resemblance to a hard fleshy substance, instead of that fine, soft, vascular texture, of which it is, in a natural and healthy state, composed.

The ancient writers have made a great number of distinctions of the different kinds of this disease, according to its different appearances, and according to the mildness or malignity of the symptoms with which it may chance to be attended. Thus, the *sarcocoele*, the *hydro-sarcocoele*, the *scirrhus*, the *cancer*, the *caro adnata ad testem*, and the *caro adnata ad vasa*, which are really little more than descriptions of different states and circumstances of the same disease, are reckoned as so many different complaints, requiring a variety of treatment, and deriving their origin from a variety of different humours.

Every species of sarcocoele consists

primarily in an enlargement, induration, and obstruction of the vascular part of the testicle; but this alteration is, in different people, attended with such a variety of circumstances, as to produce several different appearances, and to occasion the many distinctions which have been made.

If the body of the testicle, though enlarged, and indurated to some degree, be perfectly equal in its surface, void of pain, has no appearance of fluid in its tunica vaginalis, and produces very little uneasiness, except what is occasioned by its mere weight, it is usually called a simple *sarcocoele*, or an indolent scirrhus; if, at the same time that the testis is enlarged and hardened, there be a palpable accumulation of fluid in the vaginal coat, the disease has by many been named a *hydro-sarcocoele*; if the lower part of the spermatic vessels, and the epididymis were enlarged, hard, and knotty, they supposed it to be a fungous or morbid accretion, and called it the *caro adnata ad vasa*; if the testicle itself was unequal in its surface, but at the same time not painful, they distinguish it by the title of *caro adnata ad testem*; if it was tolerably equal, not very painful, nor frequently so, but at the same time hard and large, they gave it the appellation of an occult or benign cancer; if it was ulcerated, subject to frequent acute pain, to hæmorrhage, &c. it was known by that of a malignant or confirmed cancer. These different appearances, though distinguished by different titles, are really no more than so many stages (as it were) of the same kind of disease, and depend a great deal on several accidental circumstances, such as age, habit, manner of living, &c. It is true, that many people pass several years with this disease, under its most favourable appearances, and without encountering any of its worst; but, on the other hand, there

are many, who, in a very short space of time, run through all its stages. They who are most conversant with it know, how very convertible its mildest symptoms are into its most dreadful ones, and how very short a space of time often intervenes between the one and the other.

There is hardly any disease affecting the human body which is subject to more variety than this is, both with regard to its first manner of appearance, and the changes which it may undergo.

Sometimes the first appearance is a mere simple enlargement and induration of the body of the testicle; void of pain, without inequality of surface, and producing no uneasiness or inconvenience, except what is occasioned by its mere weight. And some few people are so fortunate to have it remain in this state for a very considerable length of time without visible or material alteration. On the other hand, it sometimes happens, that very soon after its appearance in this mild manner, it suddenly becomes unequal and knotty, and is attended with very acute pains darting up to the loins and back, but still remaining entire, that is, not bursting through the integuments. Sometimes the fury of the disease brooks no restraint; but, making its way through all the membranes which envelope the testicle, it either produces a large, foul, stinking, phagedenic ulcer, with hard edges, or it thrusts forth a painful gleeting fungus, subject to frequent hæmorrhage.

Sometimes an accumulation of water is made in the tunica vaginalis, producing that mixed appearance, called the *hydro-sarcocoele*.

Sometimes there is no fluid at all in the cavity of the tunica vaginalis; but the body of the testicle itself is formed into cells, containing either a turbid kind of water, a bloody

sanies, or a purulent foetid matter. Sometimes the disorder seems to be merely local, that is, confined to the testicle, not proceeding from a tainted habit, nor accompanied with diseased viscera, the patient having all the general appearances and circumstances of health, and deriving his local mischief from an external injury. At other times, a pallid, leaden countenance, indigestion, frequent nausea, cholic pains, sudden purgings, &c. sufficiently indicate a vitiated habit, and diseased viscera, which diseased viscera may also sometimes be discovered and felt.

The progress, also, which it makes from the testis upward, toward the process, is very uncertain; the disease occupying the testicle only, without affecting the spermatic process, in some subjects, for a great length of time; while, in others, it totally spoils the testicle very soon, and, almost as soon, seizes on the spermatic chord.

SARCOCOLLA, (*Sarcocolla*, *æ*, *f.* σαρκocolλα, flesh glue; from *σαρξ*, flesh, and *κόλλα*, glue, because of its supposed power of glueing together wounds). A concrete gummi-resinous juice, supposed to be the produce of the *Penæa mucronata* of Linnaeus. It is brought from Persia and Arabia in small grains of a pale yellow colour, having also sometimes mixed with them a few of a deep red colour. Its taste is bitter, but followed with some degree of sweetness. It has been chiefly used for external purposes, and, as its name imports, has been thought to agglutinate wounds and ulcers; but this opinion now no longer exists. It is an ingredient in the *pulvis e. cerussa*.

SARCOLOGY, (*Sarcologia*, *æ*, *f.* σαρκολογια; from *σαρξ*, flesh, and *λόγος*, a discourse). The doctrine of the muscles and soft parts.

SARCOMA, (*Sarcoma*, *atis*, *n.* σαρκωμα; from *σαρξ*, flesh). *Sarcosis*.

A fleshy excrescence. A genus of disease in the class *locales* and order *tumores* of Cullen.

SARCOMPHALUS, (*Sarcomphalus*, *i*, *m.* σαρκομφαλος; from *σαρξ*, flesh, and *ομφαλος*, the navel). A fleshy excrescence about the navel.

SARCOSIS. See *Sarcoma*.

SARDONIC LAUGH, (*Risus sardonius*; so called from the herb *sardonias*, which grows in the island of Sardonias, and is said to produce it). A convulsive laughter. See *Risus sardonius*.

SARSAPARILLA, (*Sarsaparilla*, *æ*, *f.*; this word is of Spanish origin, signifying a red tree). The root of this plant, *Smilax sarsaparilla* of Linnaeus, (*Smilax caule aculeato angulato, foliis inermibus ovatis retuso-mucronatis trinerveis*. Class *Dioecia*. Order *Hexandria*), has a farinaceous, somewhat bitter taste, and no smell. About two centuries ago it was introduced into Spain as an undoubted specific in syphilitic disorders; but owing to difference of climate, or other causes, it has not answered the character which it had acquired in the Spanish West Indies. It is now considered as capable of improving the general habit of body after it has been reduced by the continued use of mercury.

To refute the opinion that sarsaparilla possesses antisyphilitic virtues, Mr. Pearson, of the Lock Hospital, divides the subject into two distinct questions. 1st, Is the sarsaparilla root, when given alone, to be safely relied on, in the treatment of lues venerea? The late Mr. Bloomfield, his predecessor, and during some years his colleague, at the Lock Hospital, has given a very decided answer to this question: "I solemnly declare (says he) I never saw a single instance in my life where it cured that disorder, without the assistance of mercury, either at the same time with it, or when it had been previ-

ously taken before the decoction was directed." Mr. Pearson's experience, during many years, coincides entirely with the observations of Mr. Bloomfield. He has employed the sarsaparilla, in powder and in decoctions, in an almost infinite variety of cases, and feels himself fully authorised to assert, that this plant has not the power of curing any one form of the lues venerea. The sarsaparilla, indeed, like the guaicum, is capable of alleviating symptoms derived from the venereal virus; and it sometimes manifests the power of suspending, for a time, the destructive ravages of that contagion; but where the poison has not been previously subdued by mercury, the symptoms will quickly return; and, in addition to them, we often see the most indubitable proofs that the disease is making an actual progress, during the regular administration of the vegetable remedy.

2d, When the sarsaparilla root is given in conjunction with mercury, does it render the mercurial course more certain and efficacious? In replying to this query, it is necessary to observe, that the phrase, "to increase the efficacy of mercury," may imply, that a smaller quantity of this mineral antidote will confer security on an infected person, when sarsaparilla is added to it; or it may mean, that mercury would be sometimes unequal to the cure, without the aid of sarsaparilla. If a decoction of this root did indeed possess so admirable a quality, that the quantity of mercury necessary to effect a cure, might be safely reduced, whenever it was given during a mercurial course, it would form a most valuable addition to our materia medica. This opinion has been, however, unfortunately falsified by the most ample experience, and whoever shall be so unwary as to act upon such a presumption, will be sure to find his

own and his patient's expectations egregiously disappointed.

If the sarsaparilla root be a genuine antidote against the syphilitic virus, it ought to cure the disease when administered alone; but, if no direct proof can be adduced of its being equal to this, any arguments founded on histories where mercury has been previously given, or where both the medicines were administered at the same time, must be ambiguous and undecisive.

It appears probable, that Sir William Fordyce, and some other persons, entertained a notion, that there were certain venereal symptoms which commonly resisted the potency of mercury, and that the sarsaparilla was an appropriate remedy in these cases. This opinion, it is presumed, is not correct, for it militates against all Mr. P. has ever observed of the progress and treatment of lues venerea. Indeed those patients who have lately used a full course of mercury, often complain of nocturnal pains in their limbs; they are sometimes afflicted with painful enlargements of the elbow and knee joints; or they have membranous nodes, cutaneous excoriations, and certain other symptoms, resembling those which are the offspring of the venereal virus.

It may and does often happen, that appearances like these are mistaken for a true venereal affection, and, in consequence of this error, mercury is administered, which never fails to exasperate the disease. Now, if a strong decoction of sarsaparilla root be given to persons under these circumstances, it will seldom fail of producing the most beneficial effects; hence it has been contended, that symptoms derived from the contagion of lues venerea, which could not be cured by mercury, have finally yielded to this vegetable remedy. It must be acknowledged, that representations of this kind have a specious

and imposing air; nevertheless, Mr. Pearson endeavours to prove, that they are neither exact nor conclusive. If any of the above-named symptoms should appear near the conclusion of a course of mercury, when that medicine was operating powerfully on the whole system, it would be a strange and inexplicable thing if they could possibly be derived immediately from the uncontrolled agency of the venereal virus.

This would imply something like a palpable contradiction; that the antidote should be operating with sufficient efficacy to cure the venereal symptoms, for which it was directed; while, at the same time, the venereal virus was proceeding to contaminate new parts, and to excite a new order of appearances.

One source, and a very common one, to which some of the mistakes committed upon this subject may be traced, is a persuasion that every morbid alteration which arises in an infected person is actually tainted with the venereal virus, and ought to be ascribed to it as its true cause.

Every experienced surgeon must, however, be aware, that very little of truth and reality exists in a representation of this kind. The contagious matter, and the mineral specific, may jointly produce, in certain habits of body, a new series of symptoms, which, strictly speaking, are not venereal, which cannot be cured by mercury, and which are sometimes more to be dreaded than the simple and natural effects of the venereal virus.

Some of the most formidable of these appearances may be sometimes removed by sarsaparilla, the venereal virus still remaining in the system; and, when the force of that poison has been completely subdued by mercury, the same vegetable is also capable of freeing the patient from what

may be called the sequelæ of a mercurial course.

The root of the sarsaparilla is sometimes employed in rheumatic affections, scrofula, and cutaneous complaints, where an acrimony of the fluids prevail.

SARSAPARILLA GERMANICA. The root of the *Carex arenaria* of Linnæus, which grows plentifully on the sea-coast, is so termed, and it appears, that the *carex disticha* and *hirta* have also been collected, and their roots used indifferently instead of the true sarsaparilla. The root of the *carex arenaria* has been found serviceable in some mucal affections of the trachea, in rheumatic pains, and gouty affections.

SARTORIUS, (*Sartorius*, *sc. musculus*, from *sartor*, a taylor, because taylor's cross their legs with it). This flat and slender muscle, which is the longest of the human body, and from an inch and a half to two inches in breadth, is situated immediately under the integuments, and extends obliquely from the upper and anterior part of the thigh to the upper, anterior, and inner part of the tibia, being inclosed by a thin membranous sheath, which is derived from the adjacent *fascia lata*. It arises, by a tendon of about half an inch in breadth, from the outer surface and inferior edge of the anterior superior spinous process of the ilium, but soon becomes fleshy, and runs down a little way obliquely inwards, and then for some space upon the rectus, nearly in a straight direction; after which it passes obliquely over the vastus internus, and the lower part of the adductor longus, and then running down between the tendons of the adductor magnus and the gracilis, is inserted, by a thin tendon, into the inner part of the tibia, near the inferior part of its tuberosity, and for the space of an inch or two below it. This tendon sends off a thin

aponeurosis, which is spread over the upper and posterior part of the leg. This muscle serves to bend the leg obliquely inwards, or to roll the thigh outwards, and at the same time to bring one leg across the other, on which account Spigelius first gave it the name of *sartorius*, or the tailor's muscle.

SASSÄFRAS, (*Sassafras*, n. ind. *quasi saxafraga*, from *saxum*, a stone, and *frango*, to break; so called because a decoction of its wood was supposed good for the stone). The wood of the sassafras tree, *Laurus sassafras* of Linnæus, (*Laurus foliis trilobis integrisque*. Class *Enneandria*. Order *Monogynia*), is imported from North America in long straight pieces, very light, and of a spongy texture, and covered with a rough fungous bark. It has a fragrant smell, and a sweetish, aromatic, sub-acrid taste; the root, wood, and bark agree in their medical qualities, and are all mentioned in the pharmacopœias; but the bark is the most fragrant, and thought to be more efficacious than the woody part. and the branches are preferred to the large pieces. The medical character of this drug was formerly held in great estimation, and publications were professedly written on the subject. It is now, however, thought to be of very little importance, and seldom used but in conjunction with other medicines, as a corrector of the fluids. It is an ingredient in the *decoctum sarsaparille compositum*; but the only officinal preparation of it is the essential oil, which is carminative and stimulant.

SATELLITE VEINS. The veins which accompany the brachial artery as far as the bend of the cubit.

SATURATION. A term employed in pharmacy and chemistry to express that state of a body which has a power of dissolving another, to a certain extent only, in which it has ef-

fecting that degree of solution; thus, nitric acid, for instance, can only dissolve a certain quantity of lime, beyond which it does not act, having lost its former affinity; this degree of solution is termed the point of saturation, and it is then said that the nitric acid is saturated with lime.

SATUREJA, (*Satureja*, a, f. from *satyri*, the lustful satyrs, because it makes those who eat it lascivious. Blanch). *Culina sativa Plinii*. *Thymba*. Summer savory. This low shrub is the *Satureja sativa* of Linnæus, cultivated in our gardens for culinary purposes. It has a warm, aromatic, penetrating taste, and smells like thyme, but milder. It is an ingredient in most of the warm stews and made dishes.

SATUREJA CAPITATA. The systematic name of the ciliated savory. See *Thymus creticus*.

SATUREJA HORTENSIS. The systematic name of the summer savory. See *Satureja*.

SATURNUS, (*Saturnus*, i, m. from the planet or heathen god of that name). The chemical name of lead.

SATYRIASIS, (*Satyriasis*, is, f. *σατυριασις*; from *σατυρος*, a satyr, because they are said to be greatly addicted to venery). *Satyriasmus*. *Priapismus*. *Salacitas*. Excessive and violent desire for coition in men. A genus of disease in the class *locales* and order *dysforesia* of Cullen.

SATYRION, (*Satyrium*, i, n. *σατυριον*; from *σατυρος*, an animal given to venery, so called because it was supposed to excite venery if only held in the hand). Dog-stones. Male orchis. The root of the *Orchis mascula bulbis indivisis, nectarii labio quadrilobo crenulato, cornu obtuso petalis dorsalibus reflexis* of Linnæus. Class *Gynandria*. Order *Diandria*, which has a place in the materia medica of the Edinburgh pharmaco-

poëia, on account of the glutinous slimy juice which it contains. The root of the *ochis bifolia* is also collected. Satyrion root has a sweetish taste, a faint and somewhat unpleasant smell. Its mucilaginous or gelatinous quality has recommended it as a demulcent. Salep, which is imported here from the East, is a preparation of this root, which, considered as an article of diet, is accounted extremely nutritious, as containing a great quantity of farinaceous matter in a small bulk. See *Salep*.

SATYRIUM. See *Satyrion*.

SAUCE ALONE. See *Alliaria*.

SAUNDERS RED. See *Santalum rubrum*.

SAUNDERS YELLOW. See *Santalum citrinum*.

SAVIN. See *Sabina*.

SAVINA. See *Sabina*.

SAVOURY. See *Satureja*.

SAXIFRAGA ALBA. White saxifrage. *Saxifraga granulata* of Linnæus, who describes the taste of this plant to be acrid and pungent, which we have not been able to discover: neither the tubercles of the root, nor the leaves manifest to the organs of taste any quality likely to be of medicinal use, and therefore, though this species of saxifrage has been long employed as a popular remedy in nephritic and gravelly disorders, yet we do not find either from its sensible qualities, or from any published instances of its efficacy, that it deserves a place in the materia medica. The superstitious doctrine of signatures suggested the use of the root, which is a good example of what Linnæus has termed *radix granulata*. The bulbs or tubercles of such roots answer an important purpose in vegetation, by supplying the plants with nourishment and moisture, and thereby enabling them to resist the effects of that drought to which the dry soils they inhabit peculiarly expose them.

SAXIFRAGE BURNET. See *Pimpinella*.

SAXIFRAGA CRASSIFOLIA. The roots of this species of saxifrage is extolled by Professor Pallas as an antiseptic.

SAXIFRAGE, ENGLISH. See *Saxifraga vulgaris*.

SAXIFRAGA GRANULATA. The systematic name of the white saxifrage. See *Saxifraga alba*.

SAXIFRAGE, MEADOW. See *Saxifraga vulgaris*.

SAXIFRAGA RUBRA. See *Filipendula*.

SAXIFRAGA VULGARIS. *Hippomarathrum*. *Feniculum erraticum*. English or meadow saxifrage. *Peucedanum filans* of Linnæus. The roots, leaves, and seeds of this plant have been commended as aperients, diuretics, and carminatives; and appear from their aromatic smell and moderately warm, pungent, bitterish taste, to have some claim to these virtues. They are rarely used.

SAXIFRAGE, WHITE. See *Saxifraga alba*.

SCAB. A hard substance covering superficial ulcerations, and formed by a concretion of the fluid discharged from them.

SCABIES, (*Scabies*, ei, f.). The itch. A synonym of *Pso*. See *Pso*.

SCABIOSA, (*Scabiosa*, e, f. from *scaber*, rough; so called from its rough hairy surface). The common scabious. This herb, *Scabiosa arvensis*, *corollis quadrifidis*, *radiantibus*; *foliis pinnatifidis*, *incisis*; *caule hispido* of Linnæus, and its flowers are sometimes used medicinally. The whole plant possesses a bitter and subadstringent taste, and was formerly much employed in the cure of some leprous affections, whence its name, and diseases of the lungs.

SCABIOSA ARVENSIS. The systematic name of the common field scabious. See *Scabiosa*.

SCABIŌSA SUCCĪSA. The systematic name of the devil's bit scabious. See *Morsus diaboli*.

SCALA TYMPĀNI. The superior spiral cavity of the cochlea.

SCALA VESTĪBŪLI. The inferior spiral cavity of the cochlea.

SCALD HEAD. The vulgar name for *tinea capitis*. See *Tinea capitis*.

SCALE, (*Squama*, *a*, *f*.) A lamina of morbid cuticle, hard, thickened, whitish, and opaque, having at first the figure and extent of the cuticular lozenge; which afterwards often increases into irregular layers, denominated crusts. Both scales and crusts repeatedly fall off, and are reproduced in a short time.

SCALĒNI MUSCŪLI, (*Scalenus*, from *σκαλανος*, irregular or unequal). Anatomical writers have differed greatly in their descriptions of this muscle, which is situated at the side of the neck, between the transverse processes of the cervical vertebræ and the upper part of the thorax. The ancients, who gave it its name from its resemblance to an irregular triangle, considered it as one muscle. Vesalius and Winslow divide it into two; Fallopius and Cowper into three; Douglas into four, and Albinus into five portions, which they describe as distinct muscles. Without deviating in the least from anatomical accuracy, it may be considered as one muscle, divided into three portions. The anterior portion arises commonly from the transverse processes of the six inferior vertebræ of the neck, by as many short tendons, and descending obliquely outwards, is inserted tendinous and fleshy, into the upper side of the first rib, near its cartilage. The axillary artery passes through this portion, and sometimes divides it into two slips, about an inch and a half above its insertion. The middle portion arises by distinct tendons, from the trans-

verse processes of the four last vertebræ of the neck, and descending obliquely outwards and a little backwards, is inserted tendinous into the outer and upper part of the first rib, from its root to within the distance of an inch from its cartilage. The space between this and the anterior portion, affords a passage to the nerves going to the upper extremities. It is in part covered by the third or posterior portion, which is the thinnest and longest of the three. This arises from the transverse processes of the second, third, fourth, and fifth vertebræ of the neck, by distinct tendons, and is inserted into the upper edge of the second rib, at the distance of about an inch and a half from its articulation, by a broad flat tendon. The use of the scalenus is to move the neck to one side, when it acts singly, or to bend it forwards, when both muscles act; and when the neck is fixed, it serves to elevate the ribs and dilate the chest.

SCALĒNUS PRIMUS. See *Scaleni musculi*.

SCALĒNUS SECUNDUS. See *Scaleni musculi*.

SCALĒNUS TERTIUS. See *Scaleni musculi*.

SCAMMŌNIUM, (*Scammonium*, *i*, *n*. *σκαμμωνια*; a corruption of the Arabian word *chamozah*). Scammony. The concrete gummi-resinous juice of the *Convolvulus scammonia*; *foliis sagittatis postice truncatis, pedunculis teretibus subulifloris* of Linnæus. Class *Pentandria*. Order *Monogynia*. It is from the milky juice of the root that we obtain the officinal scammony, which is procured in the following manner by the peasants who collect it in the beginning of June: having cleared away the earth from about the root, they cut off the top in an oblique direction, about two inches below where the stalks spring from it. Under the most depending

part of the slope they fix a shell, or some other convenient receptacle, into which the milky juice gradually flows. It is left there about twelve hours, which time is sufficient for draining off the whole juice; this, however, is in small quantity, each root affording but a very few drachms. This juice from the several roots is put together, often into a leg of an old boot for want of some more proper vessel, where in a little time it grows hard, and is the genuine scammony. It is brought from Aleppo and Smyrna in masses, generally of a light shining gray colour, and friable texture; of rather an unpleasant smell, and bitterish and slightly acrid taste. The scammony of Aleppo is by far the purest. That of Smyrna is ponderous, black, and mixed with extraneous matters. Scammony appears to have been well known to the Greek and Arabian physicians, and was exhibited internally as a purgative, and externally for the itch, tinea, fixed pains, &c. It is seldom given alone, but enters several compounds, which are administered as purgatives.

SCAMMONY. See *Scammonium*.

SCANDIX CEREFOLIUM. The systematic name of the officinal chervil. See *Cerefolium*.

SCANDIX ODORATA. The systematic name of the sweet cicely, which possesses virtues similar to the common chervil. See *Cerefolium*.

SCAPHA, (*Scapha*, *a*, f. *σκαφη*; a skiff, or cock-boat; from *σκαπτο*, to make hollow, because formerly they were made by excavating a large tree). The excavation or cavity of the auricula or external ear, between the helix and antihelix.

SCAPHOID BONE, (*Os scaphoides*, from *σκαφη*, a little vessel or boat, and *ειδος*, resemblance). A bone of the tarsus. See *Naviculare os*.

SCAPHOIDES OS, (*Scaphoides*, *τρε-*
ποςιδης; from *σκαφη*, a skiff, and

ειδος, a likeness, applied to the first bone of the first row in the wrist, from its resemblance to a little boat). See *Naviculare os*.

SCAPULA, (*Scapula*, *a*, f. from the Hebrew *schipha*). *Omoplatz*. *Os homoplatz*. The shoulder blade. The scapula or shoulder blade, which approaches nearly to a triangular figure, is fixed, not unlike a buckler, to the upper, posterior, and lateral part of the thorax, extending from the first to about the seventh rib. The anterior and internal surface of this bone is irregularly concave, from the impression, not of the ribs, as the generality of anatomists have supposed, but of the subscapularis muscle. Its posterior and external surface is convex, and divided into two unequal fossæ by a considerable spine, which, rising small from the posterior edge of the scapula, becomes gradually higher and broader as it approaches the anterior and superior angle of the bone, till at length it terminates in a broad and flat process, at the top of the shoulder, called the *processus acromion*. On the anterior edge of this *processus acromion* we observe an oblong, concave, articulating surface, covered with cartilage, for the articulation of the scapula with the clavicle. At its lower part the acromion is hollowed, to allow a passage to the supra and infra spinati muscles. The ridge of the spine affords two rough, flat surfaces, for the insertion of the trapezius and deltoid muscles. Of the two fossæ into which the external surface of the bone is divided by the spine, the superior one, which is the smallest, serves to lodge the supra spinatus muscle; and the inferior fossa, which is much larger than the other, gives origin to the infra spinatus. The triangular shape of the scapula leads us to consider its angles and its sides. The upper posterior angle is neither so thick, nor has so

rough a surface, as the inferior one; but the most remarkable of the three angles of this bone is the anterior one, which is of great thickness, and formed into a glenoid cavity of an oval shape, the greatest diameter of which is from below upwards. This cavity, in the recent subject, is furnished with cartilage, and receives the head of the os humeri. The cartilaginous crust, which surrounds its brims, makes it appear deeper in the fresh subject than in the skeleton. A little beyond this glenoid cavity the bone becomes narrower, so as to give the appearance of a neck; and above this rises a considerable process, which, from being thick at its origin, becomes thinner, and in some degree flattened at its extremity. This process projects considerably, and is curved downwards. From its supposed resemblance to the beak of a bird, it is called the *coracoid* process. From the whole external side of this process, a strong and broad ligament is stretched to the processus acromion, becoming narrower as it approaches the latter process, so as to be of a somewhat triangular shape. This ligament, and the two processes with which it is connected, are evidently intended for the protection of the joint, and to prevent a luxation of the os humeri upwards. Of the three sides of the scapula, the posterior one, which is the longest, is called the *basis*. This side is turned towards the vertebræ. Its other two sides are called *costa*. The superior costa, which is the upper and shortest side, is likewise thinner than the other two, having a sharp edge. It is nearly horizontal, and parallel with the second rib; and is interrupted, near the basis of the coracoid process, by a semi-circular notch, which is closed by a ligament that extends from one end of it to the other, and affords a passage to vessels and nerves.

Besides this passage, there are other niches in the scapula, for the transmission of vessels; viz. one between the coracoid process and the head of the bone, and another between its neck and the processus acromion. The third side of the scapula, or the inferior costa, as it is called, is of considerable thickness, and extends obliquely from the neck of the bone to its inferior angle, reaching from about the third to the eighth rib. The scapula has but very little cellular substance, and is of unequal thickness, being very thin at its middle part, where it is covered by a great number of muscles, and having its neck, the acromion, and coracoid process, of considerable strength. In the foetus, the basis and the neck of the scapula, together with its glenoid cavity, acromion, coracoid process, and the ridge of the spine, are so many epiphyses with respect to the rest of the bone, to which they are not completely united till a considerable time after birth. The scapula is articulated to the clavicle and os humeri, to which last it serves as a fulcrum; and, by altering its position, it affords a greater scope to the bones of the arm in their different motions. It likewise affords attachment to a great number of muscles, and posteriorly serves as a defence to the thorax.

SCARBOROUGH WATER. There are two species of chalybeate water found in this spot, and they differ considerably in their composition, though they rise nearly contiguous to each other. The one is a simple carbonated chalybeate similar to the Tunbridge water; the other, which is better known and more frequented, and more particularly distinguished as Scarborough water, has, in conjunction with the iron, a considerable admixture of a purging salt, which adds much to its value. The disease in which it is ordered are

similar to those in which Cheltenham water is prescribed, only it is necessary to increase the purgative effect of this water by adding similar salts. It is therefore chiefly as an alterative that this water can be employed in its natural state.

SCARF SKIN. See *Cuticle* and *Skin*.

SCARIFICATION. A superficial incision made with a lancet, or a surgical instrument called a scarificator.

SCARIOLA. See *Lactuca sylvestris*.

SCARIOLA GALLORUM. The lactuca scariola is sometimes so termed. See *Lactuca sylvestris*.

SCARLATINA, (*Scarlatina*, *a*, f. from *scarlatto*, a lively red. Ital.). The scarlet fever. A genus of disease in the class *pyrexia* and order *exanthemata* of Cullen; characterized by contagious synocha; the fourth day the face swells; a scarlet eruption appears on the skin in patches; which after three or four days ends in the desquamation of the cuticle, or is succeeded by anasarca. It has two species: 1. *Scarlatina simplex*, the mild. 2. *Scarlatina cynanchica*, or *anginosa*, with ulcerated sore throat.

SCARLET FEVER. See *Scarlatina*.

SCATICA CRESSSES. See *Iberis*.

SCHEROMA, (*Scheroma*, *atis*, n.). A dryness of the eye from the want of the lacrymal fluid. The effects of this lacrymal fluid being deficient, the eyes become dry, and in their motions produce a sensation as though sand, or some gritty substances, were between the eye and the eyelid; the vision is obscured, the globe of the eye appears foulish and dull, which is a bad omen in acute diseases. The species are, 1. *Scheroma febrile*, or a dryness of the eyes, which is observed in fevers, complicated with a phlogistic density of the humours. 2. *Scheroma exhaustorum*, which

happens after great evacuations, and in persons dying. 3. *Scheroma inflammatorum*, which is a symptom of the ophthalmia sicca. 4. *Scheroma itinerantium*, or the dryness of the eyes, which happens in sandy places to travellers, as in hot Syria, or from dry winds, which dries up the humidity necessary for the motion of the eyes.

SCIATICA, (*Sciatica*, *a*, f.). *Ischias*. A rheumatic affection of the hip joint.

SCHOENANTHUS, (*Schoenanthus*, *i*, f. *σχονανθος*; from *σχονος*, a rush. and *ανθος*, a flower). Sweet rush, or camel's hay. See *Juncus odoratus*.

SCIATIC ARTERY. Ischiatic artery. A branch of the internal iliac.

SCIATIC NERVE. Ischiatic nerve. A branch of a nerve of the lower extremity, formed by the union of the lumbar and sacral nerves. It is divided near the popliteal cavity into the tibial and peroneal, which are distributed to the leg and foot.

SCIATIC NOTCH. Ischiatic notch. See *Innominatum os*.

SCILLA, (*Scilla*, *a*, f. *σκίλλα*; from *σκιλλω*, to dry; so called from its properties of drying up humours). *Ornithogalum maritimum*. *Squilla*. Squill, or sea onion. *Scilla maritima* of Linnaeus. *Scilla nudiflora*, *bracteis refractis*. Class *Hexandria*. Order *Monogynia*. A native of Spain, Sicily, and Syria, growing on the sea-coast. The red rooted variety has been supposed to be more efficacious than the white, and is therefore still preferred for medicinal use. The root of the squill, which appears to have been known as a medicine in the early ages of Greece, and has so well maintained its character ever since as to be deservedly in great estimation, and of very frequent use at this time, seems to manifest a poisonous quality to several animals. In proof

of this, we have the testimonies of Hillefield, Bergius, Vogel, and others. Its acrimony is so great, that even if much handled it exulcerates the skin, and if given in large doses, and frequently repeated, it not only excites nausea, tormina, and violent vomiting, but it has been known to produce strangury, bloody urine, hypercatharsis, cardialgia, hæmorrhoids, convulsions, with fatal inflammation, and gangrene of the stomach and bowels. But as many of the active articles of the materia medica, by injudicious administration, become equally deleterious, these effects of the scilla do not derogate from its medicinal virtues; on the contrary, we feel ourselves fully warranted in representing this drug, under proper management, and in certain cases and constitutions, to be a medicine of great practical utility, and real importance in the cure of many obstinate diseases. Its effects, as stated by Bergius, are incisans, diuretica, emetica, subpurgans, hydrogoga, expectorans, emmenagoga. In hydropical cases it has long been esteemed the most certain and effectual diuretic with which we are acquainted; and in asthmatic affections, or dyspnoea, occasioned by the lodgment of tenaceous phlegm, it has been the expectorant usually employed. The squill, especially in large doses, is apt to stimulate the stomach, and to prove emetic; and it sometimes acts on the intestines, and becomes purgative; but when these operations take place, the medicine is prevented from reaching the blood vessels and kidneys, and the patient is deprived of its diuretic effects, which are to be obtained by giving the squill in smaller doses, repeated at more distant intervals, or by the joining of an opiate to this medicine, which was found by Dr. Cullen to answer the same purpose. The Doctor further observes, that from a

continued repetition of the squill, the dose may be gradually increased, and the intervals of its exhibitions shortened; and when in this way the doses come to be tolerably large, the opiate may be most conveniently employed to direct the operation of the squill more certainly to the kidneys. "In cases of dropsy, that is, when there is an effusion of water into the cavities, and therefore that less water goes to the kidneys, we are of opinion that neutral salt, accompanying the squill, may be of use in determining this fluid more certainly to the kidneys; and whenever it can be perceived that it takes this course, we are persuaded that it will be always useful, and generally safe, during the exhibition of the squills, to increase the usual quantity of drink."

The diuretic effects of squills have been supposed to be promoted by the addition of some mercurial; and the less purgative preparations of mercury, in the opinion of Dr. Cullen, are best adapted to this purpose; he therefore recommends a solution of corrosive sublimate, as being more proper than any other, because most diuretic. Where the primæ viæ abound with mucous matter, and the lungs are oppressed with viscid phlegm, this medicine is likewise in general estimation.

As an expectorant, the squill may be supposed not only to attenuate the mucous follicles to excite a more copious excretion of it from the lungs, and thereby lessen the congestion, upon which the difficulty of respiration very generally depends. Therefore in all pulmonic affections, excepting only those of actual or violent inflammation, ulcer, and spasm, the squill has been experienced to be an useful medicine. The officinal preparations of squills are, a conserve, dried squills, a syrup, and vinegar, an oxymel, and pills. Practitioners

have not, however, confined themselves to these. When this root was intended as a diuretic, it has most commonly been used in powder, as being in this state less disposed to nauseate the stomach; and to the powder it has been the practice to add neutral salts, as nitre, or crystals of tartar, especially if the patient complained of much thirst; others recommend calomel; and with a view to render the squills less offensive to the stomach, it has been usual to conjoin an aromatic. The dose of dried squill is from two to four or six grains once a day, or half this quantity twice a day; afterwards to be regulated according to its effects. The dose of the other preparations of this drug, when fresh, should be four times this weight; for this root loses in the process of drying four fifths of its original weight, and this loss is merely a watery exhalation.

SCILLA MARITIMA. The systematic name of the officinal squill. See *Scilla*.

SCINCUS, (*Scincus*, *i*, m. *σκινκος*; from *skeque*, Heb.). The skink. This amphibious animal is of the lizard kind, and caught about the Nile, and thence brought dried into this country, remarkably smooth and glossy, as if varnished. The flesh of the animal, particularly of the belly, has been said to be diuretic, alexipharmic, aphrodisiac, and useful in leprosy disorders.

SCHIRRUS, (*Schirrus*, *i*, m. *σχιρρος*; from *σκισσω*, to harden). A genus of disease in the class *locales* and order *tumores* of Cullen; known by a hard tumour of a glandular part, indolent, and not readily suppurating. The following observations of Mr. Pearson are deserving of attention. A schirrus, he says, is usually defined to be, a hard, and almost insensible tumor, commonly situated in a glandular part, and accompanied with

little or nodi-colouration of the surface of the skin. This description agrees with the true or exquisite schirrus; but when it has proceeded from the indolent to the malignant state, the tumor is then unequal in its figure, it becomes painful, the skin acquires a purple or livid hue, and the cutaneous veins are often varicose. Let us now examine whether this enumeration of symptoms be sufficiently accurate for practical purposes.

“A glandular part.” It is probable, that any gland in the living body may be the seat of a cancerous disease; but it appears more frequently as an idiopathic affection in those glands that form the several secretions than in the absorbent glands: and of the secreting organs, those which separate fluids that are to be employed in the animal economy, suffer much oftner than the glands which secrete the excrementitious parts of the blood. Indeed, it may be doubted whether an absorbent gland be ever the primary seat of a true schirrus. Daily experience evinces, that these glands may suffer contamination from their connection with a cancerous part; but under such circumstances, this morbid alteration being the effect of a disease in that neighbouring part, it ought to be regarded as a secondary or consequent affection. I never yet met with an unequivocal proof of a primary schirrus in an absorbent gland; and if a larger experience shall confirm this observation, and establish it as a general rule, it will afford material assistance in forming the diagnosis of this disease. The general term schirrus hath been applied, with too little discrimination, to indurated tumors of lymphatic glands. When these appendages of the absorbent system enlarge in the early part of life, the disease is commonly treated as strumous; but as a similar alteration of these parts may, and often

does occur at a more advanced period, there ought to be some very good reasons for ascribing malignity to one rather than the other. In old people the tumor is indeed often larger, more indurated, and less tractable than in children; but when the alteration originated in the lymphatic glands, it will very rarely be found to possess any thing cancerous in its nature.

If every other morbid alteration in a part were attended with pain and softness, then induration and defective sensibility might point out the presence of a scirrhus. But this is so far from being the case, that even encysted tumors, at their commencement, frequently excite the sensation of impenetrable hardness. All glands are contained in capsulæ, not very elastic, so that almost every species of chronic enlargement of these bodies must be hard; hence this induration is rather owing to the structure of the part, than to the peculiar nature of the disease: and as glands in their healthy state are not endowed with much sensibility, every disease that gradually produces induration, will rather diminish than increase their perceptive powers. Induration and insensibility may therefore prove that the affected part does not labour under an acute disease; but these symptoms alone can yield no certain information concerning the true nature of the morbid alteration. Those indolent affections of the glands that so frequently appear after the meridian of life, commonly manifest a hardness and want of sensation, not inferior to that which accompanies a true scirrhus; and yet these tumors will often admit of a cure by the same mode of treatment, which we find to be successful in scrophula; and when they prove unconquerable by the powers of medicine, we generally see them continue stationary

and innocent to the latest period of life. Writers have indeed said much about certain tumors changing their nature, and assuming a new character; but I strongly suspect, that the doctrine of the mutation of diseases into each other, stands upon a very uncertain foundation. Improper treatment may, without doubt, exasperate diseases, and render a complaint which appeared to be mild and tractable, dangerous or destructive; but to aggravate the symptoms, and to change the form of the disease, are things that ought not to be confounded. I do not affirm, that a breast which has been the seat of a mammary abscess, or a gland that has been affected with scrophula, may not become cancerous; for they might have suffered from this disease had no previous complaint existed; but these morbid alterations generate no greater tendency to cancer than if the parts had always retained their natural condition. There is no necessary connection between the cancer and any other disease, nor has it ever been clearly proved that one is convertible into the other.

Chirurgical writers have generally enumerated tumor as an essential symptom of the scirrhus; and it is very true, that this disease is often accompanied with an increase of bulk in the part affected. From long and careful observation, I am however induced to think, that an addition to the quantity of matter is rather an accidental than a necessary consequence of the presence of this peculiar affection.

When the breast is the seat of a scirrhus, the altered part is hard, perhaps unequal in its figure, and definite; but these symptoms are not always connected with an actual increase in the dimensions of the breast. On the contrary, the true scirrhus is frequently accompanied with a contrac-

tion and diminution of bulk, a retraction of the nipple, and a puckered state of the skin.

The irritation produced by an indurated substance lying in the breast, will very often cause a determination of blood to that organ, and a consequent enlargement of it; but I consider this as an inflammatory state of the surrounding parts, excited by the scirrhus, acting as a remote cause, and by no means essential to the original complaint. From the evident utility of topical blood-letting under these circumstances a notion has prevailed, that the scirrhus is an inflammatory disease; but the strongly marked dissimilarity of a phlegmon and an exquisite scirrhus, in their appearances, progress, and mode of termination, obliges me to dissent from that opinion. That one portion of the breast may be in a scirrhous state, while the other parts are in a state of inflammation, is agreeable to reason and experience; but that an inflammation, which is an acute disease, and a scirrhus, whose essential characters are almost directly the reverse of inflammation, shall be co-existent in the same part, is not a very intelligible proposition. Tumor and inflammation are commonly met with on a variety of other occasions, and in this particular instance they may be the effects of the disease, but are not essentially connected with its presence.

An incipient scirrhus is seldom accompanied with a discolouration of the skin; and a dusky redness, purple, or even livid appearance of the surface, is commonly seen when there is a malignant scirrhus. The presence or absence of colour can, however, at the best, afford us but a very precarious criterion of the true nature of the complaint. When the disease is clearly known, an altered state of the skin may assist us in judging of the

progress it has made; but as the skin may suffer similar variations in a number of very dissimilar diseases, it would be improper to found an opinion upon so delusive a phenomenon."

SCLARĒA, (*Sclarea*, *a*, from σκληρός, hard; because its stalks are hard and dry, Blanch). The garden clary. See *Salvia sclarea*.

SCLEROTIC COAT, (*Tunica sclerotica*; from σκληρῶ, to harden; so called from its hardness). The outermost coat of the eye, of a white colour, dense, and tenacious. Its anterior part, which is transparent, is termed the *cornea transparen*s. It is into this coat of the eye that the muscles of the bulb are inserted.

SCOLOPENDRIA. The spleenwort or miltwaste is sometimes so called. See *Ceterach*.

SCOLOPENDRIUM, (*Scolopendrium*, *i*, n. σκολοπενδριον; from σκολοπενδρα, the earwig; so called because its leaves resemble the earwig). *Phyllitis. Lingua cervina*. Harts-tongue. This indigenous plant, *Asplenium scolopendrium*; *frondibus simplicibus cordato-lingulatis integerrimis stilibus hirsutis* of Linnæus. Class *Cryptogamia*. Order *Filices*: grows on moist shady banks, walls, &c. It has a slightly astringent and mucilaginous sweetish taste. When fresh and rubbed, it imparts a disagreeable smell. Harts-tongue, and the *five capillary* herbs, of which it is one, was formerly much used to strengthen the viscera, restrain hæmorrhages and alvine fluxes, and to open obstructions of the liver and spleen, and for the general purposes of demulcents and pectorals.

SCOLYMUS, (*Scolymus*, *i*, m. σκολυμο; from σκολος, a thorn; so named from its prickly leaves). The artichoke is sometime so called. See *Cinara*.

SCOPA REGIA. The butcher's

broom, or knee-holly was formerly so termed. See *Ruscus*.

SCORBUTUS, (*Scorbutus*, i, m. from *schorboet*, Germ.). The scurvy. A genus of disease in the class *cachexia* and order *impetigines* of Cullen; characterized by extreme debility; complexion pale and bloated; spongy gums; livid spots on the skin; breath offensive; œdematous swellings in the legs; hæmorrhages; foul ulcers; fetid urine; and extremely offensive stools. The scurvy is a disease of a putrid nature, much more prevalent in cold climates than in warm ones, and which chiefly affects sailors, and such as are shut up in besieged places, owing, as is supposed, to their being deprived of fresh provisions, and a due quantity of acedent food, assisted by the prevalence of cold and moisture, and by such other causes as depress the nervous energy, as indolence, confinement, want of exercise, neglect of cleanliness, much labour and fatigue, sadness, despondency, &c. These several debilitating causes, with the concurrence of a diet consisting principally of salted or putrescent food, will be sure to produce this disease. It seems, however, to depend more on a defect of nourishment, than on a vitiated state; and the reason that salted provisions are so productive of the scurvy, is, most probably, because they are drained of their nutritious juices, which are extracted and run off in brine. As the disease is apt to become pretty general amongst the crew of a ship when it has once made its appearance, it has been supposed by many to be of a contagious nature; but the conjecture seems by no means well founded.

A preternatural saline state of the blood has been assigned as its proximate cause. It has been contended by some physicians, that the primary morbid affection in this disease is a

debilitated state of the solids, arising principally from the want of aliment.

The scurvy comes on gradually, with heaviness, weariness, and unwillingness to move about, together with dejection of spirits, considerable loss of strength, and debility. As it advances in its progress, the countenance becomes fallow and bloated, respiration is hurried on the least motion, the teeth become loose, the gums are spongy, the breath is very offensive, livid spots appear on different parts of the body, old wounds which have been long healed up break out afresh, severe wandering pains are felt, particularly by night, the skin is dry, the urine small in quantity, turning blue vegetable infusions of a green colour; and the pulse is small, frequent, and, towards the last, intermitting; but the intellects are, for the most part, clear and distinct.

By an aggravation of the symptoms, the disease, in its last stage, exhibits a most wretched appearance. The joints become swelled and stiff, the tendons of the legs are rigid and contracted, general emaciation ensues, hæmorrhages break forth from different parts, fetid evacuations are discharged by stool, and a diarrhœa or dysentery arises, which soon terminates the tragic scene.

Scurvy, as usually met with on shore, or where the person has not been exposed to the influence of the remote causes before enumerated, is unattended by any violent symptoms, as slight blotches, with scaly eruptions on different parts of the body, and a sponginess of the gums, are the chief ones to be observed.

In forming our judgment as to the event of the disease, we are to be directed by the violence of the symptoms, by the situation of the patient with respect to a vegetable diet, or other proper substitutes, by his for-

mer state of health, and by his constitution not having been impaired by previous diseases.

Dissections of scurvy have always discovered the blood to be in a very dissolved state. The thorax usually contains more or less of a watery fluid, which, in many cases, possesses so high a degree of acrimony, as to excoriate the hands by coming in contact with it; the cavity of the abdomen contains the same kind of fluid; the lungs are black and putrid; and the heart itself has been found in a similar state, with its cavity filled with a corrupted fluid. In many instances, the epiphyses have been found divided from the bones, the cartilages separated from the ribs, and several of the bones themselves dissolved by caries. The brain seldom shews any marks of disease.

SCORDIUM, (*Scordium*, *i*, n. *σκορδιον*; from *σκοροδον*, garlic; so called because it smells like garlic). *Trifrago palustris*. *Chamaedrys palustris*. Water germander. *Teucrium scordium* of Linnæus. The leaves of this plant have a smell somewhat of the garlic kind, from which circumstance it is supposed to take its name, *σκορδον* signifying garlic: to the taste they are bitterish and slightly pungent. The plant was formerly in high estimation, but is now justly fallen into disuse, although recommended by some in antiseptic cataplasms and fomentations.

SCORIÆ, (*Scoria*, *a*, f. from *σκωρ*, excrement). Dross. The refuse or useless parts of any substance.

SCORZONERA, (*Scorzonera*, *a*, f. from *escorzo*, a serpent; Span.; so called because it is said to be effectual against the bite of all venomous animals). *Viperaria*. *Serpentaria hispanica*. Vipers grafs. The roots of this plant, *Scorzonera humilis*; *caule subnudo, unifloro*; *foliis lato-lanceolatis, nervosis, planis*, of Linnæus, are

sometimes employed medicinally as alexipharmics, and in hypochondriacal disorders and obstructions of the viscera. The *Scorzonera hispanica* mostly supplies the shops, whose root is esculent, oleraceous, and against diseases inefficacious.

SCORZONERA HISPANICA. The systematic name of the esculent vipers grafs.

SCORZONERA HUMILIS. The systematic name of the officinal vipers grafs. See *Scorzonera*.

SCROBICULUS CORDIS, (*Scrobiculus*, *i*, m. dim. of *serobs*, a ditch). The pit of the stomach.

SCROFULA, (*Scrofula*, *a*, f. from *scrofula*, a swine; because this animal is said to be much subject to a similar disorder). *Struma*. Scrophula. The king's evil. A genus of disease in the class *cachexia* and order *impetigines* of Cullen. Scrophula consists in hard indolent tumors of the conglobate glands in various parts of the body; but particularly in the neck, behind the ears, and under the chin, which after a time suppurate and degenerate into ulcers, from which, instead of pus, a white curdled matter, somewhat resembling the coagulum of milk is discharged.

The first appearance of the disease is most usually between the third and seventh year of the child's age; but it may arise at any period between these and the age of puberty; after which it seldom makes its first attack. It most commonly affects children of a lax habit, with smooth fine skins, fair hair, and rosy cheeks. It likewise is apt to attack such children as shew a disposition to rachites, and marked by a protuberant forehead, enlarged joints, and a tumid abdomen. Like this disease, it seems to be peculiar to cold and variable climates, being rarely met with in warm ones. Scrophula is by no means a contagious disease; but, be

yond all doubt, is of an hereditary nature, and is often entailed by parents on their children. There are, indeed, some practitioners who wholly deny that this, or any other disease, can be acquired by an hereditary right; but that a peculiar temperament of body, or predisposition in the constitution to some diseases, may extend from both father and mother to their offspring, is very clearly proved. For example, we very frequently meet with gout in young persons of both sexes, who could never have brought it on by intemperance, sensuality, or improper diet, but must have acquired the predisposition to it in this way.

Where there is any predisposition in the constitution to scrophula, and the person happens to contract a venereal taint, this frequently excites into action the causes of the former; as a venereal bubo not unfrequently becomes scrophulous, as soon as the virus is destroyed by mercury. The late Dr. Cullen supposed scrophula to depend upon a peculiar constitution of the lymphatic system. The attacks of the disease seem much affected or influenced by the periods of the seasons. They begin usually some time in the winter and spring, and often disappear, or are greatly amended, in summer and autumn. The first appearance of the disorder is commonly in that of small oval or spherical tumors under the skin, unattended by any pain or discolouration. These appear, in general, upon the sides of the neck, below the ear, or under the chin; but, in some cases, the joints of the elbows or ankles, or those of the fingers and toes, are the parts first affected. In these instances, we do not, however, find small moveable swellings; but, on the contrary, a tumor almost uniformly surrounding the joint, and interrupting its motion. +

After some length of time the tu-

mors become larger and more fixed, the skin which covers them acquires a purple or livid colour, and, being much inflamed, they at last suppurate and break into little holes, from which, at first, a matter somewhat puriform oozes out; but this changes by degrees into a kind of viscid ferrous discharge, much intermixed with small pieces of a white substance, resembling the curd of milk.

The tumors subside gradually, whilst the ulcers at the same time open more, and spread unequally in various directions. After a time, some of the ulcers heal; but other tumors quickly form in different parts of the body, and proceed on, in the same slow manner as the former ones, to suppuration. In this manner the disease goes on for some years, and appearing at last to have exhausted itself, all the ulcers heal up, without being succeeded by any fresh swellings; but leaving behind them an ugly puckering of the skin, and a scar of considerable extent. This is the most mild form under which scrophula ever appears. In more virulent cases, the eyes are particularly the seat of the disease, and are affected with ophthalmia, giving rise to ulcerations in the tarfi, and inflammation of the tunica adnata, terminating not unfrequently in an opacity of the transparent cornea.

In similar cases, the joints become affected, they swell and are incommoded by excruciating deep-seated pain, which is much increased upon the slightest motion. The swelling and pain continuing to increase, the muscles of the limb become at length much wasted. Matter is soon afterwards formed, and this is discharged at small openings made by the bursting of the skin. Being, however, of a peculiar acrimonious nature, it erodes the ligaments and cartilages, and produces a caries of the neighbouring bones. By an ab-

scorption of the matter into the system, hectic fever at last arises, and, in the end, often proves fatal.

When scrophula is confined to the external surface, it is by no means attended with danger, although on leaving one part, it is apt to be renewed in others; but when the ulcers are imbued with a sharp acrimony, spread, erode, and become deep, without shewing any disposition to heal; when deep-seated collections of matter form amongst the small bones of the hands and feet, or in the joints; or tubercles in the lungs, with hectic fever, arise, the consequences will be fatal.

On opening the bodies of persons who have died of this disease, many of the viscera are usually found in a diseased state, but more particularly the glands of the mesentery, which are not only much tumefied, but often ulcerated. The lungs are frequently discovered bent, with a number tubercles or cysts, which contain matter of various kinds. Scrophulous glands, on being examined by dissection, feel somewhat softer to the touch than in their natural state, and when laid open, they are usually found to contain a soft curdy matter, mixed with pus.

SCROPHULARIA, (*Scrophularia*, *æ*, *f.* from *scrofula*, the king's evil; so called from the unequal tubercles upon its roots, like scrophulous tumors). The fig-wort.

SCROPHULARIA AQUATICA. See *Betonica aquatica*.

SCROPHULARIA MINOR. The pile-wort is sometimes so called. See *Chelidonium minus*.

SCROPHULARIA NODOSA. The systematic name of the fig-wort. See *Scrophularia vulgaris*.

SCROPHULARIA VULGARIS. *Millemorbia*. *Scrophularia*. Common fig-wort or kernel-wort. The root and leaves of this plant, *Scrophularia nodosa*; *foliis cordatis*; *trinerbatis*; *caule*

obtusangulo of Linnæus, have been celebrated both as an internal and external remedy against inflammations, the piles, scrophulous tumors, and old ulcers; but they are now only used in this country by the country people.

SCROTAL HERNIA. *Hernia scrotalis*. A protrusion of any part of an abdominal viscus or viscera into the scrotum. See *Hernia*.

SCROTUM, (*Scrotum*, *i*, *n.* quasi *scortum*, a skin or hide). The common integuments which cover the testicles.

SCURF, (*Furfura*, *æ*, *f.*). Small exfoliations of the cuticle, which take place after some eruptions on the skin, a new cuticle being formed underneath during the exfoliation.

SCURVY. See *Scorbutus*.

SCURVY GRASS. See *Cochlearia bortenfis*.

SCURVY GRASS, LEMON. See *Cochlearia bortenfis*.

SCURVY GRASS, SCOTCH. The *Convolvulus soldanella* of Linnæus. See *Brassica marina*.

SCUTELLARIA GALERICULATA. The systematic of the skull-cap. See *Tertianaria*.

SCUTIFORM CARTILAGE. See *Thyroid cartilage*.

SEA HOLLY. See *Eryngium*.

SEA MOSS. See *Corallina*.

SEA OAK. See *Quercus marina*.

SEA ONION. See *Scilla*.

SEA SALT. See *Murias soda*.

SEA WATER. This is arranged amongst the simple saline waters. Its chemical analysis gives a proportion of 1 of saline contents to about $23\frac{1}{4}$ of water; but on our shores it is not greater than 1 of salt to about 30 of water. Sea water on the British coast may, therefore, be calculated to contain in the wine pint, of muriated soda 186,5 grains, of muriated magnesia 51, of felspar 6 grains; total $243\frac{1}{2}$ grains, or half an ounce and $3\frac{1}{2}$ grains of saline contents. The

disorders for which the internal use of sea water has been and may be resorted to, are in general the same for which all the simple saline waters may be used, as above. The peculiar power of sea water and sea salt as a discutient, employed either internally or externally in scrophulous habits, is well known, and is attended with considerable advantage when judiciously applied.

SEA WRACK. See *Quercus marina*.

SEALED EARTHS. See *Terra sagillata*.

SEBACEOUS GLANDS, (*Glandula sebacea*, from *sebum*, suet). Glands which secrete a sebaceous or suetty humour.

SEBADILLA. See *Cevadilla*.

SEBESTEN, (*Sebesten*, ind. $\pi\epsilon\beta\epsilon\sigma\tau\epsilon\nu$, an Egyptian word). The dark black fruit of the *Cordia myxa*; *foliis ovatis, subra glabris; corymbis lateralibus; calycibus decemstriatis* of Linnæus. It possesses glutinous and aperient qualities, and is exhibited in form of decoction in various diseases of the chest, hoarseness, cough, difficult respiration, &c.

SECÂLE, (*Secale*, is, n.) Rye. The seed of the *Secale cereale* of Linnæus. It is principally used as an article of diet, and in the northern countries of Europe is employed for affording an ardent spirit.

SECÂLE CEREÂLE. The systematic name of the rye plant. See *Secale*.

SECRETION, (*Secretio*, onis, f.). A function by which different organs separate from the blood substances destined for particular uses; as, the bile in the liver, saliva in the mouth, &c.

The fluids which, being deposited from the blood into other vessels, are said to be secreted, seem reducible to four classes. The *first* consists of viscid fluids, coagulable by a heat of about 150 degrees, by alcohol, and

by strong acids; although generally, in the living animal, they escape in the form of vapour, and after death are compacted into a gelatinous substance. To this class belong the liquor and halitus of the ventricles of the brain, of the pericardium, pleura, peritoneum, tunica vaginalis, amnios, joints, renal capsules, and probably of the womb, with the juices of the stomach and intestines, and lastly the lymph of the body.

The *second* class consists of fluids, of which some, in like manner, are exhaled, but more simple than the former, and more aqueous, are not coagulable by fire or by spirits of wine; and others are not exhaled, but, being deposited in their respective excretory ducts, are excreted in their proper places by the common outlet of some gland. To the former of this class belong the perspirable matter of the skin, part of the tears, and the watery humour of the eye. To the latter of this class belong the remaining part of the tears, the saliva, pancreatic juice, and the urine. The sweat seems to be a mixture of the perspirable matter and the subcutaneous oil.

The *third* class differs from both the preceding, being heavier than water, sluggish and viscid, but of an aqueous nature, not congealable into a jelly, but hardening into dry crusts by exhaling their water. These do not effervesce with any salt, but are contracted and made thicker by acids. By lixivial salts they are dissolved. By fire they are resolved into water, a little volatile salt, and a little oil. Of this kind are the whole mucus in the human body, extending over all the internal passages for air, aliments, or urine, and the cavities of the genital parts; and semen.

The *last* class is that of the inflammable juices, which, when recent, are indeed thin and watery, but, by stagnation and by evaporating their

water, become thick, oily, inflammable, and often bitter liniments. To this class we refer the bile, ear-wax, tallow, the oily liniment of the skin, the marrow in the bones, and all the fat throughout the human body; and castor, and the yolk of the egg. The milk itself, so far as it contains butter, belongs to this class.

Other humours are compounded of these which we have described as simple: as the milk, of butter and water; and the liniments of the joints, of lymph and fat.

Whoever considers, that in the blood are found a coagulable serum, an exhaling water, a sort of viscid mucus, and lastly an oil, will begin to perceive the perfect possibility of the foregoing classes of humours being separated from the blood, since their principles exist in the sanguineous mass. But in what manner it is brought about, that oil is separated from the blood in one part, water in another, and mucus in a third, remains to be explained, and requires a description of the secretory organs.

The coagulable juices are separated almost every where, from the arteries themselves, into excretory canals, continuous with the arteries, without any intermediate organ. The proof of this we have from injections of glue, water, and thin oils, which very readily exude from the red arteries, and are poured out into all the cavities in which that coagulable vapour is naturally found, without meeting with any intermediate knots or retarding cells. Finally, the blood itself, being poured out into most of these cavities, without any permanent lesion, in consequence of stagnation, retardation, or small increase of impetus, shows plainly that the passage betwixt the red blood-vessels and those excretory ducts is neither long nor difficult, and that the yellow se-

rum does not differ much from blood.

Another liquid, coagulable by acid spirits and alkohol, is the albuminous humour of the joints, which being composed of fat, medullary oil, and watery exhalation, constitutes an exceedingly soft liniment, very fit for lubricating the cartilages, and lessening friction. For secreting this, there is a particular arrangement of small arteries, which are so situated in the rough pits of the articulations of the bones, that they may be moderately compressed, but cannot be crushed.

The structure of these glands, as they are called, is peculiar. The larger clusters adhere, for the most part, to the bone by a broad basis wrapped up in fat. Thence, being extenuated into a crested edge, they pour out their liquor from an exceedingly thin border, by open ducts, which however I do not find very evident. Other smaller ones, placed every where in the capsules of the tendons, and between the diverging fibres of the ligamentary capsules of the joints, seem to be almost of the nature of simple glands, and are turgid with yellow mucous serum.

The uncoagulable juices of the first sort are secreted in the same manner with the coagulable ones; to wit, from exhaling arteries, which arise from the red arteries, without any intermediate follicle. In the vessels, which exhale the cutaneous perspiration, and in the lachrymal vessels of the first sort having a watery fluid; injections of water, or thin size, exude from the arteries, so as to remove every doubt of this. These arteries are also irritable, so that, from the contact of an acrid substance, they discharge more juice in a given time, than in a state of health.

But in the latter kind, the salival,

the secretion is made by means of conglomerate glands, which the ancients first distinguished by their cluster-like fabric, and esteemed glands. These are composed of acini or roundish lobules, conjoined together into a larger mass, by loose cellular substance, which is often covered externally by some dense cellular membrane, as a common envelope, as in the parotid and maxillary glands. Through the intervals, betwixt the clusters, run the arteries, which are here pretty large, and the veins. But most of the conglomerate glands separate their fluids from the blood, and discharge it in the following manner: each acinus sends out an excretory duct, which joins with others of the same kind, into a larger trunk, forming at last, in the manner of veins, one canal, which conveys the humour, separated by the gland, to the part for which it is designed, as the cavity of the mouth, intestines, surface of the eyes, &c. There are, indeed, some instances, in which either there are no excretory ducts, or they have not hitherto been discovered; as the thyroid gland, capsulæ renales, and thymus, unless these approach to the nature of conglobate glands.

The acini themselves are surrounded and limited by some firm cellular substance; and are also subdivided into lesser acinuli, as is evident to the eye, and by the microscope. How does this subdivision end? Is every simple acinus hollow in its middle, receiving the humour transuding from the arteries in a follicle, and sending it out by an excretory duct? Is this structure rendered probable by eruptions, hydatids, and the kidneys filled with round schirri? Are the larger viscera, appointed for secretion, conglomerated glands? Is this opinion made probable from the morbid round concretions formed in the liver, spleen, kidneys, testicles, and cortical sub-

stance of the brain; or from the bunch-like appearance which those viscera have in smaller animals? In the cellular substance that surrounds every part of the human body, even the extreme vessels, are there hollow spaces and cells, into which a secreted humour is poured?

Nothing of this kind seems to be the case. For, indeed, the acini composing the viscera of animals, are not elementary, but compounded, and large in proportion to the animals. The morbid concretions are almost all of them seated in the cellular substance, and in the limbs themselves, where there is not the least room to suspect any thing of a glandular fabric; and are composed of oil, earth, and vaporous particles, extravasated into some of the cellular cavities, where, stagnating and compressing the adjacent follicles, they form to themselves proper membranous tunics. Besides, the watery and fluid nature of the juice secreted in these glands is an argument that, during its secretion, it met with no retardation, no place in which it stagnated. For the fluids which remain at rest in the warm cavities of the human body, which are full of absorbing vessels, are all inspissated, and approach either towards a mucous or an oily nature. Moreover, anatomical injections would meet with more difficulty in passing from the arteries into the excretory ducts; which would be impervious to thick injections, and thin ones would be exhaled into the cellular substance. Yet we see, that the superlative art of great anatomists has conveyed thick injections, like wax, directly from the arteries of the salivary glands, liver, &c. into continuous excretory ducts; and this without filling up any intermediate cavities, which, according to the foregoing hypothesis, should happen.

Therefore, the acini appear to be composed of arteries and veins, divid-

ed and subdivided, parted and connected by the intervention of a good deal of cellular substance, which, becoming gradually more compact, assumes a spheroidal figure. This is supported, by analogy, in the lobes of the lungs, in the lobules of the thymus, in the structure of insects; but more especially in the testicle, of which the lobules are evidently formed of excretory ducts, connected together into fasciculi by a very soft membrane. The glands do not seem to pour their fluids into cellular substance, as by it the passage to the excretory ducts would be obstructed or prevented. The industry of anatomists has lately discovered very small, white, cylindric vessels, the real elements of the viscera; and it is to be hoped that this discovery will be confirmed by future observations.

Thin fluids, neither coagulable nor exhaling, but aqueous, are likewise generated in other parts, without the assistance of conglomerate acinous glands. Thus, the urine is deposited from the red arteries into membranous tubes, manifestly continuous, in a manner which readily admits the passage of air, water, or mercury. The nervous fluid seems to be secreted in the brain, in a similar, though less apparent, manner.

The third class of fluids, the mucous, is almost every where secreted from sinuses or hollow glands. The structure of true glands or follicles, in general, consists of an ample cavity, every where circumscribed by a membrane; but in such a manner, that the flesh itself of the part, to which the gland adheres, sometimes forms the one side, and completes the hemisphere of the follicle. In other places, a continued membrane forms the whole of the round or oval receptacle of the gland. The cavity is in general round; but sometimes it is oblong, and situated obliquely be-

twixt the adjacent parts; as, for example, in the urethra of the male, and in the follicles of the sinus muliebris. They are irritable; and, when stimulated by acrid substances, accelerate their secretions.

Into these follicles, minute arteries, either from the flesh in which it is seated, or from the membrane which constitutes its convex side, open by extremities extended into the cavity of each crypta, into which they pour their respective juice; after being received into the follicle, it is detained from the narrowness of the excretory duct, and inspissated, the more watery parts being absorbed by the veins, which correspond to the exhaling arteries. The truth of this we are taught from the structure of the simple follicles observable in the tongue, in which both the importing pores, and the excretory ducts, are even visible to the eye; and from the tubuli of the stomach of birds, in which the secreting villi manifestly protrude into the cavity; and lastly from injections, which force wax colourless into the simple glands.

The long mucous sinuses, and round glands, are both furnished with excretory ducts, which, for the most part, are sufficiently large; although in the round glands, they bear no great proportion to the cavity of the gland. These orifices often open into the common large cavity, into which the mucus is poured, without any intermediate duct; as in the back of the tongue, and in the simple gland of the stomach and intestines. These have been denominated cryptæ by Ruysch. The sinuses have often a similar structure, and open, without an intervening duct, as in the urethra of the male.

In another kind of these glands there are many simple follicles contained in one common covering which open with ample orifices into one common sinus, without any true

excretory duct, as in the tonsils.— These are called conglomerate glands.

Other simple glands have an excretory duct, by which they excrete their mucus; namely, a membranous cylindric, narrow vessel, opening with its posterior orifice into the cavity of the gland, and with its anterior orifice into the common cavity for which its mucus is designed. These excretory ducts are of considerable length in the subcutaneous and sebaceous glands, and in those of the palate and wind-pipe. In some parts, the pore and duct are more easily demonstrable than the follicle, as in the nostrils, larynx, rectum, &c.

In other places, several of these ducts, arising each from its respective follicle, run together like the branches of a vein, so as to form one considerable excretory canal, common to a number of follicles. To this kind belong the compound glands of the intestines, and the blind sinus at the root of the tongue, of the class of glands; and of the sinuses, some compound sinuses of the urethra, and the tubulous fibres of the stomachs of fishes and of birds. Glands of this sort may be said to be compounded of simple ones; but where they lie only contiguous, they may be called aggregate or congregated glands; as are those of the fauces, stomach, intestines, &c.

The inflammable juices are separated by organs differing in their fabric. The fat and marrow are deposited into cellular substance, without the intervention of glands, from the small mouths of the arteries. The subcutaneous fat every where exudes through small ducts and pores, without any glandular follicles. But the ear-wax and cutaneous suet are secreted by glands of different kinds. Many of the sebaceous glands are visible with a naked mouth in the skin, and without a duct of any

length; as we see in the ears, areolæ of the nipples, in the female nymphæ, and the groove betwixt them and the labia, and in the prepuce of the penis and clitoris. These differ but little from the cryptæ, except in the matter which they secrete.

There are others of the sebaceous glands, which have an excretory duct of some length; as almost all the cutaneous ones, which being seated in the cellular substance, are necessarily provided with a duct to perforate the skin. This is most evident in the face, where the length of the duct is indicated by the maggot-like substance pressed out; the bulk of which demonstrates, that a follicle lies under the slender pore.

There are still other sebaceous glands of the kind, in which the small ducts of many cryptæ meet together in one larger excretory duct. Thus, in the face, in several places, the large pores are in common to a number of cryptæ. Of this kind, also, are those sebaceous ducts in the eye-lids: and the unguinous glands in the secretory organ of the musk-goat, beaver, hyæna, civet-cat, and musk-rat, which pour their sebaceous matter into one common receptacle.

The milk, which is composed of water and oil, and perhaps of absorbed fat, and is a fluid of a peculiar nature, is secreted in a conglomerate gland. The bile is a matter of controversy; but there are many arguments in favour of the vascular structure, and of the bile being deposited in the pori biliarii, from the vena portarum, without intermediate follicles; especially the Ruyschian art of injection, in which the wax passes directly from the porta into the biliary pores, without meeting with any intermediate knots retarding it. The milk and bile are both of them, however, much thinner, and more watery,

than the fat, or the sebacious matter in follicles.

It remains for us to inquire, how it happens, that from one common mass of the blood, the same variety of peculiar fluids are constantly separated, each in its respective place, and that milk is never secreted in the kidneys, bile in the thymus, or mucus in the sebaceous glands. This problem will be at last perfectly solved by one who shall be intimately acquainted with the internal structure of the secreting organs. In the mean time, what is hitherto known with sufficient certainty shall be noticed.

In the first place, the blood itself, from which any liquid is to be secreted, assumes, in various places, that peculiarity of character, that it contains more particles, of a like nature with those which nature wishes to predominate in the fluid to be secreted. In the liver, the venous blood arrives with a slow motion, loaded with oil, and the semi-putrid vapours of the intestines. To the testicles, the blood is brought slowly through long slender and inflected canals, arising at very small angles, under the skin, in a cold situation. In the carotids, it is probable that the stronger, spirituous, and dense parts of the blood ascend; so that that is more watery which descends into the abdomen and to the kidneys, and forms the saliva of the pancreas, and the gastric and intestinal juices.

Besides, the blood is prepared for secretion, by its retardation in the minute vessels, in consequence of which, the red and denser parts alone occupy the axis of the canal: while the other lighter, more sluggish, and less quickly moved particles, recede to the lateral branches, impinge on the secretory mouths arising from the sides of the vessels, and adhere to them by their viscosity.

These orifices, though possibly of

different diameters, are always too small to admit the blood in their natural state. As from an increased action of the heart, many of them admit blood, we may conclude, with probability, that they arise continuous with the red arteries, and are not much smaller than the red globules. Hence the same secretory orifices refuse thick injections of wax or suet, and generally admit thinner liquors injected into the arteries. Therefore, this is the first and most simple mechanism of secretion, viz. that the caliber of the excretory duct admits only those particles, of which the greatest diameter is less than the diameter of the duct. It is only in this way that the yellow arteries convey a pure liquor from the blood, and that the uriniferous ducts exclude the red blood and coagulable serum. But this is not the sole cause, since similar fluids are generated by large, as well as by small animals.

Merely according to this law, the secreted juices may be of many different kinds: for the very minute orifices will only admit fluids of extreme tenuity, as in the small vessels of the brain; while the larger will admit water and jelly; and the largest of all fat. Moreover, if a number of secretory organs arise, in succession, from one secreting artery, and be provided with large orifices, those which arise last from the artery will admit only the thinnest fluids. If, on the contrary, those which arise first in order from the secreting artery, be small, the last ones will receive only the grosser liquids. It may be objected, that though the vessels in the fœtus are vastly less than in an adult, yet the humours are the same. But these humours, which are called fat, bile, lymph, and urine, in the fœtus, are very different from the fat, bile, lymph, and urine of an adult.

It is altogether in this way, that most secretions are made by vessel

arising immediately from sanguiferous arteries. These separate gross juices; thick, coagulable, or watery; as the fat, urine, juice of the stomach and intestines, &c. But other secretions of thinner juices are performed by vessels arising from the inferior orders of arteries, not sanguiferous; to the orifices of which not only no red blood, but no serum, fat, or other gross fluids, can have admittance. Thus the more thin and pure humours, must necessarily be separated; as, for example, in the eye.

Perhaps the angle, which the secretory branch forms with its trunk, contributes something to secretion. For it is easily demonstrated, that at right and reflected angles, only the viscid and sluggish juices are expelled, in consequence of the stronger force of the particles keeping the middle of the canal; and that the liquids which preserve their velocity, are those sent off at acute angles. For men of credit have observed, that, in living animals, the velocity is greater in acute angles, and less in right angles. The very structure of the body convinces us, that these angles have some effect on secretion, since in different parts we find the angles at which the branches proceed from the trunks different, and the reticulations different. For the ultimate vessels are, in general, arborescent, the trunks sending out branches on every side, but at different angles; thus, at small angles in the large intestines, and large angles in the small intestines. Thus, in the spleen, the smaller red arteries arise so thick from their trunks, that they resemble a sprinkler; in the intestines, they resemble pencil-brushes; in the kidneys they are serpentine; in the liver radiated; in the testicle, they are curled up like a lock of hair; and in the uvea they are anular. But it is no improbable conjecture, that the Creator never made this diversity of

fabric in vain. We have not as yet, however, any account of these reticulations that is sufficiently accurate; nor does a similarity in the fluids secreted seem to be connected with a similarity of structure. The veins too have similar reticulations, for the purpose of facilitating the motion of the blood, and not for diversifying the nature of the secretions.

The inflexions of the smaller vessels, as well arteries as excretories, greatly retard the motion of the blood; in which the greater part of the force received from the heart is evidently spent in the change of figure in the vessel. The repeated inflexions, therefore, of the secretory arteries collect the viscid parts of the fluids, by giving them time to attract each other. A straight course of the vessels is favourable to celerity of motion, rendering the secretion copious and easy, but impure, as we see in the urine.

That the ultimate arteries, and in like manner the secretory orifices, have different degrees of density, is not improbable, since we actually find it so by experiments in the larger branches. But the denser the capillary arteries are, the more will they admit only the strong, and at the same time minute particles, and exclude those that are lighter, moved with less velocity, and grosser. Irritability produces almost the same effects; for if the secretory orifice be irritated, it will reject the gross humours, and transmit the more fluid ones: instead of mucus in the urethra, it will separate a thin yellow serum; and a similar fluid, instead of the subcutaneous fat; the quantity of secreted liquor will also be increased; as, for example, in the tears.

Lastly, the velocity is greatly increased, if the heart be near, if the artery be straight, if it go off at a small angle, or if the excretory duct

arise near the extremity of a considerable arterial branch. The velocity is diminished, if the secreting artery run a long way capillary, losing the greater part of the motion of its blood, from friction, if it arise at a distance from the heart, and at a large angle. Finally, from whatever cause the diversity may proceed, an increase of velocity increases the quantity of fluid secreted, carries off the heavy liquids, and renders the secretions thicker and more impure, though fluid, as it prevents stagnation, by which they contract viscosity: but slowness facilitates attraction and viscosity, and renders the secreted juice more pure; as the similar particles, when brought together, can better attract and join each other under a slow motion, so as to retain the larger canal, while the thinner parts go off by the lesser lateral branches. Hence, from the impetus of the heart alone being too much increased, all the secretions become confounded.

These conditions, nature is able variously to unite or separate, and to impart to each organ, in greater or less degrees; and thus, to modify the secreted humours in various ways. Anatomy furnishes examples, if you compare the secreting apparatus of the bile or semen, which are thick juices, with those of the urine and tears, which are fluid ones.

From all that has been advanced, we may perceive, that, since the blood contains particles of various kinds; some sluggish and mucous; some coagulable, but fluid; some dense and red; some watery and thin; and others fat and viscid: among all these particles, those which are the largest and most dense, such as the cruor, will continue in the axis of the vessel, and in the trunk, so as to pass on in a continued course into the sanguiferous vein.

Those particles which are gross and sluggish, such as the fat, must go off by the larger orifices arising laterally from the sanguineous artery, by short ducts; for in long ducts the oil would stagnate, from its sluggishness. The phenomena of the secretion of fat agree with this description. Such as are coagulable, but specifically heavier than those which are merely watery, and which continue fluid in the living animal, pass from the red arteries, into others which are pellucid, but continuous to the red ones, and smaller; whether these pellucid ones be continued on as trunks, sending off other smaller branches, such as the arteries of the inferior orders; or whether they exhale their contents by a short extremity.

Thin watery fluids may evidently pass off by any vessels continuous with the sanguiferous, or inferior orders of vessels, provided they be only small enough to exclude the grosser juices: whether these proceed from the sides of the larger vessels or whether all the proper fluids being sent off through the larger canals, the smaller canal be continued as the trunk, as in the eye. To the production of these fluids, the most simple fabric, even the direct continuation of the secretory artery itself into the excretory duct, is sufficient as seems probable in the urine. Therefore, in this case, the structure is direct and simple, with few inflexions, and with little diminution of velocity.

Such juices as being watery, are light but viscid at the same time, and consequently sluggish and tardy, escape easily by short tubes appended to the sanguiferous arteries, and less than the adipose vessels; and, therefore it is evident, that these will be separated from the blood more abundantly in some parts of the body, where the velocity derived from the heart

is less, the flexures of the artery more frequent, and the length of the capillaries greater.

Has each part its particular ferment, form of pores, specific weight, and filters filled with their own peculiar humour, and refusing whatever is not analogous to it, which determine the nature of the fluids to be generated? Let those who adopt these ideas, consider the great varieties there are in fluids, separated in the same part of the body, according to the difference of age, course of life, &c. In the fœtus, the bile is sweet; the semen thin, and without animalcules; the milk watery or absent; the urine watery, mucous, and insipid; the uterine mucus very white; the cutaneous vessels full of a red fluid; the aqueous humour red; and the fat gelatinous. In the same organs, in an adult person, the bile secreted is acrid; the semen thick; the milk butyraceous; the urine yellow, thin, and alkalescent; the menstrual blood, and the aqueous humour, very limpid. But, even in the adult person, how different the aqueous humour, the concocted urine, and the heavy febrile urine, replete with salts and oils? The passions of the mind, which make no change in the body except upon the tension of the nerves, yet wonderfully change the secretions, and expel even the blood and bile through the vessels of the skin. Add to this, the frequent disturbance and alteration of the secretions from slight causes; so that, different augmentations of velocity shall cause different liquors to be secreted by the same organ; for blood has been known to pass into almost all the passages of all the fluids; of the sweat, tears, mucus of the nostrils, and of the womb, milk, semen, urine, and fat. A true milk has been seen separated by glands in the thigh. When the urine is not excreted, on account of some defect of the kid-

ney, ureters, or bladder, it has been exhaled into the skin, ventricles of the brain, or into the whole cellular fabric. The perspirable matter of Sanctorius, though so fluid, by cold is sent off by the urinary passages; and by fear, or by medicines, through the excretory villi of the intestines. That exhaling viscid matter of the cellular substance is secreted and absorbed, and by the same organs, alternately with the fat, so different from it. Salivation supplies the place of the exhaling fluid of Sanctorius; the exhaling fluid supplies the internal. The bile, when absorbed, evidently passes into the vessels of the eyes. It appears, that there is not any thing in the particular fabric of any of the viscera or glands, that can so fix or maintain the nature of the secreted fluid; that in perfectly entire organs, different fluids may not be separated, by an increase or diminution of velocity, or alteration of the structure of the nerves. The specific gravities of the viscera and strainers, do not correspond to the specific gravity of the humours which they secrete; nor are they at all known by experiments that can be depended on.

It now remains for us to discover, how the pure secretions are formed in a healthy person. For all the fluids, when recently secreted, without excepting any, not even the oil, are mixed with a great deal of water; nor does it seem possible, that any of the thicker juices could be formed, without having a mixture of the thinner ones: how then do the semen, bile, oil, and mucus, get rid of their superabundant water, and acquire their proper viscosity and other qualities?

For this end, nature has framed glands and follicles, large and small, for those fluids from which the watery parts are to be separated, in order to render the remaining part

more strong and viscid. A slightly mucous water, differing at first very little from the perspirable vapour or from tears, is deposited in the follicles of the nostrils, wind-pipe, and intestines. This is not continually discharging, because the excretory orifice being less than the follicle, and the excretory duct being sometimes long and slender, at others repeatedly bent, and inflected or transmitted through hard cellular texture, or closed by some force equivalent to a sphincter, the fluid is so retarded that it can scarcely escape without the assistance of extrinsic pressure; unless perhaps the follicle being irritated by its quantity or acrimony, press out the liquor incommoding it, by a kind of peristaltic motion. This appears from the morning discharges of mucus by blowing the nose, coughing up from the lungs, and by sneezing after the nocturnal stagnation. In the mean time, the patulent veins, extended into the cavity of the follicle, absorb the more aqueous parts from the thin mucus, so that it becomes thicker as it is retained longer; but if, by the force of some stimulus, it be directly discharged after it is secreted, it comes out thin and watery. Examples of this we have in the urethra, in the nostrils, and in the ear-wax; as also in the bile, which, at its first separation in the liver, is watery, and has but little yellowness or bitterness. It is therefore detained in a bladder, and there digested by the vital heat; its thinner parts are absorbed by the veins, or exude through the membranes themselves; whence the remainder becomes more thick, bitter, and oily. The same mechanism takes place in the semen; which, being preserved in the seminal vesicle, is there thickened, so as to be very viscid after long chastity; while after repeated venery it is expelled very fluid. In some places nature has made this receptacle double

or triple in the same organ, that the fluid might attain the utmost degree of viscosity. In the seminal passages, the rete testis and termination of the epididymis, constitute a large canal, and a large vesicle: while the vessels of the testicle, vas deferens and prostatic duct, are narrow. Hence there are nowhere real glands, except for secreting a viscid liquor. And if a viscid liquor be separated from arteries without a follicle, it always stagnates in some considerable follicle. The semen, bile, liquor of the joints, and fat, afford examples of this.

The fluids may be likewise changed in their receptacles by the affusion of some new liquor. Thus the semen is thickened by the addition of the liquor of the prostate; the chyle is attenuated by mixture with the saliva of the pancreas and the gastric and intestinal juices, and by the affusion of the bile it becomes alkalescent; the albumen of the joints is tempered by the two kinds of fat.

Lastly, what is absorbed, may have its uses in the animal economy, after it is taken into the blood; thus the semen gives a surprising strength to male animals. For the most part, likewise, in fluids which are detained an acrimony of an alkalescent nature is generated, which also hath its uses, as in the bile and semen.

But the most important use of the follicles and receptacles is to preserve their peculiar fluids, for those times in which alone they are subservient to life, and that a large quantity of them may be collected to correspond with their uses at certain periods. Thus the bile is reserved for the time of digestion, the semen for due venery, and the mucus of the nostrils is accumulated in the night to moderate the force of the air passing through them in the day.

Therefore, as nature has framed machines which retard the fluids in large or small follicles, so she has

made others to expel them at proper times. To some glands she has given particular muscles; as in the testicles of brutes, the urinary bladder, and the gall bladder, and in the intestines and stomach; or she has subjoined contiguous muscles to promote the discharge, as the biverter, masticator, muscles of the abdomen and diaphragm; or else she has given them a kind of nervous irritability, which, being excited to action by an indefcribable stimulus, opens the shut passages to the milk, semen, tears, &c.; or from the contact of any thing acrid, as already mentioned, accelerates the discharge of the fluid; as happens to the bile, liquor of the stomach and intestines, and to the sebaceous matter.

SECUNDINES. The placenta and membranes which are expanded from its edge, and which form a complete involucrum of the fœtus and its waters, go under the common term of after-birth, or secundines.

The membranes of the ovum have usually been mentioned as two, the amnion and the chorion; and the latter has again been divided into the true and the false. The third membrane, which, from its appearance has likewise been called the villous or spongy, and from the consideration of it as the inner lamina of the uterus, cast off like the exuvix of some animals. The decidua has been described by Harvey, not as one of the membranes of the ovum, but as a production of the uterus. The following is the order of the membranes of the ovum, at the full period of gestation: 1st, There is the outer or connecting, which is flacculent, spongy, and extremely vascular, completely investing the whole ovum, and lining the uterus. 2dly, The middle membrane, which is nearly pellucid, with a very few small blood-vessels scattered over it, and which forms a covering to the placenta and funis,

but does not pass between the placenta and uterus. 3dly, The inner membrane, which is transparent, of a firmer texture than the others, and lines the whole ovum, making, like the middle membrane, a covering for the placenta and funis with the two last. The ovum is clothed when it passes from the ovarium into the uterus, where the first is provided for its reception.

These membranes, in the advanced state of pregnancy, cohere slightly to each other, though, in some ova, there is a considerable quantity of fluid collected between them, which being discharged when one of the outer membranes is broken, forms one of the circumstances which have been distinguished by the name of by or false waters.

Between the middle and inner membrane, upon or near the funis, there is a small, flat, and oblong body, which, in the early part of pregnancy, seems to be a vesicle containing milky lymph, which afterwards becomes of a firm and apparently fatty texture. This is called the *vesicula umbilicalis*; but its use is not known. See *Placenta*.

SEDATIVES, (*Sedativa*, from *sedo*, to ease or assuage). *Sedantia*. Those medicines are so termed which have the power of diminishing the animal energy, without destroying life. They are divided into *sedativa soporifica*, as papaver, hyosciamus, and *sedativa refrigerantia*, as sales neutri, acidi, &c.

SEDATIVE SALT OF HOMBERG. See *Boracic acid*.

SEDGE. The yellow water-flag is sometimes so called. See *Iris palustris*.

SEDIMENT. The heavy parts of liquids, which fall to the bottom.

SEDIMENT, LATIRITIOUS. See *Latiritious sediment*.

SEDUM, (*Sedum*, i, n. from *sedo*, to assuage; so called because it allays inflammation). The house-leek.

SEDUM ACRE. The systematic

name of the stone cross. See *Illecebra*.

SEDUM MAJUS. *Aizoon. Barba Jovis.* House-leek or fangreen. *Sempervivum rectorum* of Linnæus. The leaves of this plant have no remarkable smell, discover to the taste a mild subacid austerity; they are frequently applied by the vulgar to bruises and old ulcers.

SEDUM MINUS. See *Illecebra*.

SEDLITZ WATER. *Seydschutz water.* A simple saline mineral water. From chemical analysis it appears, that it is strongly impregnated with vitriolated magnesia or Epsom salt, and it is to this, along with probably the small quantity of muriat of magnesia, that it owes its bitter and saline taste, and its purgative properties. The diseases in which this water is recommended are, crudities of the stomach, hypochondriasis, amenorrhœa, and the anomalous complaints succeeding the cessation of the catamenia, œdematous tumours of the legs in literary men, hæmorrhoidal habits, and in scorbutic eruptions.

SEDUM TELEPHIUM. The systematic name of the *orpine*. See *Faba crassa*.

SEEING. A sensation by which we perceive bodies around us, and their sensible qualities. See *Vision*.

SEIGNETTE'S SALT. This neutral salt, which consists of soda and tartareous acid, was prepared and made known by a Frenchman named Peter Seignette, towards the end of the last century. The confidence with which the inventor recommended it, and the care he took to conceal the method of making it, had, as is usual, such an effect, that it was employed in preference to many other medicines long known, which had been equally serviceable; and by these means, without much trouble, he was enabled to acquire a fortune.

It must, however, be allowed that he was a skilful chemist, who, by his writings, and the invention of various other medicines, had obtained considerable reputation as a physician and naturalist. He was established as an apothecary at Rochelle; published papers on various natural objects which he had observed in his neighbourhood, in the memoirs of the academy of sciences at Paris, as well as in other works; and died on the 11th of March 1719.

He recommended this salt, which enriched him, and rendered his name famous, in some small treatises, printed in particular about the year 1762. He called it sometimes alkaline salt, sometimes *sal polycrest*, and sometimes *Rochelle salt*. After his death, his son continued to prepare and to vend it with the greatest success.

Seignette discovered *sal polycrest* while he was engaged in making soluble tartar, tartrate of potash, and, according to the old opinion, imagining that both the fixed alkalies were the same, used soda instead of potash. By this means he procured, not without surprise, a salt different from the common soluble tartar which he wished to prepare, and from the other well-known salt also. He was induced, therefore, to examine it. The experiments of learned chemists discovered the component parts of this salt. The mode of preparing it was then made publicly known; and, by more accurate examination, the difference, before overlooked, between vegetable and mineral alkali, was determined; by which new light was thrown upon chemistry, and an important service rendered to a variety of arts.

Among those who contributed to bring this salt into repute was Nicolas Lemery, to whom Seignette sent a large quantity of it, which he distributed at Paris, though unacquaint-

ed with its component parts. Its composition was discovered at the same time, about the year 1731, by two French chemists, Baldue and Geoffroy, the former published his observations in the memoirs of the academy of sciences; and the latter communicated his to Sir Hans Sloane, who caused them to be printed in the philosophical transactions. Newman, therefore, was not the first who made known the composition of Seignette's salt, in his treatise on saltpetre; for Newman's sal polycrest is essentially different; and he himself confesses that he was not acquainted with the Rochelle salt.

SELENITES, (*Selenites*, *α*, *m*. *σεληνιτης*; from *σεληνη*, the moon). A white stone having a figure upon it resembling a stone.

SELINIE. A disease of the nails in which white spots are occasionally seen in their substance.

SELF HEAL. See *Prunella*.

SELLA TURCICA, (*Sella*, *α*, *f*. a saddle, *quasi sedda*, from *sedeo*, to sit, and *turcica*; from its supposed resemblance to a Turkish saddle). *Ephippium*. A cavity in the sphenoid bone, containing the pituitary gland, surrounded by the four clinoid processes.

SELTZER WATER. A saline water, slightly alkaline, highly acidulated with carbonic acid, containing more of this volatile principle than is sufficient to saturate the alkali, and the earths which it holds in solution. It is particularly serviceable in relieving some of the symptoms that indicate a morbid affection of the lungs; in slow hectic fever, exanthematous eruptions of the skin, foulness of the stomach, bilious vomiting, acidity and heart-burn, spasmodic pains in any part of the alimentary canal, and bloody or highly offensive stools. On account of its property in relieving spasmodic pains, and from its rapid determination to

the kidneys, and perhaps its alkaline contents, it has been sometimes employed with great advantage in diseases of the urinary organs, especially those that are attended with the formation of calculus. A large proportion of the Seltzer water, either genuine or artificial, that is consumed in this country, is for the relief of these disorders. Even in gonorrhœa, either simple or venereal, Hoffman asserts that advantage is to be derived from this medicine. The usual dose is from half a pint to a pint.

SEMECARPUS ANACARDIUM. The systematic name of the tree which is supposed to afford the Mollucca bean. See *Anacardium orientale*.

SEMEIÖSIS, (*Semeiosis*, *is*, *f*. *σημειωσις*; from *σημαίνω*, to notify). See *Semiotice*.

SEMEN, (*Semen*, *inis*, *n*.). The seed. The prolific liquor secreted in the testicles, and carried through the epididymis and vas deferens into the vesiculæ feminales, to be emitted *sub coitu* into the female vagina, and there, by its aura, to penetrate and impregnate the ovulum in the female ovarium.

In castrated animals, and in eunuchs, the vesiculæ feminales are small, and contracted; and a little lymphatic liquor, but no semen, is found in them. The semen is detained for some time in the vesiculæ feminales, and rendered thicker from the continual absorption of its very thin part, by the oscula of the lymphatic vessels. In lascivious men, the semen is sometimes, though rarely, propelled by nocturnal pollution from the vesiculæ feminales, though the ejaculatory ducts, (which arise from the vesiculæ feminales, perforate the urethra transversely, and open themselves by narrow and very nervous ostia at the sides of the caput gallinaginis) into the urethra, and from it to some distance. But in chaste men the greatest part is

again gradually absorbed from the vesiculæ feminales through the lymphatic vessels, and conciliates strength of the body. The smell of semen is specific, heavy, affecting the nostrils, yet not disagreeable. The same odour is observed in the roots of the orchis, julæ of chesnuts, and the antheræ of many plants. The smell of the semen of quadrupeds, when at heat, is so penetrating as to render their flesh fetid and useless, unless castrated. Thus the flesh of the stag, *tempore coitus*, is unfit to eat. The taste of semen is fatuous, and somewhat acrid. In the testes its consistence is thin and diluted; but in the vesiculæ feminales, viscid, dense, and rather pellucid: and by venery and debility it is rendered thinner.

Specific gravity. The greatest part of the semen sinks to the bottom in water, yet some part swims on its surface, which it covers like very fine threads mutually connected together in the form of a cobweb.

Colour of semen. In the testicles it is somewhat yellow, and in the vesiculæ feminales it acquires a deeper hue. That emitted by pollution or coition, becomes white from its mixture with the whitish liquor of the prostrate gland during its passage through the urethra. In those people who labour under jaundice, and from the abuse of saffron, the semen has been seen yellow, and in an atrabiliary young man, black.

Quality. Semen exposed to atmospheric air, loses its pellucidity and becomes thick; but after a few hours it is again rendered more fluid and pellucid than it was immediately after its emission. This phenomenon cannot arise from water or oxygen attracted from the air. At length it deposits a phosphorated calx, and forms a corneous crust.

Experiments with semen prove that it turns the syrup of violets green,

and dissolves earthy, mediate, and metallic salts. Fresh semen is insoluble in water, until it has undergone the above change in atmospheric air. It is dissolved by alkaline salts. By ætherial oil it is dried into a pellucid pellicle, like the cortex of the brain. It is dissolved by all acids, except the oxygenated acid of salt, by which it is coagulated in the form of white flakes. It is also acted upon by alcohol of wine.

By *dry distillation* semen gives out a small portion of empyreumatic oil, and volatile alkali. The remaining incinerated carbone affords soda and phosphorated calx.

The *constituent principles of semen.* Chemical analysis demonstrates that one hundred parts of semen contain, 1. *Of water*, ninety parts. 2. *Of animal gluten*, six parts. 3. *Of phosphorated calx*, one part. 4. *Of pure soda*, three parts. 5. By microscopical examination, it is asserted that an immense number of very small animalculæ with round tails, called *spermatic animalcules*, may be seen. 6. *The odorous principle*, which flies off immediately from fresh semen. It appears to consist of a peculiar vital principle, and by the ancients was called *aura feminis*.

Use of the semen. 1. Emitted into the female vagina *sub coitu*, it possesses the wonderful and stupendous power of impregnating the ovulum in the female ovarium. The odorous principle, or *aura spermatica* only, appears to penetrate through the cavity of the uterus and fallopian tubes to the female ovarium, and there to impregnate the albuminous latex of the mature ovulum by its vital power. The other principles of the semen appear to be only a vehicle of the feminal aura. 2. In chaste men, the semen returning through the lymphatic vessels into the mass of the blood, gives strength to the body and mind; hence the bull is so fierce

and brave, the castrated ox so gentle and weak; hence every animal languishes *post coitum*; and hence tabes dorsalis from onanism. 3. It is by the stimulus of the absorbed semen, at the age of puberty, into the mass of the humours; that the beard and hair of the pubes, but in animals the horns, are produced; and the weeping voice of the boy changed into that of a man.

SEMEN ADJOWAEN. A seed imported from the East, of a pleasant smell, a grateful aromatic taste, somewhat like savory. It possesses exciting, stimulating, and carminative virtues, and is given in the East in nervous weakness, dyspepsia, flatulency, and heart-burn.

SEMEN AGAVE. An East Indian seed, exhibited there in atonic gout.

SEMEN CONTRA. See *Santonium*.

SEMEN SANCTUM. See *Santonium*.

SEMICIRCULAR CANALS. These canals are three in number, and take their name from their figure. They belong to the organ of hearing, and are situated in the petrous portion of the temporal bone, and open into the vestibulum.

SEMI, (*Semi*, from *ἡμισ*). *Semis* in composition universally signifies half, as *femicupium*, a half-bath, or bath up to the navel; *femilunaris*, in the shape of a half moon.

SEMIOTICE, (*Semiotice*, *es*, f. *σημειωτική*; from *σημαίνω*, a sign). *Semeiosis*. That part of pathology which treats on the signs of diseases.

SEMILUNAR VALVES. The three valves at the beginning of the pulmonary artery and aorta are so termed, from their half-moon shape.

SEMIMEMBRANŌSUS. This muscle arises from the outer surface of the tuberosity of the ischium, by a

broad flat tendon which is three inches in length. From this tendon it has gotten the name of semi-membranosus. It then begins to grow fleshy, and runs at first under the long head of the biceps, and afterwards between that muscle and the semi tendinosus. At the lower part of the thigh it becomes narrower again, and terminates in a short tendon, which is inserted chiefly into the upper and back part of the head of the tibia, but some of its fibres are spread over the posterior surface of the capsular ligament of the knee. Between this capsular ligament and the tendon of the muscle, we find a small bursa mucosa. The tendons of this and the last described muscle form the inner ham-string. This muscle bends the leg, and seems likewise to prevent the capsular ligament from being pinched.

SEMI-ORBICULĀRIS ORIS. See *Orbicularis oris*.

SEMI-SPINĀLIS COLLI. *Semi-spinalis sive transverso-spinalis colli* of Winslow, *Spinalis cervicis* of Albinus, and *Spinalis* of Douglas. A muscle situated on the posterior part of the neck, which turns the neck obliquely backwards, and a little to one side. It arises from the transverse processes of the uppermost six vertebræ of the back by as many distinct tendons, ascending obliquely under the complexus, and is inserted into the spinous processes of all the vertebræ of the neck, except the first and last.

SEMI-SPINĀLIS DORSI. *Semi-spinalis externus seu transverso-spinalis dorsi* of Winslow. A muscle situated on the back, which extends the spine obliquely backwards. It arises from the transverse processes of the seventh, eighth, ninth, and tenth vertebræ of the back, by as many distinct tendons, which soon grow fleshy, and then become tendinous again, and are inserted into the spinous processes of all the vertebræ.

of the back above the eighth, and into the lowermost of the neck, by as many tendons.

SEMI-SPINĀLIS EXTERNUS. See *Semi spinalis dorsī*.

SEMĪNIS EJACULĀTOR. See *Accelerator urinæ*.

SEMI-NERVŌSUS. See *Semiten-dinosus*.

SEMI-TENDINŌSUS. This muscle, which is the *semi nervosus* of Douglas and Winslow, is situated obliquely along the back part of the thigh. It arises tendinous and fleshy from the inferior, posterior, and outer part of the tuberosity of the ischium, in common with the long head of the biceps cruris, to the posterior edge of which it continues to adhere, by a great number of oblique fibres, for the space of two or three inches. Towards the lower part of the os femoris it terminates in a round tendon, which passes behind the inner condyle of the thigh bone, and becoming flat, is inserted into the upper and inner part of the ridge of the tibia, a little below its tuberosity. This tendon sends off an aponeurosis, which helps to form the tendinous fascia that covers the muscles of the leg. This muscle assists in bending the leg, and at the same time draws it a little inwards.

SEMPERVIVUM, (*Sempervivum*, i, n. from *semper*, always, and *vivo*, to live; so called because it is always green). The house-leek, or sengreen, is sometimes so called. See *Sedum majus*.

SEMPERVIVUM ACRE. The stone crop is occasionally so termed. See *Illecebra*.

SEMPERVIVUM TECTORUM. The systematic name of the house-leek. See *Sedum majus*.

SENĒCIO, (*Senecio*, onis, m. from *senesco*, to grow old; so called because it has a greyish down upon it like the beard of old men). The groundsel. See *Erigerum*.

SENĒCIO VULGARIS. The systematic name of groundsel. See *Erigerum*.

SENĒCIO JACOBÆA. The systematic name of the ragwort. See *Jacobæa*.

SENEGA. See *Seneka*.

SENEGA GUM. See *Gummi senegalense*.

SENEGAW MILKWORT. See *Seneka*.

SENĒKA, (*Seneka*, æ, f. so called because the Senecca or Senegaw Indians use it against the bite of the rattlesnake). The rattlesnake-root-milkwort. *Polygala senega* of Linnæus. *Polygala floribus imberbibus spicatis, caule erecto herbaceo simplicissimo, foliis lato lanceolatis*. Class *Diadelphia*. Order *Oclandria*. The root of this plant was formerly much esteemed as a specific against the poison of the rattlesnake, and as an antiphlogistic in pleurisy, pneumonia, &c. but it is now entirely laid aside.

SENGREEN. See *Sedum majus*.

SENNA, (*Senna*, æ, f. from *senna*, an Arabian word signifying acute, so called from its sharp-pointed leaves). *Senna alexandrina*. *Senna italica*. *Folium orientale*. Senna, or Egyptian cassia. *Cassia senna foliis sejugis subovatis, petiolis eglandulatis*. Class *Decandria*. Order *Monogynia*. The leaves of senna which are imported here from Alexandria for medicinal use, have a rather disagreeable smell, and a subacid, bitterish, nauseous taste. They are in common use as a purgative. The formulæ given of the senna by the colleges are those of an infusion, a powder, a tincture, and an electuary.

SENNA ALEXANDRINA. See *Senna*.

SENNA ITALICA. See *Senna*.

SENSATION. Sensation or feeling is the consciousness of a change taking place in any part, from the contact of a foreign body with the extremities of our nerves. The

seat of sensation is in the pulp of the nerves.

Sensations may be considered as of two kinds: 1. Those which arise from the impulse or impression of external bodies, which we therefore name *Sensations of impression*. 2. Those which arise from the mind's being conscious of its own action, and of the motions it excites; and these we name *Sensations of consciousness*.

Sensations of Impression.

The sensations of impression are very various, but have been generally referred to five heads or kinds, commonly called the five senses; that is, those of sight, hearing, smell, taste, and touch. The four first of these are each of them, properly considered, as forming one genus of sensations: 1. As the particular sensations comprehended under each head, though very various, are, however, perceived to have somewhat common to all of them. 2. As those of the same genus all arise from impressions made upon one part of the body only, and that of a peculiar organization. 3. As those of the same genus all arise from the action of external bodies of one kind only, or of one and the same quality, by means of which they act upon our organs. No such characters concur in establishing one genus of the sensations referred to the fifth head of touch, which are various in all those respects; and physiologists seem to have referred to this head of touch every sensation that does not manifestly belong to the other four, and, among the rest, many of the sensations of consciousness. It might perhaps be useful to distinguish into genera, the several sensations referred to touch; but it is not necessary to be done here. From certain sensations referred to touch it appears, that not only the extremities, but that every part of the nervous system is sentient with respect to certain impressions.

Sensations of Consciousness.

The sensations of consciousness may be referred to the following heads: 1. Those of apperception, by which we are in general conscious of thinking, of perceiving, judging, and willing, and thereby of our existence and identity. 2. The sensations arising from the particular state of thinking, as perception, memory, and judgment, are more or less clear, ready, or exact. 3. The sensations arising from the particular state of volition, and its various modes. 4. The sensations arising from the general state of action, as vigorous or weak, easy or difficult. 5. The sensations arising from particular actions, or a consciousness of the actions excited, and of the motion of the different parts of the body. 6. The sensations arising from the diminution or absence of impressions.

Under each of these heads a great number of particular sensations are comprehended, but not necessary to be farther specified here.

Laws or general Circumstances of Sensation.

Of the four first genera, the sensations arising give no indication of the nature of the bodies acting on our organs, or of the mode of their action; and when we otherwise learn these circumstances, we can perceive no necessary connection between them and the sensations which they produce. But from certain sensations of touch and consciousness, we acquire the notions of solid figure, of motion, impulse, impenetrability, and the communication of motion, and consider the sensations as exactly correspondent to the circumstances of external bodies. At the same time, as we know of no other action of bodies on each other but that of impulse; and as, in the case of the sensations of the four first genera, we

learn, that an impulse takes place, we have comprehended the whole under the title of Sensations of Impression, and consider all of them as perceptions of impulse. To produce any sensation of impression, a certain force of impression is necessary; and from a lesser force, no sensation arises. The degree of force is likewise so limited on the other hand, that, in a high degree, it destroys the organ; and, in degrees approaching to this, a general sensation of pain, rather than the sensation of any particular object, is produced. Within these limits, however, our sensations are not exactly correspondent to the force of impression, nor do they make any exact estimate of that force. Usually sensation is relative to the change that is produced in the nervous system; and a sensation proves strong or weak, only as it is stronger or weaker than that which had immediately preceded it, or than that degree of force to which the nerves had been immediately before accustomed. For this reason too the limits are very variable. Different sensations do not always imply a different kind of action in the bodies producing them; for sometimes different sensations arise merely from a different degree of force in the same kind of action, as is manifest in the case of heat and cold. To sensation from impression, a certain duration of impression is necessary. The mind's resting for some time upon one sensation, is called *attention*. This, like the duration, is necessary to give an impression its full effect. The mind seems to be determined to attention by the force of impression; by the pleasure or pain arising from it; by the degree of emotion or passion produced by these; and, lastly, by the emotions being more or less related to the person feeling. If the force and duration of impres-

sion, and the attention of mind, are all in the due degree, the sensation often remains for some time after the impression or action of the external body has ceased. The mind admits of, or can attend to, one sensation only at one time. Though the mind admits but of one sensation at one time, several impressions may act at the same time, if they be such as can unite in producing a single sensation; and such is the case of many of the impressions which produce the particular sensations of the same genus, as in those especially of colour, sound, smell, and taste. In each of these genera, many impressions, which separately produce particular species, can unite in producing a single sensation, which is always a neutral, or one different from either of the separate sensations. This union of impressions may take place, either when the impressions are exactly synchronous, or when the one succeeds the other before the sensation of the first has ceased. Though the motion excited in the sentient extremities, by impression, remains some time, it must be supposed to become continually weaker, till at length it ceases altogether, and with it the sensation. The same impression, soon repeated, does not produce the same strength of sensation as before. Hence, all new impressions are, *ceteris paribus*, strongest; and moderate impressions, frequently repeated, produce no sensation, unless their force is considerably increased. Actions which at first produced a sensation of consciousness, as accompanied with volition, come, by repetition, to be performed without any sensation; or they produce it only when they are performed with uneasiness, pain, or unusual force. Impressions being given, their effects, in producing sensation, are different in different persons, and in the same person at

different times. This must arise from some difference in the state of the bodies acted upon, which may perhaps be referred to the following heads: 1. The state of the common teguments, or other parts interposed between the impressing body and the medullary substance of the sentient extremity. 2. The different state of the medullary substance of the sentient extremities, as given to it in the original stamina. 3. The different state of tension in the medullary substance of the sentient extremities, as given to it by the state of the blood-vessels constantly connected with it. 4. The state of the medullary substance, as affected by heat or cold. 5. The state of it as produced by former impressions. 6. The state of the nerves along which the motion is propagated. 7. The state of the brain or sensorium. 8. The state of attention. Different parts of the body are sensible, and sensible only by means of nerves present in them; but anatomy does always determine certainly with regard to the presence or absence of nerves; and, therefore, the sensibility of several parts can be determined by experiment only; which, however, is also fallacious. Particular sensations arise from impressions of certain parts only: 1. Because the sentient extremities in these parts are so situated as to be exposed to the action of certain external bodies only. 2. Because the sentient extremities are connected with an organ that increases the force of the external agent, or modifies its action in the manner necessary to a determined impression. 3. Because the fibres of certain sentient extremities are, by their size or tension, fitted to be acted upon by certain external bodies only. 4. Because certain sentient extremities are so constantly preserved in a certain state, as to render them more sensible to a change. These circumstances determine the mode of impulse, but do

not account for the sensation arising from it. Different sensations are accompanied with different judgments concerning the bodies making impression, and the part of the human body upon which it is made. Some sensations are referred to bodies at a distance; others, to external bodies in contact; and others to the feeling body itself. When sensations are referred to our own bodies, it is in three several ways: they are most commonly referred to the part on which immediately the impression is made; and this, with regard to the external parts, very accurately; but, with regard to the internal, much less so: and, commonly, the sensations arising from internal parts, are referred to the incumbent external part, with some obscure distinction between superficial and more deep. 2. Sensations are sometimes referred, not to the part upon which the impression is immediately made, but to a distant more sensible part, to which a motion is propagated from the part impressed. 3. As sensations usually arise from impressions made upon the extremities of the nerves, and are referred to these; so impressions made on the nerves in their course, are sometimes referred to the extremities from whence they had commonly arisen. The sensations of consciousness are referred to the *encephalon*. So are those of impressions, if they are moderate; but, if more vehement, they are often referred to those parts in which their effects are exerted, as the heart and organs of respiration. The sensations of consciousness are seldom, with accuracy, referred to particular parts, but indistinctly to a whole member. We are not conscious of the action of particular muscles, except when their contraction is spasmodic. We are disposed to combine our sensations as united in one object; and thus form what is called *complex ideas*. We compare our several sen-

tations, and from thence acquire new sensations of *relation*. When sensations formerly received are again renewed by the same objects, it is, for the most part, with a consciousness of their having been formerly received; and this faculty we call *reminiscence*. Perceptions formerly received can be renewed without the presence or action of the object which formerly gave occasion to them: and if this is attended with a consciousness of a difference between the vividness of the two perceptions, and particularly of the absence of the original objects, such a renewed perception is called an *idea*; and the faculty by which this renewal is made, is called *memory*. Perceptions formerly received can, without the presence of the original object, be renewed also in such a manner, that the mind does not perceive any difference between the original and the renewed perception; and therefore, such renewal is always attended with the persuasion of the presence of the object. The faculty by which such renewal is made, we call *imagination*, more strictly. *Reminiscence* depends upon the force or frequent repetition of the former sensation. *Memory* depends upon an association of perceptions, which is formed by their being frequently repeated immediately after each other; by their being parts of the same complex idea; and, by their having relations marked. *Memory* is generally faithful to such associations; but it is more or less so in different persons, according to the number and importance of the relations marked; according to the frequency of the repetition of the sensations, and the marking of their relations; and according to the different states of the brain, very little known. *Imagination* seems always to depend upon internal causes, that is, upon causes acting in the brain. *Memory* and *imagination* renew distinctly the ideas of seeing and hearing only. All

others are renewed imperfectly, or not at all, but all others may be associated with the sensations or ideas of seeing and hearing, so that these become signs of the others. The memory, in renewing these signs, so far renews the idea belonging to them, as to renew their several associations and relations; to renew, in some degree, the pleasure or pain which formerly attended the sensations themselves; and particularly to renew the emotions of mind, or motions of the body, which the sensations formerly produced. Most of our sensations, perhaps all of them, are either pleasant or painful. The words *pleasant* and *painful* are commonly generic terms, each of them comprehending a great many species, which seem to require being assorted under several different genera. Thus, in the first place, our sensations may be divided into those we desire, and those we are averse to. Of those we desire, we may distinguish those which arise from qualities we refer to other bodies, from those we refer entirely to our own. The first may be named more strictly the *agreeable*, the last the *pleasant*. In like manner, of the sensations we are averse to, we may distinguish the *disagreeable* and the *painful*. But, farther, the last must be distinguished from the sense of aversion, which accompanies certain sensations of consciousness, as the sense of debility, lassitude, difficulty, &c. and particularly from that which is referred obscurely to internal parts, and this we name *anxiety*. These sensations may be called the *uneasy*; and every one distinguishes this kind from that of the *painful*, more strictly so called. These last seem to be always sensations of impression, referred pretty accurately to a particular part. There is thus a foundation for establishing different genera of the sensations we desire, and of those we are averse to; as also, for greater precision in the em-

employment of terms; but the fixing the limits of these genera, and assorting the several species, may be still difficult; so that we cannot be certain of applying the terms every where with strict propriety. The enumeration of the agreeable or disagreeable, and even of the pleasant sensations, would not be of much use here; and the enumeration of the uneasy and painful, though much more interesting, belongs to the pathology. However, we think it proper to deliver here the few following propositions. Sensation and action, within certain limits, are always desired; and the want of sensation, or imperfect and indistinct sensations, are always uneasy. In action of every kind, the sensations of debility and difficulty are also uneasy. In sensations of impression, their being pleasant or painful often depends on the degree of force in the impression, allowance being made for the sensibility of the system. As impressions, by being repeated, produce weak sensations, impressions at first painful may, by repetition, be changed into pleasant, and the pleasant into insipid and uneasy. Hence arises, with regard to moderate impressions, the pleasure of novelty, the desire of variety, and the desire of increasing the force of pleasant impressions. There is a condition of impressions, rendering them objects of desire or aversion, that cannot with certainty be referred to their force. This condition we call the quality of impressions. Impressions are often rendered objects of desire or aversion, by combination, succession, and relation. No sensations arise originally in the mind, without a previous change in the state of the body. Certain impressions, and certain states of the body, like to those which produce the sensations of consciousness, may both of them act upon the

nervous system, without producing any sensation.

SENSES. The senses are distinguished into external and internal. The external are five, viz. smelling, seeing, hearing, tasting, and touching. These are considered under their respective heads. It is common to all these, that the medulla of the tender and pulpy nerve, being affected by external objects, transmits some change to that part of the brain where the fibres of the nerve affected first arise from the arteries of the brain. We know nothing more, than that new thoughts are excited in the mind, as often as a change of this kind, originating in any organ of sense, is transmitted to the origin of the nerve affected. For this perception is not an actual representation of the object, by which the sentient nerve is affected. The idea of redness has nothing in common with rays little refrangible, and separated from the seven portions of the total ray; and much less is it consistent with optical principles, for an image painted by rays upon a soft white nerve, to be conveyed for a long way, in perfect darkness, through a completely opaque body, to the origin of the optic nerves. There is nothing in the pain of burning that can represent to the mind the violent motion of a swift and subtle matter by which the particles of the nerves are removed from mutual contact. There is nothing in the idea of a sharp sound from a cord of a certain length that can inform the mind that the said cord vibrates 5000 times in the space of a second. Neither does the taste teach us that the crystals of sea-salt are of a cubical figure. Lastly, motion imparted by a body perceived by the senses, is indeed propagated to the brain, but the mind neither perceives this motion, nor the

tremors of sound, nor the percussion of the rays of light, but something perfectly distinct from motion. It is established as a reciprocal law by the Creator, that with certain changes, produced first in the nerve, and then in the sensorium commune, new and definite thoughts shall arise in the mind, invariably connected; and that our perceptions of external objects are arbitrary, yet that they are not false, appears plainly from the perpetual agreement of similar ideas with similar affections of the sentient nerves, in all persons at the same time, and in one person at different times.

Therefore, when we feel, five very different existences are conjoined: the thing which we perceive; the affection of the organ of sense by that body; the affection of the brain, arising from the percussion of that sensory; the change produced in the mind; and, lastly, the consciousness of the mind, and perception of the sensation.

It appears from certain experiments, that the first origin of every sentient nerve is always distinct from all the others; and that the change which is first excited by external objects in that nerve, continues long in its origin; and that those changes are generally so arranged in the said part of the brain, that, being disposed according to the order of time, those are nearest together which were either cotemporary, or occurred in immediate succession; or, lastly, those which have a relation to the same subject, or were excited by similar objects; insomuch that it is certain that new ideas are conveyed to the same part of the brain where others of the like kind are reserved: for otherwise, neither would the arbitrary signs of words and letters recall to the memory past ideas; or disagreeable ideas, returning into the mind, without the assistance of exter-

nal objects, reproduce the same effects as objects themselves; nor otherwise, could there be so constant and manifest a connection of analogous ideas, which supervene most remarkably in dreaming, to the corporeal impressions, acting at the time most powerfully. Imagination and memory depend on this conservation of ideas. Those changes conserved in the sensorium, which manner ideas, are, for the sake of distinction, by us called the impression of things, as they do not exist in the mind, but are impressed in the body itself, and indeed in the medulla of the brain, in an incomprehensible manner, by certain characters, incredible in their minuteness, and infinite in their number. Amongst these impressions received by the sight are the most remarkable, and most distinctly preserved, and next, those of hearing; those of the other organs are more confused, and less revocable by the will. Both the impression and their signs are preserved; the latter more easily; the former, however, so far, that a painter can express with his pencil upon canvas a face similar to the image of a familiar face, impressed upon his mind.

We are said to imagine, when by means of any image preserved in the sensorial part of the brain, the same ideas are excited in the mind which would arise if the sentient nerve that first produced the said image itself suffered that change. This we term recalling an image. This definition is confirmed by the example of the great strength of fancy in certain persons, and in those who are delirious, and in every person, in the instance of dreams, in which thoughts arise in the mind, occasioned by the images preserved in the brain, not at all weaker than those which are primarily produced by the change in the sentient nerve, from the external ob-

nerve that is too strong, and pleasure, in which the nerve is irritated beyond what is usual, but in a moderate degree. Itching is akin to pleasure, and in both the flow of blood is increased into the part in which either pleasure or titillation is perceived; but, when farther increased, it degenerates into pain, or excessive sensation in the nerve. Anxiety is from the blood being retarded in its passage through the lungs. Other ideas which affect the mind are either entirely unconnected with the properties of matter, or certainly less simple, understood, or mechanical, than the foregoing. The presence of good constitutes joy; the desire of good, love; the expectation of good, hope; the presence of evil, sorrow, terror, or despair; the dislike of evil, hatred; and the expectation of evil, fear. Hope, curiosity, and glory, seem to be affections of the human mind, which either belong to the body, nor exist in beasts.

From these affections of the mind, not only the pure will appears to direct the actions of the body to a preseen purpose, in order to attain good, and avoid evil, but also in the body itself, neither willing them nor capable of opposing them, various changes happen in the pulse, respiration, appetite, strength, and other functions of the heart, nerves, stomach, and other parts, which both immediately follow and indicate the passions of the mind. Thus anger violently excites the motion of the spirits, increases the motion of the heart, the frequency of the pulse, and the strength of the muscles; forces the blood into the ultimate and illucid vessels, and even out of the vessels; accelerates the excretion of bile, terminates chronic diseases, and removes obstructions. Grief weakens the strength of the nerves, and retards the

pulse; destroys the appetite; and produces paleness, cachexy, diarrhæa, jaundice, scirrhoties, and diseases arising from a stagnation of the humours. Fear diminishes the force of the heart, so as to occasion polypuses and paleness, weakens the muscular motions, relaxes the sphincters, increases inhalation, and diminishes exhalation. Excessive terror increases the strength even to convulsion; excites the pulse; removes obstructions, palsies; interrupts the course of the blood, and produces sudden death. Love, hope, and joy, promote perspiration, quicken the pulse, promote the circulation, increase the appetite, and facilitate the cure of diseases. Excessive and sudden joy often kills, by increasing the motion of the blood, and exciting a true apoplexy. Shame in a peculiar manner retains the blood in the face, as if the veins were tied; and also suppresses the menses, and has been even known to kill.

In what manner are these changes produced by the respective passions of the mind? Do nervous sphincters regulate the vessels, and at one time compress them subfultorily, and increase the motion of the blood, and at another relax them and destroy their tone? That something like this obtains in the smaller vessels appears evidently from the very similar effects produced by fear and cold upon the nerves of the skin. In the genital parts we manifestly see the veins, under particular circumstances, constricted, and a consequent accumulation of blood; and it seemed probable, that in the larger vessels, the nervous nooses surrounding many of them produced the same effects: for, in various parts, they surround and include the meningeal, temporal, vertebral, carotid, subclavian, celiac, mesenteric, renal, and other arteries. But after it was shewn by our experiments, that the nerves are at rest

during the action of the muscles, and cannot be rendered shorter by any irritation, we were obliged to desert this elegant theory. Nor would it seem far from the truth, that the arteries are rendered more less irritable from the various sensibility of the nerves, and thus may be contracted more vehemently or languidly by the same quantity of blood, and that thus the motion of the blood is either quickened or retarded, if it were at all certain that the smaller arteries have the same irritable nature with the large ones. Thus the appetite and peristaltic motion of the stomach and intestines, are manifestly destroyed by the affections of the mind.

It cannot be denied that the Creator has affixed characteristic marks to the passions of the mind, that in social life man might not easily impose on man. For the respective muscles, more especially of the voice, face, and eyes, express the several passions of the mind so faithfully, that they may be even represented in painting. To investigate each of them, would indeed be an elegant task, but too long for an article in this work. From the action of these muscles being often repeated, physiognomy arises, so that the constant expression of the face retains something of the action of the prevailing muscles; and some character of frequent anger often remains in the countenance, after the passion itself is gone off.

Whence proceeds the sympathy of parts, so famous in the practice of physic? In some of them it appears to depend upon the connection of the blood-vessels; by which the blood, being repelled from one part, presses more heavily upon another, which has its vessels from the same common trunk. This comprehends revulsions made by blood-letting; head-ach, from cold feet, &c. In other parts, the sympathy arises

from a similitude in their fabric, by which they suffer like effects from the same causes arising in the body such as the sympathy betwixt the womb and the breasts. Another cause is, the continuity of membranes from hence the itching in the gland of the penis from calculus, the cure of deafness by diarrhæa. Another cause exists in the nerves themselves and their anastomoses, as satisfactorily appears from the teeth being set on edge by certain sounds, a disagreeable sensation being produced in the maxillary nerve, on account of its various communications with the portio dura. Thus the sympathy of the eyes, which is not observable in like manner in the ears, proceeds from the decussation of the optic nerves; and vomiting is excited by nephritis. Lastly, another cause is referred to the common sensory, and beginning of the nerves, which is demonstrated from general convulsions being produced by the irritation of a single nerve, and universal epilepsy by a local disorder, &c. Some sympathies in diseases arise from a translation of the matter to other parts through the cellular substance, or by the action of the muscles, arteries, or gravity. See *Sympathy*.

But that important sympathy remains to be explained, which subsists betwixt the body and the mind. For that the nature of the mind is different from that of the body, is proved by an infinity of circumstances, especially by ideas and affections of the mind, to which nothing in sensation is analogous. For what is the colour of pride? or what the magnitude of envy or curiosity? to which there is nothing similar in animals neither can that good which is desired by it, glory and the acquisition as it were of new ideas, be referred to any corporeal pleasure. Is it possible that the body can possess two kinds of forces, so that its infinity

jects, and in which the perfect resemblances of persons and things with which we are occupied, are represented to the mind. Attention, quiet, and the absence of other objects, even obtain a stronger assent of the mind to these traces impressed on the brain, than to those perceptions which are excited in the mind by external objects; for the will is much more powerfully determined in those who dream, than in those who are awake; and some voluntary muscles perform, during sleep, functions, which while awake they never could perform, even when their nerves were most strongly affected by the same object. From hence we may understand how it is possible, that a very vivid internal impression in delirium may so impose upon the mind, as to be mistaken for the perception of an external object; which is evident in the sparks which are excited by rubbing the optic nerve; in the redness seen by the eye when shut; in the vertigo that arises from a motion of the retina, which we ascribe to the external objects themselves; in double vision, &c.

Memory is said to be exercised, when any thought of the mind, or image of an external object preserved in the sentient part of the brain, excites any perception in the mind. This is commonly weaker than in imagination, and almost confined to certain arbitrary signs, which the mind conjoined with that idea at its first perception. For memory hardly represents the images and pictures of things to the mind, but almost only words, and certain attributes, and abstract ideas; for which reason it excites volition less powerfully. But it appears from the observation of the phenomena of memory, that those changes which arise from the external senses, remain long in the brain; and sometimes, if they made a strong impression, are represented

to the mind for a long period, almost for ever; but that they are gradually weakened and impaired; unless they be renewed, either by the object being represented again to the mind, or by the mind itself recalling the same change again into memory; and that at last the change will be in a manner erased, and entirely lost, and the idea which was connected with that change by the law of nature, will never again recur to the mind. This annihilation is gradually effected by new and different impressions made on the sensorium, and not from time only, or the circulation of the blood, as in cataleptic patients, who sometimes after a considerable interval of time, return to the same train of thought which the disease had interrupted. But sometimes all of them will be suddenly destroyed by some disease, in which the brain is in some way compressed, either by the blood or any other cause. Such a cause, acting on part of the common sensory, blots out a part of the impressions from the memory, such as certain words, or all of them, the characters by which we express words, or our friends, and even the necessities of life; yet all these impressions may often be renewed by removing the compressing cause. But the strength and duration of an idea depend upon its being unusual, excessive, or greatly conducing either to increase or lessen our felicity; and lastly, upon our attention to it, and repetition; which last renders the impressions so vivid, that their perception is at length mistaken by the mind for the perception of external objects, as in the case of maniacs.

Moreover, if we review the history of human life, it appears that in early infancy we have hardly any memory; only simple perceptions, that soon vanish: which, nevertheless, excite strong ideas in the mind, as we see

from the crying of infants. The memory is perfected by degrees, and the ideas received from favorite objects, and familiar persons, remain impressed in the mind of the infant; while at the same time, the imagination likewise encreases, which is often very powerful in young children; as for example, in terror, which in no age produces more violent or deplorable effects. Afterwards, as the number of our ideas increases, the facility of preserving past ideas is impaired, and at the same time, the power of the imagination becomes torpid; till at last the former almost perishes, and the ideas which are received escape from the brain in a short time; while at the same time, the imagination, which is a kind of memory, languishes.

But since these perceptions produce various changes in the mind itself, which are perfectly distinct from any corporeal faculty, we shall briefly add something concerning them, so far as may suffice for the purposes of medicine. Thought resides in the soul, it attends to the sensations which are either brought by the senses, or recalled by the imagination; frequently also to the mere signs which recur into the mind. Attention is when one idea occupies the mind principally or solely for any length of time. The comparison of two ideas, instituted by the mind, is called judgment or genius, when the mind, by comparing them, discovers them to be alike or dissimilar. Genius consists in a vivid sensation conjoined with rapidity of thought, so as instantly to abstract from notions their points of similitude and dissimilitude. The principal source of judgment, invention, and wisdom, consists in the slow examination of ideas, by which they are considered by the mind in every point of view, and in the attention of the mind being confined to one object,

to the exclusion of all other ideas. Hence the efficacy of darkness in making difficult calculations; the exquisite attention of blind people to the nature of sounds, and of those who are deaf, to colours. The sources of error are negligence in contemplating the whole idea, the estimating it from a partial view, and the connection of ideas with others that are distinct, and only related by accident, or external causes.

The integrity of the judgment depends upon a healthy constitution of the brain. For when that is compressed, irritated, exhausted of blood, or changed in its fabric, the use of reason is totally disturbed; the strong internal impressions on the brain are represented to the mind as external or real objects; the chain of ideas is broken, so that the mind does not compare them, or perceive their resemblance or diversity, but passes abruptly from one idea to another totally different; or lastly, the actions of the senses being impaired or interrupted, and all impressions being in a manner erased from the brain, man is reduced to a state of imbecility or vegetation. But external causes also have considerable influence in changing the relation of the mind to the impressions of the senses; the air, way of life, food, and habit, either assist or diminish the soundness of the judgment, the force of the imagination, and the strength of the memory.

Finally, as these ideas are either indifferent, or have some relation to our happiness, they produce different determinations in the will. Some of the causes by which the felicity of our mind is either increased or diminished, proceed entirely from the body, and are purely mechanical; amongst these are pain, disagreeable sensations, which seem to be produced by every sensation in a

particles should unite into one mass, which do not preserve their own affections only, and represent them to themselves, but also join together into one common thinking whole, differing from the attributes of all, and yet capable both of receiving and comparing these attributes? Is there any instance of a body, which, without an external cause, passes from rest to motion, changes or reverses the direction of motion, without the action of some other cause, as is very easily observed with regard to the mind?

Yet this mind, so different from the body, is connected with it by the most intimate ties, being both obliged to think upon those impressions which the body presents to it, and not seeming to possess memory or judgment, independent of the corporeal impressions on the brain; and, lastly, by means of volition being the cause or occasion of the greatest and swiftest motions in the body.

Those have acted circumspectly who, confessing themselves ignorant of the manner in which the body and mind are united, have contented themselves with the laws established by the Creator, which they have ascertained and not conjectured. They are manifestly excused by the observation, that even in optics, it is very certain that the affections of the body are connected with the thoughts of the mind, by an arbitrary relation, and that other ideas would have been suggested, if the Creator had altered the figure, the refracting powers, or colours of the parts of the eye. As there is a law, which establishes a perpetual connection between the least refrangible rays and the idea of a red colour; there is also a law which constitutes the connection betwixt the impression of those rays upon the retina, and the corresponding idea. Nor need we be more ashamed of our ignorance of the mechanism of the latter

law, than of our ignorance of the nature of the former.

Does the mind govern the body? Do all the motions and actions in the body arise from the mind, as the immediate source and origin of motion? Do the motions of the heart, arteries, and respiration, arise from the mind, willing them and solicitous for the common good of the whole system? Is this power of the mind demonstrated by the structure of polypiformed in wounds, by the passions of the mind, and by the *nervi materni*? Is the absence of consciousness accounted for by the well-known example of the obscure perceptions we have in respiration, winking, and muscular motion, all of which are effected by the will, although we do not know the organs, or attend, that we will, when we breathe, wink, or walk, when occupied in thought? Is it therefore certain, that all motions arise from the mind, because there is no other evident cause perpetually connected with the body, to which they can be referred?

There are many reasons which do not yet permit us to adopt this opinion. And, first, the construction and government of the body itself appear greatly to exceed the wisdom of the mind. Our mind sees one point distinctly, and thinks one thought distinctly; but if it endeavours to see two objects at the same time, to contemplate two ideas at the same time, or to read two letters at once, it always becomes confused, commits mistakes, and comprehends neither rightly; and conscious of its own powers, whenever it applies seriously and diligently to any object, it withdraws itself as it were from the impressions of sense, and neither sees, nor hears, nor smells, nor performs muscular actions. But the mind ought to be capable of infinite and distinct thoughts, in order to be able to govern such an infinite variety of

muscles, vessels, and fibres, in a manner accommodated to the most exact geometry; and to resolve and construct occasional problems in the direction of the muscles, scarcely soluble by the highest geometry; and yet we must conclude the mind ignorant of this immense task, and at the same time, over and above all those works, capable of contemplating the most difficult and abstract ideas; so that neither the care of the body disturbs its meditations, nor its meditations interfere with the necessary motions of the body.

Moreover, if, without being conscious of volition, we can will to respire, or wink, and with effect; we nevertheless retain our control, and can suspend respiration, and keep the eye-lids firm, and alternately excite their actions, and therefore we never lose either the consciousness of our control, or the use of it. But we are not able to perform any thing of this kind in the heart or intestines; we cannot restrain their motion when too quick, or excite them when languid. Amongst all mankind, why does every one govern his respiration? why in all ages no one his heart? If custom only is the cause of our unconsciousness of this power, why is not the mind sensible of its action, in moving the heart, or in exercising the peristaltic motion, after being suspended for hours, or even whole days, in swoons, in hysteric fits, and in asphexia?

But it is evidently false, that all motions arise from the mind, and that without it matter would be an immovable inert mass: for the contractility excitable by every stimulus, to which the motion of the heart, intestines, and perhaps all the other motions in the human body, belong, does not require the presence of the mind; it continues in the dead body; it is excited by mechanical causes, heat, and inflation; and it does not

desert the fibres, until they become stiff and cold, although the mind which perceives and wills, may have been a long time expelled by the destruction of the brain and heart; and even although the muscle, by being taken out of the body, has been separated from every imaginable connection with the mind.

Little, if any, reliance is to be put in the *nævi materni*, as is noticed in another place. That the direction of the vital motions, in diseases, is not regulated by prudence, but almost entirely by the power of stimulus; we are explicitly taught by the most ancient and only certain practice, which restrains the excessive motions in acute and intermitting febrile diseases, by the use of blood-letting, opium, nitre, Peruvian bark, &c. The sage has no prerogative in the government of his body, over the merest idiot: and that the fœtus, which even at birth is ignorant of the motions of its muscles, and learns by experience to walk, to swallow and to see, constructs its body, fabricated with such incredible art, is an affirmation so repugnant to probability, and so absurd, that of itself alone it is sufficient to refute the hypothesis.

The state of aptitude for exercising the senses and voluntary motion, in healthy organs, is called wakefulness. Indisposition to such exercise, and their perfect rest, with healthy organs, is called sleep.

In sleep, the mind either thinks not at all of what she knows or retains in memory; or only attends to the traces of past objects repositied in the common sensory, the vivid representations of which excite altogether the same perceptions in the mind as are made by the impression of external objects upon the organs of sense. These representations are called dreams; and have the effect, that while the rest of the emporium of the

senses and muscular motion is at rest, some part remains open, is pervaded by the spirits and watches. Sometimes certain voluntary motions are conjoined with these perceptions of the mind, so that the organs of speech, many, or all of the limbs, are directed by these perceptions, as in somnambulists.

But, during sleep, the motion of the heart proceeds, and also the distribution and circulation of all the humours in the body, the peristaltic motion of the stomach and intestines, and the action of the sphincters, Lastly, the respiration itself continues to be performed in like manner. This conjunction of the quiescence of certain organs with the motion of others, renders a knowledge of the mechanical cause of sleep difficult.

Therefore, in order to investigate it, we shall consider all the causes, and all the phenomena, both of sleep and vigilance, and trace them in all kinds of animals. For that condition, which is produced alike by all those causes, will be the true cause of sleep. Sleep naturally follows vigilance and the labours of human life. For when awake, there is almost a continual motion of the voluntary muscles, and of the organs of the senses, and the affections of the mind continually impart new stimuli to the nerves, blood-vessels, and heart. Thus the blood, by continual motion and trituration, is altered from a bland nature to an alkaline putridity; while the more subtle spirits are dissipated faster than they are replaced, and gradually not only debility and lassitude of the body are induced: and, if the want of sleep be protracted too long, also feverish heat, acrimony of the humours, and loss of strength. On the return of night, torpor is perceived in all the long muscles; the mind becomes unfit for deep thought, and the desire of rest pervades both mind and body. At this time, the

powers which hold the body erect, suffer particularly; the eye-lids close involuntarily, the lower jaw falls down, the necessity of yawning increases, the head nods forwards, the circumstances of external objects affect us less; and lastly, the ideas and thoughts become disturbed, and a delirium ensues; from which the transition to sleep is not perfectly known; but which invariably precedes sleep. In this natural sleep, which is common to all animals, the cause seems to be a deficiency of the nervous spirits, which have been in some manner consumed by muscular motion, and the exercise of the senses, and of which probably a great quantity is exhaled.

The absence of every irritation of the head, and other parts of the body, the perfect rest of the mind and external senses, and darkness, have great influence in promoting sleep.

Again, a variety of causes which debilitate, induce and increase sleep: such as great losses of blood, venesection, cooling medicines, opiates, and coldness of the atmosphere, and also applications which drive the blood from the head, as warm-bathing of the feet, and a plentiful meal, which always produces sleep in all kind of animals.

On the contrary, again, various hot medicines induce sleep, by accelerating the flow of blood to the brain; such as wine, spirits of all sorts, but more especially when resolved into vapour, opium, hyoscyamus, the indigestible particles of our aliments, acute and malignant fevers of various kinds; or by retarding the return of the venous blood, as fatness. All these causes seem to concur in this, that the blood being collected in the head, compresses the brain, and intercepts the course of the spirits into the nerves.

But likewise mechanical causes produce sleep; for example, every

compressure of the dura mater and brain, whether from extravasated blood, a depressed bone, or a collection of water in the ventricles.

Sleep, therefore, arises either from a simple absence, deficiency and immobility of the spirits, or from compression of the nerves; and always from the motion of the spirits through the brain being impeded.

This theory is confirmed by the causes of vigilance: for all those things prevent sleep which produce plenty of spirits; more especially warm aromatic drinks, which send minute stimulating particles to the head; by which the motion of the blood is moderately quickened through the brain, and, being at the same time more diluted, it secretes more spirits in a given time.

Sleep, again, is prevented by cares of the mind, attentive and interesting meditation, and pain of body and mind; all of which prevent the spirits in the sensorium commune from resting, and the nerves from collapsing. Therefore, the former causes increase the quantity of the spirits, these increase their motion. And, therefore, we return to our former conclusion, namely, that the nature of sleep consists in the collapse of the nerves proceeding from the sensorium commune.

Is the region of sleep, therefore, in the ventricles of the brain? It is inconsistent with the universality of sleep, which extends to animals which have no ventricles in their brain. Do the vital actions continue during sleep, because it is an affection peculiar to the brain, and independent of the cerebellum? and what is the cause of this diversity, which occasions the animal functions to rest during sleep, and the vital functions to continue? It is that already mentioned, that vital motions are prevented from resting by perpetual stimuli, and perpetually exciting causes.

The effect of sleep is the abatement of all the motions in the human body. For now the action of the heart alone remains to propel all the humours, while all the motions of the muscles and sentient nerves, and those originating from the passions of the mind and volition, are removed; by which, while awake, the course of the blood and spirits was promoted, as well as by the heart. The heart gradually returns from its quick and almost feverish pulsation, to its morning slowness; the breathing becomes less and slower, the peristaltic motion of the stomach and intestines, hunger, digestion, and the progression of the feces, are all diminished; the thinner juices move more slowly, while the more sluggish are collected together, and the effused fat is accumulated; the nourishing jelly adheres more plentifully to its fibres and cavities; the consumption of the spirits, the attrition of the blood, and the quantity of perspiration, are all diminished. Thus, while the nervous fluid continues to be secreted, and its consumption to be diminished, it is by degrees accumulated in the brain, so as to distend and fill the collapsed nerves, and from the accession of the slightest stimulus, both the internal and external senses are excited to action, and the system is awakened. Sleep, continued for too great a length of time, disposes to all the disorders that attend slowness of circulation, to fatness, drowsiness, and cachexies; and is highly detrimental to the memory.

Whence the yawning of those about to sleep? To promote the passage of the blood through the lungs, which is now slower. Whence the stretching of the limbs? To overbalance, by the influx of the spirits, the natural contraction of the muscles, by which all the limbs are put in a moderate degree of flexion,

the thick and short part of the muscle that arises from the first and second ribs, and is inserted into the upper angle of the scapula, its fibres ascending obliquely backwards. The second portion arises from the second rib, behind the origin of the first portion, and likewise from the third and fourth ribs; this portion is thin and short, and its fibres run nearly in a horizontal direction, to be inserted into the basis of the scapula. The third and most considerable portion is that which arises from the fifth, sixth, seventh, and eighth ribs, and is inserted into the lower angle of the scapula. The serratus magnus serves to move the scapula forwards, and it is chiefly by the contraction of this muscle that the shoulder is supported, when loaded with any heavy weight. The ancients, and even many of the moderns, particularly Douglas and Cowper, supposed its chief use to be to dilate the thorax, by elevating the ribs; but it can only do this when the scapula is forcibly raised.

SERRĀTUS MAJOR ANTĪCUS. See *Serratus magnus*.

SERRĀTUS MINOR ANTĪCUS. See *Pectoralis minor*.

SERRĀTUS POSTĪCUS INFERĪOR. This is a thin muscle, of considerable breadth, situated at the bottom of the back, under the middle part of the latissimus dorsi. It arises by a broad thin tendon, in common with that of the last described muscle, from the spinous processes of the two, and sometimes of the three inferior dorsal vertebræ, and from three, and sometimes four of those of the lumbar vertebræ. It then becomes fleshy, and, ascending a little obliquely outwards and forwards, divides into three, and sometimes four fleshy slips, which are inserted into the lower edges of the three or four inferior ribs, at a little distance from their

cartilages. Its use seems to be, to pull the ribs downwards, backwards, and outwards.

SERRĀTUS SUPERĪOR POSTĪCUS. This is a small, flat, and thin muscle, situated at the upper part of the back, immediately under the rhomboideus. It arises, by a broad thin tendon, from the lower part of the ligamentum colli, from the spinous process of the last vertebra of the neck, and the two or three uppermost of the back, and is inserted into the second, third, fourth, and sometimes fifth ribs, by as many distinct slips. Its use is to expand the thorax, by pulling the ribs upwards and outwards.

SERUM, (*Serum*, *i*, *n*. from *serus*, late, because it is the remainder of the milk after its better parts have been taken from it). The serum of the blood. The yellow and somewhat greenish fluid which separates from the blood when cold and at rest. See *Blood*.

SESAMOID BONES, (*Ossa sesamoidea*, from *σπαραγμή*, an Indian grain, and *ειδος*, likeness). This term is applied to the little bones, which, from their supposed general resemblance to the seeds of the sesamum, are called *ossa sesamoidea*. They are found at the articulations of the great toes, and sometimes at the joints of the thumbs; now and then we meet with them upon the condyles of the os femoris, at the lower extremity of the fibula, under the os cuboides of the tarsus, &c.—They do not exist in the fœtus, but as we advance in life, begin first to appear in a cartilaginous state, and, at length, in adult subjects, are completely ossified. Age and hard labour seem to add to the number and size of these bones, and being most commonly found wherever the tendons and ligaments are most exposed to pressure from the action of the muscles, they are now generally considered by ana-

tomists as the ossified parts of tendons and ligaments. These bones are usually smooth and flat on the side of the bone on which they are placed; their upper surface is convex, and, in general, adheres to the tendon that covers it, and of which it may, in some measure, be considered as a part. Although their formation seems to be owing to accidental circumstances, yet as the two at the first joint of the great toe are much larger than the rest, and are seldom wanting in an adult, it would seem as if these bones were of some utility; perhaps by removing the tendons farther from the centre of motion, and thus increasing the power of the muscles. The ossa sesamoidea of the great toe and thumb seem likewise to be of use, by forming a groove for lodging the flexor tendons secure from compression.

SESAMOIDAL BONES. See *Sesamoid bones*.

SESĀMUM, (*Sesamum*, *i*, n. an Egyptian word). The oily grain. The seed and leaves of this plant, *Sesamum orientale* of Linnæus, are used medicinally in some countries on account of the bland oil the former contains, and for the mucilaginous nature of the latter.

SESĀMUM ORIENTĀLE. The systematic name of the sesamum of the pharmacopœias. See *Sesamum*.

SESĒLI, (*Seseli*, *n*. ind. and *seselis*, *is*, *f*. σεσλι, παρα το σωσαι ελ-λον; because it is salutary for young fawns). *Siler montanum*. Hart-wort. Sermountain. The seeds and roots of this plant, *Laserpitium siler* of Linnæus, which grows in the southern parts of Europe are directed as officinals. They have an agreeable smell, and a warm, glowing, aromatic taste; and, though neglected in this country, do not appear to be deservedly so.

SESĒLI CRETICUM. There is great confusion amongst the species of the seseli. The plant which bears this epithet in the pharmacopœias is the *Tordylium officinale* of Linnæus. The seeds are said to be diuretic.

SESĒLI MASSILIENSE. Hart-wort of Marseilles. This plant is the *Seseli tortuosum* of Linnæus. The seeds are directed for medicinal use, and have a warm biting taste, and a greater degree of pungency than those of the *Laserpitium*.

SESĒLI TORTUOSUM. The systematic name of the hart-wort of Marseilles. See *Seseli massiliense*.

SESQUI. This word, joined with any number, weight, measure, &c. signifies one integer and an half; as *sesqui granum*, a grain and a half.

SETACĒUM, (*Setaceum*, *i*, *n*. from *seta*, a bristle; because horse hairs were first used to keep open the wound). A seton. See *Seton*.

SETON. An artificial ulcer made under the skin by means of an instrument called the seton needle, which carries with it a portion of thread or silk, that is moved backwards or forwards, and thus keeps up a constant irritation.

SETTERWORT. The bear's foot is sometimes so termed. See *Helleboraster*.

SEXUAL ACTION. Sexual functions. Those functions proper to each sex, by which the species is propagated, as the excretion of semen in men; menstruation, conception, the evolution of the fœtus, parturition, &c. in women.

SEXUAL SYSTEM. Linnæan system. The sexual system of plants was invented by the immortal Linnæus, professor of physic and botany at Upsal in Sweden. It is founded on the parts of fructification, viz. the stamens and pistills; these having been observed with more accuracy since the discovery of the uses for

and so to restore strength to the extensor muscles. Whence the opinion, that, during sleep, the motion of the heart becomes stronger, and the perspiration more plentiful? From the heat of the bed-clothes, by which the perspirable matter being confined, softens and relaxes the skin. But any one that sleeps in his usual garments, grows colder; and animals which sleep through the winter, become excessively cold, as dormice and hedge-hogs. Why do all animals grow sleepy after taking food? Not from pressure upon the aorta, or congestion of blood in the brain; for even animals which have scarcely any brain, sleep after food. Do the indigestible particles of our aliments, by passing less easily through the brain, and compressing its medulla, render the sleep less refreshing? Is dreaming perpetual and inseparable from sleep? Is it so far natural, and a kind of substitute for sensation to the mind, that it may never be without thought? This does not seem probable. We rather ascribe dreams to some morbid state, or to some stimulating cause, interrupting the perfect rest of the sensorium. Hence that sleep refreshes most which is without dreams, or at least without the remembrance of them. Hence they are generally wanting in the first sleep, at which time the spirits are most exhausted, and return in the morning when these are in some measure repaired. Hence care, the strong impression of some idea upon the memory, indigestible food, excess, or any uneasy posture of the body, occasion dreams; for they are usually generated by some sensation with which, according to the laws of the association of ideas, the whole collection of similar impressions connect themselves. See *Vigilance*.

SENSIBILITY. The capability which a nerve possesses of conveying

the sensation produced by the contact of another body with it. All parts possessed of a power of producing a change so as to excite a sensation, are called *sensible*; those which are not possessed of this property *insensible*. To the insensible parts by nature belong all our fluids, the blood, bile, saliva, &c. and much of the solids, the hair, epidermis, nails, &c.; but the sensible parts are the skin, eyes, tongue, ear, nose, muscles, stomach, intestines, &c.

SENSORIUM. *Sensorium commune.* See *Cerebrum*.

SENSORIUM COMMUNE. See *Cerebrum*.

SENTIENT EXTREMITIES. The extremities of the nerves.

SEPIA OFFICINALIS. The systematic name of the fish whose shell possesses calcareous qualities, and is often mixed into tooth-powders.

SEPIÆ OS. See *Sepia officinalis*.

SEPTFOIL. See *Tormentilla*.

SEPTIC, (*Septica*; from *σναι*, to putrefy). Relating to putrefaction.

SEPTUM CEREBELLI. A process of the dura mater, dividing the cerebellum perpendicularly into two principal parts.

SEPTUM CEREBRI. The falciform process of the dura mater is sometimes so called. See *Falciform process*.

SEPTUM CORDIS, (*Septum, i, n.* from *sepio*, to separate). The partition between the two ventricles of the heart.

SEPTUM LUCIDUM. *Septum pelucidum.* The thin and tender portion of the brain dividing the lateral ventricles from each other.

SEPTUM NARIVM. The partition between the nostrils.

SEPTUM PELLUCIDUM. See *Septum lucidum*.

SEPTUM THORACIS. See *Mediastinum*.

SEPTUM TRANSVERSUM. See *Diaphragm*.

SERAPINUM. The gum resin sagapenum is sometimes so called. See *Sagapenum*.

SERMOUNTAIN. See *Seseli*.

SEROUS APOPLEXY. See *Aplexia*.

SERPENTARIA GALLORUM. The arum dracunculus. See *Oracunculus*.

SERPENTARIA HISPANICA. The viper's grass. See *Scorzonera*.

SERPENTARIA VIRGINIANA, (*Serpentaria*, *a*, *f*. so called from the resemblance of its roots to the tail of the rattlesnake). *Colubrina virginiana*. *Viperina virginiana*. Virginia snake-root. The plant which affords this root is the *Aristolochia serpentaria*; *foliis cordato-oblongis planis, caulibus infirmis flexuosis teretibus, floribus solitariis. Caulis geniculata valde nodosa. Flores ad radicem* of Linnæus. Class *Gynandria*. Order *Hexandria*. Snake-root has an aromatic smell, approaching to that of valerian, but more agreeable; and a warm, bitterish, pungent taste. It was first recommended as a medicine of extraordinary power in counteracting the poisonous effects of the bites of serpents; this, however, is now wholly disregarded: but as it possesses tonic and antiseptic virtues, and is generally admitted to be a powerful stimulant and diaphoretic, it is employed, in the present day, in some fevers where these effects are required. A *tinctura serpentarie* is directed both by the London and Edinburgh pharmacopœias.

SERPENTUM LIGNUM. The nature of this root does not appear to be yet ascertained. It is the produce of the *Ophioxylum serpentium* of Linnæus, by whom it is said to be very bitter. In the cure of the bite of venomous serpents and malignant diseases it is said to be efficacious.

SERPENTUM RADIX. See *Mungos radix*.

SERPIGO, (*Serpigo*, *inis*, *f*. from

serps, to creep; because it creeps on the surface of the skin by degrees). See *Herpes*.

SERPILLUM, (*Serpyllum*, *i*, *n*. *ερπυλλον*; from *ερπω*, to creep, or *a serpendo*, by reason of its creeping nature). *Serpillum*. Wild or mother of thyme. *Thymus serpillum* of Linnæus. *Thymus erectus, foliis revolutis ovatis, floribus verticillato-spicatis*. Class *Didynamia*. Order *Gymnospermia*. This plant has the same sensible qualities as those of the garden thyme (see *Thymus*), but has a milder and rather more grateful flavour.

SERPILLUM CITRATUM. Lemon thyme. A variety of the *Thymus serpillum* of Linnæus. It is very pungent; and has a particularly grateful odour, approaching to that of lemons.

SERRATULA AMARA. The systematic name of a species of saw-wort which is said to cure agues.

SERRATUS ANTICUS. See *Pectoralis minor*.

SERRATUS MAGNUS, (*Serratus*, from *serra*, a saw; so called from its saw-like appearance). This muscle is so named by Winslow and Albinus. Douglas calls it *serratus major anticus*, but improperly, as it is seated at the side, and not at the anterior part of the thorax. It is a broad fleshy muscle, of a very irregular shape, and is in part covered by the subscapularis, pectoralis, and latissimus dorsi. It arises, by fleshy digitations, from the eight superior ribs, and is inserted fleshy into the whole basis of the scapula internally, between the insertion of the rhomboides, and the origin of subscapularis, being folded, as it were, about the two angles of the scapula. This muscle may easily be divided into two and even three portions. The latter division has been adopted by Winslow. The first of these portions is

which nature has assigned them, a new set of principles have been derived from them, by means of which the distribution of plants has been brought to a greater precision, and rendered more conformable to true philosophy, in this system than in any one of those which preceded it. The author does not pretend to call it a natural system, he gives it as artificial only, and modestly owns his inability to detect the order pursued by nature in her vegetable productions; but of this he seems confident, that no natural order can ever be framed without taking in the materials out of which he has raised his own; and urges the necessity of admitting artificial systems for convenience, till one truly natural shall appear. Linnæus has given us his *Fragmenta methodi naturalis*, in which he has made a distribution of plants under various orders, putting together in each such as appear to have a natural affinity to each other; this, after a long and fruitless search after the natural method, he gives as the result of his own speculation, for the assistance of such as may engage in the same pursuit.

Not able to form a system after the natural method, Linnæus was more fully convinced of the absolute necessity of adopting an artificial one. For the student to enter into the advantages this system maintains over all others, it is necessary that he be instructed in the science of botany, which will amply repay him for his enquiry. The following is a short outline of the sexual system:

The parts of the fructification of a plant are,

1. The *calyx*, called also the *em-palement*, or flower cup.

2. The *corols*, or *foliation*, which is the gaudy part of the flower, called vulgarly the leaves of the flower.

3. The *stamens*, or threads, called

also the *chives*; these are considered as the male parts of the flower.

4. The *pistil*, or *pointal*, which is the female part.

5. The *pericarp*, or seed vessel.

6. The *seed*.

7. The *receptacle* or *base*, on which these parts are seated.

The four first are properly parts of the flower, and the three last parts of the fruit. It is from the number, proportion, position, and other circumstances attending these parts of the fructification, that the classes and orders, and the genera they contain, are to be characterized, according to the sexual system.

Such flowers as want the *stamens*, and have the *pistil*, are termed *female*.

Those flowers which have the *stamens*, and want the *pistil*, are called *male*.

Flowers which have both *stamens* and *pistils* are said to be *hermaphrodite*.

Neuter flowers are such as have neither *stamens* nor *pistils*.

Hermaphrodite flowers are sometimes distinguished into *male-hermaphrodites* and *female hermaphrodites*. This distinction takes place when, although the flower contains the parts belonging to each sex, one of them proves abortive or ineffectual; if the defect be in the *stamina*, it is a *female hermaphrodite*, if in the *pistil*, a *male* one.

Plants, in regard to sex, take also their denominations in the following manner:

1. *Hermaphrodite plants* are such as bear flowers upon the same root that are all hermaphrodite.

2. *Androgynous plants*, are such as, upon the same root, bear both male and female flowers, distinct from each other, that is, in separate flowers.

3. *Male plants*, such as bear male flowers only upon the same root.

4. *Female plants*, such as bear female flowers only upon the same root.

5. *Polygamous plants*, such as, either on the same or on different roots, bear hermaphrodite flowers, and flowers of either or both sexes.

The first general division of the

whole body of vegetables is, in the sexual system, divided into twenty-four *classes*; these again are subdivided into *orders*; the orders into *genera*; the genera into *species*; and the species into *varieties*, where they are worthy of note.

A Table of the Classes and Orders.

CLASSES.	ORDERS.
1. Monandria.	1. Monogynia. 2. Digynia.
2. Diandria.	1. Monogynia. 2. Digynia. 3. Trigynia.
3. Triandria.	1. Monogynia. 2. Digynia. 3. Trigynia.
4. Tetrandria.	1. Monogynia. 2. Digynia. 3. Tetragynia.
5. Pentandria.	{ 1. Monogynia. 2. Digynia. 3. Trigynia. 4. Tetragynia. 5. Pentagynia. 6. Polygynia.
6. Hexandria.	{ 1. Monogynia. 2. Digynia. 3. Trigynia. 4. Tetragynia. 5. Polygynia.
7. Heptandria.	{ 1. Monogynia. 2. Digynia. 3. Tetragynia. 4. Heptagynia.
8. Octandria.	{ 1. Monogynia. 2. Digynia. 3. Trigynia. 4. Tetragynia.
9. Enneandria.	1. Monogynia. 2. Trigynia. 3. Hexagynia.
10. Decandria.	{ 1. Monogynia. 2. Digynia. 3. Trigynia. 4. Pentagynia. 5. Decagynia.
11. Dodecandria.	{ 1. Monogynia. 2. Digynia. 3. Trigynia. 4. Pentagynia. 5. Dodecagynia.
12. Icosandria.	{ 1. Monogynia. 2. Digynia. 3. Trigynia. 4. Pentagynia. 5. Polygynia.
13. Polyandria.	{ 1. Monogynia. 2. Digynia. 3. Trigynia. 4. Tetragynia. 5. Pentagynia. 6. Hexagynia. 7. Polygynia.
14. Didynamia.	1. Gymnospermia. 2. Angiospermia.
15. Tetradynamia.	1. Siliculosa. 2. Siliquosa.
16. Monadelphica.	{ 1. Pentandria. 2. Decandria. 3. Endecandria. 4. Dodecandria. 5. Polyandria.
17. Diadelphia.	1. Pentandria. 2. Hexandria.
18. Polyadelphia.	1. Pentandria. 2. Icosandria. 3. Polyandria.
19. Syngenesia.	{ 1. Polygamia æqualis. 2. Polygamia superflua. 3. Polygamia frustranea. 4. Polygamia necessaria. 5. Polygamia segregata. 6. Monogamia.
20. Gynandria.	{ 1. Diandria. 2. Triandria. 3. Tetrandria. 4. Pentandria. 5. Hexandria. 6. Decandria. 7. Dodecandria. 8. Polyandria.

CLASSES.

ORDERS.

1. Monoecia.

2. Dioecia.

3. Polygamia.

4. Cryptogamia.
appendix.

1. Monandria. 2. Diandria. 3. Triandria.
4. Tetrandria. 5. Pentandria. 6. Hexan-
dria. 7. Heptandria. 8. Polyandria. 9. Mo-
nadelphia. 10. Syngenesia. 11. Gynan-
dria.

1. Monandria. 2. Diandria. 3. Triandria.
4. Tetrandria. 5. Pentandria. 6. Hexan-
dria. 7. Octandria. 8. Enneandria. 9. De-
candria. 10. Dodecandria. 11. Polyan-
dria. 12. Monadelphia. 13. Syngenesia.
14. Gynandria.

1. Monoecia. 2. Dioecia. 3. Trioecia.

1. Filices. 2. Musci. 3. Algæ. 4. Fungi.
Palmæ.

Explanation of these terms. As these terms in the Greek language, from whence they are taken, are all expressive of the principal circumstance that obtains in the class to which they are applied, the explanation of them will give the reader a good insight into the proper characters of the several classes, and the sexual distinctions on which they are founded.

Monandria; from *μὶς*, one, and *ἀνὴρ*, a husband, that is, a stamen.

Diandria; from *δύο*, two, and *ἀνὴρ*, husband.

Triandria; from *τρεῖς*, three, and *ἀνὴρ*, a husband.

Tetrandria; from *τέσσαρες*, four, and *ἀνὴρ*, a husband.

Pentandria; from *πέντε*, five, and *ἀνὴρ*, a husband.

Hexandria; from *ἕξ*, six, and *ἀνὴρ*, husband.

Heptandria; from *ἑπτά*, seven, and *ἀνὴρ*, a husband.

Octandria; from *οκτώ*, eight, and *ἀνὴρ*, a husband.

Enneandria; from *ἐννέα*, nine, and *ἀνὴρ*, a husband.

Decandria; from *δέκα*, ten, and *ἀνὴρ*, a husband.

It is necessary to observe here, that the flowers must all be hermaphro-

dite in these classes; for should the female part be wanting, the plant would belong to some other class, notwithstanding the number of stamina may be such as would otherwise refer it to one of these.

Dodecandria; from *δωδεκα*, twelve, and *ἀνὴρ*, a husband.

Notwithstanding the term implies that the flowers have twelve husbands, the class is not confined to this number; but includes all such hermaphrodite flowers as are furnished with any number of stamina, from *twelve* to *nineteen* inclusive. No flowers have yet been discovered that have eleven stamina, which is the reason no class has been allotted to that number.

Icosandria; from *εἰκοσι*, twenty, and *ἀνὴρ*, a husband.

Here, again, the title is to be understood with considerable latitude; for though it means that the flowers have *twenty* stamens, yet the plants belonging to this class are rarely found with less, yet they frequently have a greater number, and are therefore not to be known with certainty from the next class.

Polyandria; from *πολύς*, many, and *ἀνὴρ*, a husband.

This class comprehends those her-

hermaphrodite plants whose flowers have more stamens disunited than twenty.

Didynamia; from δις, two, and δυναμις, power.

This term imports the power or superiority of two, and is applied to this class, because its flowers have four stamens, of which there are two longer than the rest. This circumstance alone is sufficient to distinguish this from the fourth class, where the four stamens are equal.

Tetradynamia; from τεσσαρες, four, and δυναμις, power.

This term implies the power or superiority of four, and accordingly there are in the flowers of this class six stamens, four of which are longer than the rest, which circumstance distinguishes them from those of the sixth class where they are equal.

Monadelphia; from μονος, one, and αδελφος, a brotherhood.

The word here compounded with the numerical term, signifies a brother. This relation is employed to express the union of the filaments of the stamen, which in this class do not stand separate, but join at the base, and form one substance, out of which they proceed as from a common mother, and the title, therefore, expresses a single brotherhood, meaning, that there is but one set of stamens so united, which distinguishes this class from the two following. The number of stamens, it is to be recollected, is not limited.

Diadelphia; from δις, two, and αδελφος, a brotherhood.

This term implies a double brotherhood, or two sets of stamens, united in the manner explained in the former class. The number of stamens is not limited.

Polyadelphia; from πολυς, many, and αδελφος, a brotherhood.

Many brotherhoods or sets of stamens is meant by this term.

Syngenesia; from συν, together, and γινεσθαι, generation.

This term implies *congenegation* alluding to the circumstance of the stamens; in which, though the stamens stand separate, yet their anthers or tops, which are the parts more immediately subservient to generation, are united in a cylinder, and perform their office together.

Gynandria; from γυν, a wife, and ανης, a husband.

This term alludes to the singular circumstance of this class, in the flowers of which the stamens grow upon the pistil; so that the male and female parts are united, and do not stand separate, as in other hermaphrodite flowers.

Monoecia; from μ.νος, one, and οικος, a house.

The word here compounded with the numerical term, signifies a house or habitation. To understand the application of this title, it must be observed, that the plants of this class are not hermaphrodite, but androgynous; the flowers that have the stamens wanting the pistil, and those that have the pistil wanting the stamens; so that *monoecia* signifying *single house*, alludes to this circumstance, that in this class the male and female flowers are both found on the same plant or house.

Dioecia; from δις, two, and οικος, a house.

This term signifies two houses, and is applied to this class, the plants of which are male and female, to express the circumstance of the male flower being on one plant, and the female on another; the contrary of which is the case of the androgynous class *monoecia*.

Polygamia; from πολυς, many, and γαμειν, nuptials.

This term implies plurality of marriages. This class produces, either

on the same or different plants, *hermaphrodite* flowers, and also flowers of *one* sex only, be it male or female; flowers of *each* sex; and the latter receiving impregnation from, or giving it to the hermaphrodites, as their sex happens to be the parts essential to generation in the hermaphrodite flowers, do not confine themselves to the corresponding parts within the same flower, but become of *promiscuous* use, which is the reason of giving this title.

Cryptogamia; from κρυπτος, concealed, and γαμος, nuptials.

This term means a concealment of marriages; the class consists, therefore, of such plants as either bear their flowers concealed within the fruit, or have them so small as to be imperceptible.

Explanation of the titles of the orders.

Monogynia; from μονος, one, and γυν, a woman, that is, a pistil.

Diagynia; from δι., two, and γυν, a woman.

Trigynia; from τρεις, three, and γυν, a woman.

Tetragynia; from τεσσαρες, four, and γυν, a woman.

Pentagynia; from πεντε, five, and γυν, a woman.

Hexagynia; from εξ, six, and γυν, a woman.

Decagynia; from δεκα, ten, and γυν, a woman.

Polygynia; from πολυς, many, and γυν, a woman.

These are the titles that occur in the thirteen first classes, and the general explanation of one pistil, two pistils, &c. will be sufficient to make it appear how they are employed in the class.

The class didynamia contains the orders,

Gymospermia; from γυμος, naked, and σπερμα, a seed.

Angiospermia; from αγγος, a vessel, and σπερμα, a seed;

Which are distinguished by the seed being either naked, or enclosed in a pericarp or seed-vessel.

The two orders in the class tetradynamia are founded on a distinction in the pericarp.

Siliculosa; means a *little siliqua*.

Siliqua; which is a particular kind of seed-vessel.

To explain the orders contained in the class syngenesia, viz.

Polygamia equalis,

Polygamia superflua,

Polygamia frustranea,

Polygamia necessaria,

Polygamia segregata,

Monogamia,

it is necessary to explain what is meant by polygamy in flowers. It has been before observed, what is meant by *polygamous plants*: but, in respect to flowers, the term is applied to a single flower only, for the flowers of this class being compound, a polygamy arises from the intercommunication of the several florets in one and the same flower. Now, the *polygamy of flowers*, in this sense of the word, affords four cases, which are the foundations of the four first orders of this class: *equal polygamy*, is when all the flowers are hermaphrodite: *superfluous polygamy*, is when some of the florets are hermaphrodite, and others female only; for, in this case, as the fructification is perfected in the hermaphrodites, the addition of the females is a superfluity: *frustraneous polygamy*, is when some of the florets are hermaphrodite, and other neuter; for, in this case, the addition of the neuters is of no assistance to the fructification: *necessary polygamy*, is when some of the florets are male, and the rest female; for, in this case, there being no hermaphrodites, the polygamy

arising from the composition of the florets of different sexes, is *necessary* to perfect the fructification: *polygamia segregata* implies separation; the plants of this order having partial cups growing out of the common calyx which surround and divide the florets: the order *monogamia* signifies a single marriage, and is opposed to the polygamy of the four other orders; for in this, although the authors are united, which is the essential character of the flowers of this class, the flower is simple, and not compounded of many florets, as in the other orders.

The titles of the other order to that of trioecia, in the class polygamia, have already been explained.

Trioecia; from *τρεῖς*, three, and *οἶκος*, a house; because the polygamy is on three distinct plants, one producing male flowers, another female, and a third hermaphrodite or androgynous.

The class cryptogamia contains the orders of

Filices, or ferns;
Musci, or mosses;
Algæ, or flags;
Fungi, or mushrooms.

This short explanation of the Linnæan system has been introduced, in order to convey a general idea to medical student of its nature, and also the meanings of the several terms.

The various medicinal plants will be found systematically arranged under the title *Materia Medica*.

SEYDSCHUTZ WATER. See *Sedlitz water*.

SHARP-POINTED DOCK. See *Oxylapathum*.

SHINGLES. *Zona*. *Zoster*. *Cinguli*. An erysipelatous herpetic eruption, extending sometimes round the body, in small distinct vesicles, which

itch intolerably, and induce a high degree of fever. See *Herpes*.

SIALAGOGUES (*Medicamenta Sialagoga*; from *σπάλωγων*, saliva, and *αγω*, to expel). Those medicines are so called, which excite an uncommon flow of saliva: such are mercurial preparations, pyrethrum, &c. They are divided into *sialagoga topica*, as scilla, nicotiana, piper, &c. and *sialagoga interna*, as the various preparations of mercury.

SIGESBECKIA ORIENTALIS. The systematic name of a plant which is said to be useful in removing strangury, and in calculous diseases, gout, and fluor albus.

SIGHT. Hearing is the perception of the vibrations of the air; sight perceives those of light: the organ of hearing is bony, that it may admit of resonance; the organ of vision chiefly consists of humours, which refract: the complex nature of this organ was rendered necessary for the defence of parts, so very tender, and by the diversity of the humours, to be contained each in its proper integuments.

The most external defence of the eye is afforded by the eye-brow, which is a protuberance of the skin, sustained by muscles, at the bottom of the forehead, full of thick imbricated hairs, and along with the frontal muscle, capable of being pulled down by the action of the corrugator, and orbicular muscles, so as to afford a shade to the eye in too strong a light. After the eye-brow has completed its functions, it is again raised by the frontal muscle, which is inserted into it, thin and fleshy, immediately under the continuous skin, fastened to the cellular membrane of the skull, which is shining, not very unlike an aponeurosis, and is drawn backwards by the rectangu-

ar occipital muscle. The depression of the eye-brow denotes care, its elevation, tranquillity and serenity of mind. It also turns aside the course of the sweat, and keeps off insects from the eye.

The eyelids furnish a nearer protection to the eye. These are folds of the skin, proceeding from that of the face, extenuated, lengthened out into an edge, as if divided, reflected upon itself, and retracing the course of the former lamina, from which it is separated by some cellular substance; then having become membranous, vascular, and therefore red, and thin, it is carried over the ball of the eye, under the denomination of conjunctiva tunica, and covers the anterior portion of the sclerotica, and finally the cornea. The epidermis accompanies it in its whole course, even where it adheres to the cornea. The upper eyelid is larger, and more moveable: the lower is smaller; and rather passive, than moved by any power of its own. The nerves, which give sensibility to the eyelids, are numerous, from the first and second branches of the fifth pair, and from the portio dura of the seventh; they abound with arteries from the ophthalmics, temporals, branches of the internal maxillaries, infra-orbitals, and facials.

That the eyelids may shut together more exactly, each of them has a cartilaginous arch, called tarsus, upon that margin which touches the other. It is slender, of a lunar figure, extenuated outwards, and stretches the eyelid, preventing the formation of folds while it is elevated or depressed. The elevation of the upper eyelid is performed by a peculiar muscle, arising from the involucrium of the optic nerve gradually spreading, and continued by its expansion to the tarsus. This is considerably assisted in its action by the

frontalis, which is variously connected with the orbicularis, and draws it upwards. The upper eyelid is depressed by the orbicularis, as it is called; a broad muscle, both widely expanded around the orbit, and contained in the eyelids, carried as far as both angles of the eye, and having, as fixed points, the ligament adhering to the process of the maxillary bone, and some fibres inserted into the frontal and upper jaw-bone. The same muscle elevates the lower eyelid, and covers the eye in such a manner that no dust or light can enter it during sleep. The lower eyelid is depressed by two bundles of fibres, inserted into the upper lip.

Finally, that the tumid margins of the eyelids may not shut too closely, they are provided with eyelashes, or fringes of hair spreading outwards, proceeding in many rows from the edges of the eyelids, which, by decussating each other, increase the shade and obscurity. These are of use in more distinct vision, by excluding the extraneous rays, when we require a distinct representation of any object.

The eyelids are prevented from hurting each other by the sebaceous glands of Meibomius, consisting of thirty or more follicles in each eyelid, which are simple, bifid, or trifid; placed in general according to the length of the lid, and composed of peculiar blind roundish cavities, which unite into one larger serpentine duct, of which the orifice is in the margin of the eyelid itself. These discharge a soft unctuous liniment, which mixes and washes off with the tears.

But the perpetual attrition caused by the eyelids ascending and descending against the globe of the eye is prevented, the delicacy of the cornea is preserved, and any insects or other

irritating substances which may have got into the eye, are washed away by the tears; a saline, pellucid, and evaporable liquor, which never ceases to be poured over the anterior surface of the eye, but never runs over the cheeks, unless accumulated from some cause. This liquor is exhaled partly from the arteries of the conjunctiva, as we see from an imitation of nature by injecting water: and in part it is believed to proceed from a gland seated in a hollow recess of the os frontis, somewhat hard, and of the conglomerate kind; divided into many lobes, intermixed with fat, and supplied with many blood-vessels from the ophthalmics and internal maxillaries; and pervaded by many nerves arising from a peculiar branch of the first trunk of the fifth pair.

From this lachrymal gland, six or more visible ducts descend, which open on the inner side of the conjunctiva of the eyelid. In man these ducts have been lately discovered by credible authors. The secretion of the tears is increased by the repeated contractions of the orbicular muscle, either from irritation, or some depressing passion, by which means the tears are conveyed over the whole eye, and the surface of the conjunctiva is washed.

After the tears have performed their office, some part of them being evaporated by the air, the rest, that they may not prove injurious by their accumulation, are propelled by the orbicular muscle, towards its origin next the nose, and to the innermost part of the commissure of the eyelids; which from not having any tarsus, does not meet exactly together. There a caruncle, full of sebaceous hairy follicles, oblong, and conical outwards, interposes itself between the eyelids, and prevents them from meeting, and anoints with

its liniment those parts of the eyelid which have no Meibomian ducts. Before it, a small third eyelid descends perpendicularly, and joins the true eyelids; it is larger in beasts. At the beginning of this space interposed between the eyelids, in which the tears are collected, in each margin a little papilla projects, having an orifice, surrounded by callous cellular substance, and perpetually open unless when convulsively closed. The orifice, which is called the punctum lachrymale, absorbs the tears from the sinus in which they are collected partly by attraction, and partly by the impulse of the orbicular muscle. If these points are obstructed, the tears run over and excoriate the cheek.

From each point, a peculiar duct much wider, thin, and included in the skin, proceeds. the one downward above the caruncle, and the other more transversely inwards, and under it; which approach each other, and are inserted by two mouths into the lachrymal sac, not quite at the top, which name is given to a cavity formed in the groove of the os unguis and upper jaw, lined first with a hard cellular, and as it were aponeurotic membrane; then by another, red and pulpy, continued from the membrane of the nares, pervious to the exhaling moisture, and somewhat of an oval figure. From this vessel the nasal duct descends a little backwards into the nares, and opens by an obliquely oblong aperture, covered by the lower os spongiosum, into their lowest meatus. Through this the superfluous tears descend into the nose, which they in part moisten. A muscle is by some ascribed to this sac; but it is not yet sufficiently ascertained.

The eye, of a globular shape, compressed before, though not always in the same manner, longer from the

rain to the cornea than from the right side to the left, is situated in the orbit, which is an osseous cavity, almost conical, composed of seven bones, interrupted in the back and outer sides by larger fissures, and widening forwards, and by which it is defended on all sides. But as this is larger than the eye, it is filled by much very soft fat, surrounding the globe of the eye, and allowing it free motion.

The eye begins from a nerve, by the expansion of whose coats those of the eye are formed. Its origin we have already described. Having passed across the crus of the brain, it joins with its fellow from the other side, and coheres with it for a considerable way, by much medullary substance; yet so that the right goes to the right eye, and the left to the left, though not without some reciprocal intermixture of medulla. The nerve then enters the orbit, a little inflected, and of a round form, somewhat compressed; and is inserted, not into the middle of the globe of the eye, but a little nearer to the nose.

The nerve having reached the eye, the inner plate of its dura mater, which it received in the opening of the sphenoidal bone, is detached: or having become thicker, is extended around the eye, as its first coat, called the sclerotic, or adheres to the sclerotic, which perfectly resembles it, and always arises from it. The other plate of the dura mater, the external, recedes and forms the periosteum of the orbit: the pia mater, which is in this nerve very distinct and full of vessels, having become entirely dark coloured and thin, lines the inside of the sclerotic. The remaining medullary central part of the nerve, continued from the brain, but divided by cellular plates, contracts into a depressed white conical pa-

pilla; which entering through the holes in the white circle of the choroid coat, and again expanding, produces the most internal membrane of the eye, the retina.

The sclerotica is in general white, furnished with few vessels, tough and compact, resembling the nature of skin, of a figure very nearly globular, but compressed before, and is thicker at the back part. Before this coat, which is perforated by circular holes in its fore part, is placed, and obliquely connected with it, a more convex portion of a sphere; pellucid, composed of many plates, whose vessels are filled with pellucid water, and are difficult of demonstration, insensible, and almost circular, circular towards the nose, and oval towards the temples: it is termed the cornea, and through it the light passes into the inside of the eye. It readily imbibes and exudes water. Before the anterior and flatter part of the sclerotica, and before the cornea, the conjunctiva is detached from each of the eyelids, and is joined to the sclerotica by proper cellular substance, which may be inflated; and is replenished, partly with red vessels, and partly with their pellucid continuations.

The origin of the choroid coat, is from the circumference of the white cellular circle, terminating the substance of the optic nerve, and through whose numerous foramina, and from which the retina and arteria centralis retinae proceeds. At that place the choroides adheres to the sclerotic, and to the circle above described. Then it is expanded concentrically, within the sclerotic, with which it is united, perhaps by some cellular substance, and by many vessels, which come from it to the choroides. Outwardly it is of a brown colour, but inwardly of a deep russet or almost black, and at the same time villous;

the two surfaces are separable by maceration; and the innermost may be distinguished by the name of Ruysch; but it grows white through age. When it has reached the beginning of the pellucid cornea, it there becomes closely connected with the sclerotica, by much cellular substance, having the appearance of a white circle, called orbiculus ciliaris, and then turns off in another direction; namely, the coat, which was before spherically expanded, is now stretched under the arch of the cornea, in the form of a circle, a little convex forwards, and incomplete, having in its centre a circular foramen called the pupil, which is seated nearer to the nose, and is larger towards the temple. The anterior part of this ring is called the iris; and the back part, separable from the former in the human body, by maceration, in some animals even by the knife, is, from the black pigment with which it is covered, called the uvea. On the anterior surface of the iris appear numerous radiating and branching streaks, of various colours in different people, and entirely covered with flocculi. These terminate on this side of the pupil in a serrated circle, from which other similar streaks extend, even to the edge of the iris. They are serpentine when the pupil is dilated, and straight when it is contracted. On the posterior surface of the uvea is much black pigment; which being washed off, straight radiated streaks appear, extending to the pupil, and not flocculent. Orbicular fibres, concentric with the pupil, have not been observed, either with the naked eye, or with the microscope, even in the ox; but only in the uvea, an internal circle distinguished by obscurer rays, and less villous. In the human foetus, the pupil is shut up, and the iris being continued, makes a com-

plete circle. That part of it which extends across the pupil is of a vascular texture.

Though the iris has little sensibility, and is not endowed with any mechanical irritability; yet during life, in man, quadrupeds, and birds, the pupil is contracted by every greater degree of light, and is dilated by every smaller one; hence it is also rendered broader for viewing distant objects, and narrower for viewing such as are near. The cause of this dilatation seems to be a remission of the powers resisting the aqueous humour; as proved by the dilatation of the pupil, from debility, syncope, and death. The contraction is less understood, and perhaps only depends on the stronger afflux of humours into the colourless vessels of the iris, by which these vessels are extended; and, at the same time, the iris is rendered longer, and shuts up the greater part of the pupil: so that this motion has something in common with inflammation, as agreeing in their cause. In young people, the pupil is more evidently moved and contracted; as the eye gradually grows callous in old people, it becomes almost immovable. In an animal twenty-three hours after death, the iris has been seen extended by heat so as to shut the pupil.

Behind the uvea, from the same circle in which the choroides unites with the sclerotica, more externally than the cornea, thick striæ, elegantly plaited, arising from the choroides, white, with parallel vessels running under them, with plumous, pendulous, extremities, joined to the loose and thin retina, and every where covered with a good deal of black pigment, depart, in the form of a perforated ring, inwards from the tunica choroidea, and proceed forwards behind the ciliary circle, and rest upon the vitreous humour; and,

lastly, upon the capsule of the crystalline lens, but do not adhere to them. They are denominated the ciliary ligaments. The origin of the pigment is not known; nor have the secreting glands, which some have supposed, been found. Among its uses, one seems to be to keep the crystalline lens firm. In infants, this same mucus, behind the ciliary processes, expresses the figure of a radiated flower.

The retina, which is a true continuation of the medulla of the optic nerve, and therefore very tender, mucous, and evaporable, is expanded within the choroides into a similar sphere, concentric with it; and immediately incloses the vitreous humour. But when the retina has reached the ciliary processes, it follows their course, supporting their arteries and striæ, and proceeds to the crystalline lens, adhering to and covering its capsule, if the observations of some anatomists, are to be relied on; for in quadrupeds this termination of it is not perfectly certain, although in birds the internal lamina of the retina, covered with the ciliary body, evidently continued to the crystalline lens; to the circumference of which it also adheres in man. The fabric of the retina is such, that externally its soft and medullary globules form a thick and pulpy membrane, within which radiated fibres proceeding from the lamina cribrosa, and continued forwards, constitute a thinner involucre, very readily observed in fishes, and also in some birds and quadrupeds, but not in man. Arterial and venous vessels with red trunks, form a net in the internal surface of the retina, which when accurately filled with coloured water compose a membrane.

These coats, resembling the coats of a bulbous root, are supported, and the spherical figure of the eye is pre-

served by its humours: of which one is a solid, another a soft body, and a third truly a liquor. First, then, the concave surface of the retina is every where filled by the principal or vitreous humour, of which the structure consists of a peculiar thin, pellucid, cellular membrane, in whose cellular intervals is contained a very pellucid liquid, very rarely altering even in old age, completely evaporable by heat, nearly allied to the aqueous humour, and somewhat denser than water. Its vessels, which are most manifest in fish, lie in the back part, most beautifully radiated from the central trunk of the retina, embracing the convexity of the vitreous humour; and inserted into a circle formed not far from the lens by other arteries coming from the choroides, and which may be seen in the sheep. The vitreous membrane, which is tender considering its body, adheres to the lens in two places, before and behind; so that a hollow space is intercepted in the middle between the two insertions, around the crystalline lens. This space is divided in different places by some fibres. On its anterior surface the striæ of the ciliary body imprint their marks.

But, in the fore part of the vitreous body, behind the uvea, there is an orbicular depression of considerable depth, into the cavity of which the crystalline lens, (also, though improperly, ranked amongst the humours), is received. The figure of this lens, resembling frozen jelly, is composed of two elliptical convex segments, the anterior of which is flatter, and the posterior more gibbous. It is constructed of concentric laminæ, connected by cellular fibres, which themselves are composed of fibres elegantly disposed through fine cellular membrane. Betwixt the plates of the crystalline lens, is also contained a pellucid liquor, but

which in old age, naturally acquires a yellow colour. The innermost scales are more closely compacted; and form as it were, a harder nucleus; externally it adheres so very loosely to the capsule, that when that is broken, it very readily springs out; and some even say, that a little water is effused around it. It is supplied with an artery from the retina, which perforates the middle of the vitreous humour; and enters behind; for vessels have not yet been discovered on the anterior surface. The whole lens is contained in a strong, thick, elastic capsule of a pellucid membrane, more firm in the fore part, and which is lined posteriorly by the vitreous tunic.

Lastly, the aqueous humour, which is extremely pellucid and fluid, and which is renewed again if it be let out, swims in the small triangular curvilinear space betwixt the uvea and crystalline lens, and in that larger segment of a hollow sphere which lies betwixt the iris and the cornea. This humour seems to exhale from the small arteries of the iris, uvea, and ciliary processes; being again absorbed by the corresponding veins, while some portion of it is absorbed by and exhaled through the cornea. This humour also moistens the uvea and capsule of the lens. About the beginning of the last century, the spaces filled with this liquor were called the chambers of the eye; that between the cornea and iris the anterior one, and that small one between the surface of the crystalline lens and the uvea the posterior.

The eye, thus constructed, is provided with muscles externally inserted into it, by which it is governed. Namely, into the circle of the sclerotica, which is contiguous to the cornea, are inserted four straight muscles, arising almost in one circle

from the dura mater of the optic nerve; where, departing from the nerve, it coheres with the periosteum of the orbit, and proceeding forwards with their bellies round the bulb of the eye, they terminate again by their aponeuroses, meeting together in another circle. Of these, the elevator is the least, and the abductor rather the longest. The office of each of these muscles appears very plainly; since, being bent round the convex bulb of the eye, as about a pulley, they must, of course, elevate, depress, or turn the eye either to the nose or to the temples. Moreover, two of them acting together may move the eye diagonally; as upwards and outwards, upwards and inwards, &c. Lastly, when all the four straight muscles contract together, there is scarcely a doubt that they draw back the whole eye within the head towards their origin, and thus bring the crystalline lens nearer to the retina.

But the fabric of the two oblique muscles of the eye is more compound. The upper of these, arising together with the recti, is long and slender, ascending forwards to a notch in the os frontis, which is completed into a hole by a double ligament, which on each side sustains a cartilage, excavated in the middle, and almost quadrangular. Through this canal passes the tendon of the obliquus, which being reflected backwards and outwards, included in a capsule of its own, is inserted into the globe of the eye behind the straight muscles. This draws the globe forwards, as if out of the orbit, and inwards, and turns the pupil inwards and downwards. The other, the obliquus minor from the sinus of the lachrymal foramen in the upper jaw, ascends immediately outwards from the os unguis round the globe of the eye, and is inserted by its tendon into the sclerotica behind the

external rectus; whence it appears to turn the point of its insertion into the eye downwards and outwards; and, therefore, the opposite pupil upwards and inwards.

But there are other minute muscular motions performed in the eye, which presuppose a knowledge of its nerves. Of the optic nerve we have already treated. The fourth pair goes only to the larger oblique muscle, and the sixth pair to the rectus externus. The third and fifth pair produce the principal nerves in the eye; the first or ophthalmic branch of the fifth sends off a nerve at its entrance into the orbit, to the eyelid and lachrymal gland, which joins with the second branch of the fifth pair, and with the temporal branch of the third of the fifth pair. On entering the orbit, its trunk divides into two. The upper branch, larger and bifid, is expended on the forehead and eyelids: but the lower, penetrating inwards above the optic nerve, sends off a long slender filament at the outer part of that nerve, which, joined with another filament of the third pair, forms the ophthalmic ganglion, and sends off one or two ciliary nerves. Finally, after having given off the recurrent nerve of the nose, it is then spent upon different parts in the internal angle of the eye.

But the third pair is of most importance. After giving off a branch upwards to the straight muscles of the eye, and to the eyelids, it proceeds with its trunk under the optic nerve, and at the same time sends out three branches to the inferior, obliquus minor, and internus; after this, or before, from its trunk, or sometimes from the branch of the obliquus minor, it sends off another short nerve, much thicker than the root from the fifth, which, under the abductor muscle upon the optic

nerve, forms the ophthalmic ganglion, which is oval and constant, and sometimes arises from the third alone. From that ganglion, and sometimes from the trunk of the third or fifth, four or five ciliary nerves playing around the optic nerve in a flexuous course, go to the globe of the eye, perforate the sclerotica almost in its middle, in company with its longer small arteries or veins, run straight forwards along the choroides, and visibly proceed to the iris, and seemingly to the ciliary processes. Other very small nerves, originating from the same ganglion, remain in the tunica sclerotica.

The motion of the ciliary processes is obscure and difficult of demonstration; lying incumbent upon the furrows of the vitreous membrane, by their action they are believed to press back that body, so as to bring the lens forwards, and remove it farther from the retina. But in all the animals which have been dissected, nothing like a muscle in this ciliary body, but only a membrane which supports small vessels is seen. The sphincter of the pupil, and constrictor of the cornea, mentioned by some writers of eminence, and the moving fibres, which others have imagined proper to the crystalline lens, are not confirmed by anatomy, nor are they consistent with the constant hardness of the lens and cornea in most animals.

The history of the eye also comprehends its vessels, which have a most beautiful fabric. All those which belong properly to the eye itself come from the ophthalmic artery, a branch of the internal carotid. This, creeping under the optic nerve, sends off, as principal branches, the upper ciliary, one or more inferior ciliaries; the lachrymalis, from whence the nasalis recurrens posterior, and internal part of the arch of the

tarsus; afterwards the muscularis inferior, the nasalis recurrens, anterior and posterior, the musculares superiores, and the palpebralis, which, with the former branch, forms the arch of the tarsus. Lastly, it goes to the face, nose, and adjacent parts. But the ophthalmic branches, belonging to the inner parts of the eye, are called the ciliaries; which arising from the trunks now mentioned, and playing around the optic nerve, in four or more branches, in a serpentine course, partly close by the entrance of the optic nerve, go to the choroides with forty or more branches, and make upon its external surface, ramifications divided at acute angles, which proceed forwards to the circle of the uvea.

But most of the small arteries of the tunica choroides gradually incline towards the interior parts of the eye; and, being covered with a kind of cellular down, go to the ciliary processes, along each of which two small arteries run, giving off on every side, vascular flocculi, and anastomosing at their apex.

Other small arteries also, likewise arising from the ciliary ones, but few in number, most commonly two, go to the place, from which the uvea originates. There, spreading in various directions, they surround the root of the uvea with their branches, and join to form a circle, into which the anterior ciliaries anastomose; which are small arteries arising from the muscular branches of the ophthalmic; and are inserted into the circle generally by twelve small trunks, near the origin of the cornea. From that circle, and likewise from the above mentioned anterior ciliary arteries, without the intervention of the circle, straight, branched vessels, are distributed, both on the iris and on the uvea; the former full of a blue or dark-coloured fluid; and the lat-

ter naturally white, but covered with a good deal of a black paint. In the uvea, at some distance from the pupil, they frequently form an imperfect circle.

But from the same ophthalmic artery, from its trunk, or from the lachrymal branch, or from one of the ciliaries, one or more branches enter into the optic nerve; the principal, the central artery of the retina, penetrates into the medulla of the nerve, and passing through the apex of the papilla, enters the centre of the retina; from thence it spreads every way through the retina itself, by so many branches, when traced by a skilful anatomist, that that vascular net work has been taken for a peculiar membrane. Sometimes a small branch goes along the centre of the nerve to the retina, and is in like manner ramified through it. From comparative anatomy, it is certain, that from there branches the vascular branches of the vitreous tunica are produced, as well as the posterior artery of the lens. The most internal of these arteries, is the celebrated porus opticus of the ancients.

The veins of the eye, in general, arise from the ophthalmic vein, which on the one side comes from the facial vein, entering the orbit; and on the other, is inserted into the cavernous sinus. The internal veins of the eye perforate the middle of the sclerotica, with fewer and larger trunks than the arteries, and form larger and more anterior reticulations, of a roundish figure, which commonly occupy the middle of the tunica choroides: some, which are long, are continued to the origin of the uvea: others anterior, similar to the arteries: and another, the centralis nervi optici, corresponding with the artery, goes to the retina. The pellucid vessels do not differ from the sanguiferous. Lymphatic vessels are

said to have been seen in the retina; but the observation has not been sufficiently repeated.

So far with respect to the anatomy; but the action of the eye is entirely elucidated by physical experiments, from which it has been ascertained, in the most incontrovertible manner, except a few doubtful points. Light is the same matter with heat, or very nearly the same, possessing extreme fluidity and subtilty, penetrating through all bodies, very rigid, not exhausted by any distance of its passage, and moving with excessive velocity, so as to arrive at the earth from the sun in eight minutes and thirteen seconds. Light in our planet proceeds either from the sun, which seems to have the power of arranging in straight lines the matter of light, otherwise confusedly scattered; or from some other lucid point. From it, as from a centre, the light is distributed like rays, to all parts of the sphere, so as to fall upon the surfaces of all bodies; from whence again it is reflected, and impinges on the eye, at angles equal to the angle of incidence, and renders the bodies, from which it comes, coloured and visible.

It is ascertained, from experiments, that light is composed of rays in right lines, almost without any physical breadth; and yet, each of which may be separated into seven more minute, permanent, and immutable rays. The known properties of these rays are, that all of them, conjoined together, constitute a white beam; but when refracted, and separated by the minute surfaces of bodies, they are subdivided into red rays, which are the most constant, hard, and least refrangible; and afterwards into orange, yellow, green, blue, indigo, and violet; which are always weaker and more refrangible, as they are farther distant in order from the red

rays. Shade arises from a deficiency of reflected rays. Colours are compounded of shade united with various rays.

The peculiar colours of bodies arise from the minute surfaces of their solid particles, by which their pores are limited, which refract the rays of light, according to the difference of their thickness, reflecting one kind of rays most copiously, and in a great measure suffocating, by repeated internal refractions, the others admitted into their substance; so that the thickest and densest particles reflect a white colour; the next red; and the thinnest violet. Bodies are opaque, which retain all the rays, and transmit none, from the largeness of their pores, to the sides of which the light is attracted; and which are filled with some matter that has a power of refraction, different from that of the particles of the body. These principles we embrace, till a new theory, which ascribes the diversity of colours to vibrations of different celerities, shall be better established; for it is not our business to ascertain these matters.

These rays, when they fall obliquely upon liquors of various densities, in passing through them, variously recede from, or incline towards the perpendicular; this is called refraction. In general, the denser the medium, the more are the rays bent towards the perpendicular; excepting only inflammable liquors, which, by a peculiar property, attract the rays more to the perpendicular, than in proportion to their density. The proportions of the angles of incidence to those of refraction, are constant; so that the sine of the angle of refraction of rays passing from air into water, is to the sine of the angle of incidence, as 3 to 4: and of rays, passing from air into glass, the sine of the incidence

isto to that of refraction, as 17 to 11 ; and from water into glass, as 51 to 44.

Rays, which come through the air with but little divergency, as those of the sun on account of its immense distance ; or as, in general, any rays that come from a distance of above 100 feet, when they fall upon a body, spherically convex, and denser than the air, at a large angle, as at $48\frac{1}{2}$ degrees ; are reflected, and do not penetrate it. If the angles are smaller, they penetrate the refracting medium, and are refracted in it, so as to meet together in one point, which is called their focus. This point lies in the axis, or in the ray, falling perpendicularly on the surface, and therefore not inflected ; and in a spherical globule of water, the focus of rays coming from the atmosphere, is at the distance of one semi-diameter from the sphere ; and in a sphere of glass, a fourth part of the diameter, and in a convex lens of glass, that is, a part of a sphere not less than thirty degrees, and equally convex, it is also one semi-diameter ; but so that the rays meet, not in a point, but in a little circle.

Therefore the rays of light, whether direct or reflected, fall in such a manner upon the cornea of the eye, as to form a very acute cone, from the lucid point to the surface of the membrane ; the basis of which is the surface of the cornea, and the apex the radiant point ; yet so, that the rays of the cone may be considered parallel, without any sensible error. Of these rays, all those which fall upon the cornea at a greater angle than forty degrees, are reflected from the cornea without penetrating its surface. Others which enter the cornea, but still at large angles, fall in betwixt the uvea and sides of the crystalline lens, and are suffocated in the black paint that lines the uvea,

and the ciliary processes ; and those rays only fall upon the surface of the lens, which enter the cornea at small angles, not much distant from the perpendicular, or at about twenty-eight degrees. By this means, all those rays are excluded, which the refracting power of the humours in the eye could not have been able to collect into one point of the retina ; and which, therefore, would have painted the image on the retina too broad and confused.

Those rays, therefore, coming from the air, which is so thin, and passing through the cornea, which is the segment of a sphere, thick, denser than water, and, therefore, almost a fourth part more refracting, are remarkably inclined towards the perpendicular. By the aqueous humour, which is small in quantity, and almost like water, but rather lighter, they are not altered, and fall upon the surface of the transparent lens, before they have formed a focus, because of its nearness, nearly parallel, or rather converging ; because their divergency was abundantly corrected by the refracting power of the cornea. Moreover, the cornea being convex, and more prominent than the hemisphere of the sclerotica, receives and collects a greater number of rays than if its surface were flatter, and therefore smaller.

That the refracting power of the crystalline lens, exceeds that of water, may be understood from its hardness and weight, although we have no sufficiently certain measure. In this lens, therefore, and more especially in its posterior very convex surface, the rays converge very much, and pass thence into the vitreous body.

This substance is denser than water, since it sinks in it ; but rarer than the crystalline lens ; bends the rays a little more gently towards the perpendicular, till at length the rays,

coming from a point of distinct vision, are concentrated into the smallest possible point of the retina, where they paint an image of the object from which they come; but inverted, on account of the necessary decussations. The manner in which the images of objects are thus painted, may be seen in an artificial eye, or in a natural eye, when the back part of the sclerotica is removed. But the image is painted on the outer side of the entrance of the optic nerve, at the termination of the axis of vision, which is not limited to a mere point, but has some breadth, since we see many objects at once, whose images must be represented in different points. Vision is there most distinct, because the rays arrive thither nearly perpendicular. But frequently it does not fall on the same place in both eyes of the same individual. When the lens is destroyed, the vitreous humour alone collects the rays, though less powerfully.

Is it entirely false that the object is painted on the retina? Is the picture represented on the choroides? Is this new opinion confirmed by the experiment, by which it appears, that the place where the optic nerve enters is insensible? and which is thus explained, that there is in that place no choroides but only the bare retina, and that, therefore, it does not possess vision. But this is repugnant to a very well known observation, that the retina is a most sensible nervous medulla; and that the choroides almost entirely consists of a few small nerves, and of vessels which are most certainly blind. This is likewise contradicted by the very great variety of the choroides in animals; by the equally great uniformity of the retina; and by the black spots, which, even in man, obscure the exterior surface of the retina. But, by this experiment, we perceive

the reason why the optic nerve is not inserted into the axis of the eye, but towards one side. For thus, except only in the single case, where an impediment is situated in the point of intersection of lines drawn through the centre of the optic nerves, the one eye sees and assists that whose blind portion is directed to the object.

But since the necessary functions of human life require that a distinct object be painted upon the retina, not only by the rays which come from one certain distance, but likewise that rays which come from various and very different situations, more or less distant, should excite a distinct idea of the object from which they come: therefore, it is believed, that the necessary change is produced in the eye by proper means. Some celebrated anatomists have supposed the lens moveable by the powers before mentioned. They assert this art of changing the eye is learned by experience, and is not possessed by those on whom the operation of couching the cataract has been lately performed. Also, in an artificial eye, the advantages and necessity of this motion, it is said, may be plainly perceived. Therefore, too great a divergency of the rays, as in those which come from objects very close to the eye, is corrected by the removal of the lens farther from the retina, by which means the focus, which is more distant, on account of the divergence of the rays, falls upon the retina itself, which would otherwise have fallen behind the retina; for the refracting power of the eye being supposed to be such, as will cause the focus of rays coming from the distance of three feet, to fall exactly upon the retina, it will not be able to collect together into the same point, rays which come from the distance of three inches; and the

more diverging rays, when not collected by more powerful means, will be too late of uniting.

But those rays, which come from very remote situations, and may be therefore reckoned parallel, would meet in the vitreous humour before they reached the retina; and would again separate as rays from the point of concurrence, as if from a lucid point: it is therefore believed, that the powers remove the crystalline lens from the cornea, and carry it nearer to the retina, that the rays may meet at a greater distance from the lens, and that that distance may be accommodated so as to fall upon the retina. For an eye, that will collect the rays coming from a distance of seven inches, on the retina, will collect those which come from a distance of three feet too soon, and before they reach the retina. So that it seems perfectly necessary for the eye to be made thus changeable, since we see distinctly at various distances. The point of distinct vision is that in which the given object is painted on the retina in the least space possible. The powers collecting the rays, are often very different in the two eyes of the same person, so that the one eye is rather long-sighted, and the other short-sighted.

These and other similar opinions, commonly received, are taught, more especially by the mathematical physicians, who more obviously perceive the necessity of these changes. Yet there is no power in the human eye which can either move the crystalline humour from its place, or compress it. And we do not perceive this faculty in ourselves: for we move a book, which by being too far off we see confusedly, nearer to our eyes, which we would not do, if by an internal change in the eye we could correct the fault of the distance: and, through a small hole, we perceive

an object only single in the point of distinct vision, but double in every other. Perhaps the contraction of the pupil may have some effect in enabling us to see near objects more distinctly.

But this adaptation is not sufficient in all persons: for there are, and now more commonly than formerly, persons leading a sedentary life, and occupied with the observation of very minute objects, in whom the cornea is more convex and dense; the crystalline lens more convex and solid; the eye itself, by the weight of the humours, more elongated; and the rest of the humours themselves probably more dense; and in whose eyes one, or several, or all of these diseases occur. In these persons, the iris is sensible in a small light; and therefore from their winking, they are denominated myopes. In these, the point of distinct vision is very near to the eye, from one to seven inches from the eye; they see remoter object obscurely, without being able to distinguish their parts. The reason of this is evident; since, from the causes just mentioned, the too great refracting power of the humours, causes the distant and consequently parallel rays to meet before the retina; and therefore diverging again from their focus, they fall upon the retina in many points. Thus also to a sound eye, the perception of near objects is confused; because the rays coming from these are spread all over the retina, without being collected.

The remedy, in the commencement of this disease, is to view distant places, to abstain from minute objects, and concave glasses, and to look through a small aperture, by which the light is weakened. When the disorder is confirmed, it is alleviated by the use of a concave lens, which diminishes the refracting power

In the humours, cornea, and crystalline lens, in proportion to its concavity; and thus removes the focus of distant objects farther from the cornea, so as to fall upon the retina. This glass ought to be a portion of a sphere, whose diameter is equal to the distance of distinct vision by the naked eye, squared by the distance of distinct vision in the eye furnished with a glass, and divided by the difference betwixt them. Short-sighted people may hope for some relief from the progress of life; for children are almost all myopes; but, as they grow older, the eye becomes flatter from the strength of the solids, it becomes shorter, and the converging powers of the lens and cornea are diminished.

Another defect, the opposite of the former, troubles people who are in the habit of looking much at very distant objects, and is especially frequent and incurable in old people. In it, the cornea and crystalline lens are flatter, and the humours of the eye have a less refracting power. Hence near objects, whose rays fall very diverging upon the cornea, appear to them confused; because the converging powers of the eye are not sufficient to collect the rays into a focus upon the retina, and the rays arrive at it scattered, and have their focus behind the eye; hence their vision is confused. The point of distinct vision among presbyopi, is from fifteen inches to three feet.

Such persons are, in some measure, relieved by looking through black tubes, by the use of which the retina grows tenderer, and the rays come to the eye in a parallel direction. The remedy here is a convex lens of glass, which may cause the rays to converge, so as to meet sooner in a focus, and upon the retina. The diameter of the sphere, of which such lens ought to be a portion, is exactly as before. There is no hope

from age, which increases the malady.

The medium betwixt the short and long-sighted eye is the best, with which a person can see distinctly objects that are both tolerably near and tolerably remote, and therefore may assume the properties both of the myopes and presbyopi; of this kind we reckon an eye that is able to read distinctly at the distance of one foot. But other conditions are necessary, such as perfect clearness of the humours; great mobility of the eyes; sensibility of the pupil; and a retina, neither too sensible nor callous.

But by means of the eye, the mind does not receive a simple representation of the image of the object on the retina, which is transferred to the seat of the soul; but many things are added from experience, which the eye does not really see, and other things are interpreted differently by the mind, from what they are represented by the eyes. And, first, the magnitude of an object is judged of by the optical angle intercepted between the radiating object as the vertical point, and the cornea as the base. From hence, things very near seem large, and remote objects small. To this may be referred the power of the microscope, by which objects are made to appear to us so much larger, as the distance of the focus of the glass lens is less than the distance of distinct vision; and, in reality, they do not appear larger, but only more distinct and lucid; whence the mind judges them to be nearer.

In the same external light, the strength of illumination depends upon the same angle, and upon the number of rays, joined with the smallness of the point which they affect in the retina; near objects therefore appear brighter, and distant objects more obscure; or if remote objects appear bright by their own light, the mind

represents them as large, or near, or both.

The place of a visible object is estimated by one eye, to be in a line comprehended by two other straight lines drawn to the extremities of the body. If the same body is beheld with both eyes, it will then seem to be in the concurrence of two lines drawn through the axis of each eye to the object.

We do not see distance; and a blind man, who has never seen, on acquiring the use of sight, imagines every thing he sees to touch him. After much experience, we at last make conjectures about distances, though always fallacious: but we judge of them both from the diminution of the known bulk of the body, and from the diminished strength of the light, and faint image of the object whose parts we distinguish less evidently, and from the number of bodies interposed, whose distance is known to us.

Convexity is not seen; but, from experience, a body is reckoned convex, after we have learned, that a body, which is convex to the feeling, causes light and shadow to be disposed in a certain manner. It is convex if the shade be in the side corresponding to the left hand, and concave if in the right. Hence it is, that microscopes frequently pervert the judgment, by transposing or changing the shadows. The same also happens in that phenomenon which is not yet sufficiently understood, by which the concave parts of a seal are made to seem convex, and the contrary.

The parts of a visible object are judged by the mind to have the same situation which they have in the object, and not inverted as they are on the retina. The mind possesses this power of correction, previous to experience in men who have been born blind, and in animals at birth, as

appears by indubitable experiment upon men, who had been blind from birth, and acquired the power of vision suddenly by the operation of couching.

Another false perception of the mind arises from this circumstance that external sensations conveyed to the seat of the soul by the eyes, are represented during almost the space of a second of a minute, to the mind as objects really present. Hence proceeds the idea of a fiery circle from the circumrotation of a lucid body; and hence the continuance of the image of the sun, and sometime also of opaque bodies.

Do we perceive only that object distinctly which is directly before that part of the retina which sees most distinctly? And does the mind persuade itself, that it sees many objects at a time, partly from the duration of the ideas, and partly from the quickness of the motions in the eye? Concerning perfectly distinct vision, this is most certain; but we can hardly affirm it of that which is less distinct. Why do we see only one object with two eyes? Because the sensation is single, and without difference, when we have similar impressions of two objects. For, even without the decussation of the optic nerves, insects who have numerous eyes perceive objects single. Hence the images of two objects excite only one sensation in the mind, when they fall upon the same point of the retina; but two sensations arise from one object, when the images fall upon different parts of the retina of each eye. Whence proceed diurnal and nocturnal blindness? The latter is common to many nations living in the very warm climates, and under the vertical sun, and to old men. The former happens in inflamed eyes and in young men of a hot temperament, and hence furnished with eyes

vastly sensible. For great sensibility of the retina produces diurnal blindness; insensibility produces nocturnal blindness. How do animals see in the dark? From a large dilatable pupil, tender retina, and refulgent and very lucid choroides. Why do we become blind when brought out of a strong light into a weak one? Because the optic nerve, having suffered the action of stronger causes, is not affected by weaker ones. Why is the sudden translation from a dark place into the light painful? Because the pupil, being widely dilated, suddenly admits unawares too great a quantity of light, and the retina having been but slightly affected by the weak light, now feels the stronger impressions very acutely. Do we see with one eye, or with both? Most frequently with one, especially and generally the right eye: but by the assistance of the other, we see more objects, and more plainly; and we also distinguish more points of the same object, and judge better of distances.

SIGILLUM SALOMŌNIS, (*Sigillum*, *i*, n. dim. of *signum*, a sign. It is called *sigillum salomonis*, Solomon's seal, because it has upon its root the resemblance of an impression made by a seal). Solomon's seal. *Convolvulus polygonatum*; *foliis alternis amplexicaulibus*, *caule ancipiti*, *pedunculis axillaribus subunifloris* of Linnæus. The roots are applied externally as adstringents, and are administered internally as corroborants.

SIGMOID, (*Sigmoides*, *συνμοειδής*; from the Greek letter Σ, and *εἶδος*, a likeness; resembling the Greek letter sigma). Applied to the valves of the heart, and sometimes to the cartilages of the aspera arteria, or the semilunar apophysis of the bones.

SILER MONTANUM. See *Seseli*.

SILK-WORM, ACID OF. See *Bombic acid*.

SILYUA DULCIS, (*Siliqua*, *æ*, *f*.

a pod or receptacle for seed, applied to plants which bear pods). Sweet-pod. The fruit so called is the produce of the *Ceratonia siliqua* of Linnæus. They are about four inches in length, and as thick as one finger, compressed and unequal, and mostly bent; they contain a sweet brown pulp, which is given in form of decoction, as a pectoral in asthmatic complaints and coughs.

SILYUA HIRSUTA. The cowage is sometimes so called. See *Dolichos*.

SILYUASTRUM, (*Siliquastrum*, *i*, n. from *siliqua*, a pod; named from its pods). Judas-tree. The capicum or guinea pepper was so termed by Pliny. See *Piper indicum*.

SILVER. *Argentum*. A perfect metal, of a white colour, and of the most lively brilliancy; next to gold, the most malleable of all metals. It is sometimes found pure, but for the most part in combination with tin or lead. It has neither taste nor smell; its specific gravity is such, that it loses about the eleventh part of its weight by immersion in water; and a cubic foot of this metal weighs 270 pounds. Native silver is found in the greatest abundance in Peru and Mexico. From this substance is obtained the *nitras argenti fusus*, formerly called *lunar caustic*.

SILVER-WEED. See *Potentilla*.

SIMAROUBA, (*Simarouba*, *æ*, *f*. a patronymic name of America). *Simarouba quassia*. *Quassia simarouba* of the younger Linnæus. *Quassia floribus monoicis*, *foliis abrupte pinnatis*, *foliolis alternis subpetiolatis petiolo nudo*, *floribus paniculatis*. Supp. Plant. Class *Decandria*. Order *Monogynia*. The bark of this tree, which is met with in the shops, is obtained from the roots; and, according to Dr. Wright of Jamaica, it is rough, scaly, and warted; the inside when fresh is a full yellow, but when dried paler; it has but little

smell; the taste is bitter, but not disagreeable. It is esteemed, in the West Indies, in dysenteries and other fluxes, as restoring tone to the intestines, allaying their spasmodic motions, promoting the secretions by urine and perspiration, and removing lowness of spirits attending those diseases. It is said also that it soon disposes the patient to sleep; takes off the gripes and tenesmus, and changes the stools to their natural colour and consistence.

SIMIÆ LAPIS. See *Bezoar simiæ*.

SINAPE, (*Sinape, is, n.*). Mustard.

SINAPI, (*Sinapi, n. ind. σινάπι* *οτι ουκ τρεσ ωπας*, because it hurts the eyes). *Sinapi nigrum*. Common black mustard. *Sinapis nigra* of Linnæus. *Sinapis filiquis glabris racemo appressis*. Class *Tetradynamia*. Order *Siliquosa*. The seeds of this species of mustard, which are directed by the London College, and those of the *Sinapis alba*, which are preferred by that of Edinburgh, manifest no remarkable difference to the taste, nor in their effects, and therefore answer equally well for medicinal and culinary purposes. They have an acrid, pungent taste, and, when bruised, this pungency shows its volatility by powerfully affecting the organs of smell. Mustard is considered as capable of promoting appetite, assisting digestion, attenuating viscid juices, and, by stimulating the fibres, it proves a general remedy in paralytic affections. Joined to its stimulant qualities, it frequently, if taken in considerable quantity, opens the body, and increases the urinary discharge, and hence it has been found useful in dropical complaints. Externally, flower of mustard is frequently used mixed with vinegar as a stimulant or sinapism.

SINAPI NIGRUM. See *Sinapi*.

SINAPIS ALBA, (*Sinapis, is, f.*).

The systematic name of the white mustard plant, which is directed for medicinal use in the Edinburgh pharmacopœia. It is somewhat less pungent than the black species. See *Sinapi*.

SINAPIS NIGRA. The systematic name of the common black pepper. See *Sinapi*.

SINAPISM. *Sinapismum*. *Cataplasmus sinapios*. A term given to a mixture of mustard and vinegar in form of poultice.

SINCIPUT, (*Sinciput, itis, n.*). The fore part of the head. See *Caput*.

SINE PARI, (*Par, ris, adj.*). Several muscles, veins, arteries, &c. are so called which are without a fellow. See *Azygos*.

SINGULTUS, (*Singultus, us, m.*). Hiccup. A convulsive motion of the diaphragm and parts adjacent.

SINUS, (*Sinus, us, m.*). A cavity or depression.

SINUS GENÆ PITUITARIÛS. See *Antrum of Highmore*.

SINUS LONGITUDINAL. See *Longitudinal sinus*.

SINUSES. The veins of the dura mater are so termed. They are several in number, the principal of which are, 1. the *longitudinal sinus*, which rises anteriorly from the crista galli, ascends and passes between the laminae of the falciform process to where this process ends. It then opens into, 2. *two lateral sinuses*, distinguished into right and left, which lie in the crucial spine of the os occipitis: 3. the *inferior longitudinal*, which is a small sinus situated at the acute inferior margin of the falx.

SINUSES LATERAL. See *Lateral sinuses*.

SIPHONIA ELASTICA. The systematic name of the elastic resin-tree. See *Indian rubber*.

SIRIUM MYRTIFOLIUM. The systematic name of the tree which is

supposed to afford the yellow saunders. See *Santalum album*.

SISON AMMI. The systematic name of the plant which affords the momum verum of the shops. See *Amomum*.

SISYMBRIUM, (Sisymbrium, i, n. from σισυμβριον; from σισυμβριος, fringe; so named from its fringed roots). The water-cress.

SISYMBRIUM. The water mint sometimes so called. See *Mentha aquatica*.

SISYMBRIUM NASTURTIUM. The systematic name of the water cress. See *Nasturtium aquaticum*.

SISYMBRIUM NASTURTIUM AQUATICUM. The systematic name of the water cress. See *Nasturtium aquaticum*.

SISYMBRIUM SOPHIA. The systematic name of the herb sophia. See *Sophia chirurgorum*.

SITIOLOGY, (Sitiologia, a, f. from σιτος, aliment, and λόγος, a discourse or treatise). A doctrine or treatise on aliment.

SIMUM, (Sium, i, n. from σισυμβριον, to move, from its agitation in water). The creeping water parsnep. Sium nodiflorum of Linnæus. This plant is admitted into the London pharmacopœia in the character of an antiscorbutic. It is not nauseous, and children take it readily if mixed with milk.

SIMUM AROMATICUM. The amomum verum is sometimes so called. See *Amomum*.

SIMUM NANSI. The systematic name of the plant whose root is called *radix nansi* in some pharmacopœias.

SIMUM NODIFLORUM. The systematic name of the creeping water parsnep. See *Sium*.

SKELETON, (Sceletus, i, m. from σκελετος, to dry). When the bones of the body are preserved in their natural situation, and deprived of the

flesh, the assemblage is called a skeleton. See Bones.

SKELETON, ARTIFICIAL. The assemblage of all the bones of the animal, when hung in their respective situations by means of wire. See *Bone*.

SKELETON, NATURAL. A skeleton is so termed in opposition to an artificial one, when the bones are retained in their proper places by means of their natural ligaments.

SKIN. The skin itself was called, by the Greeks, *δερμς*, and the scarf skin, in their usual way, *επιδερμς*. It is said to have been called *δερμς* *παρα το δερειν, quia exuitur quibusdam animalibus*, because it is cast by many animals once a year; the epidermis certainly is so. Hippocrates uses the words *δερμς* and *επιδερμς* sometimes in the same sense, as if both meant equally the skin. The cuticle is supposed indeed by some to be cast by all animals, either sensibly at one period of the year, or insensibly in scales, at all times of the year, as in man. Lewenhoeck imagined he saw these scales by means of the microscope; and Boerhaave thought he proved their existence, by wearing continually black silk gloves, which after some time he inverted, and thought he clearly saw these scales. Others say that *δερμς* is used for *δεσμα, quasi vinculum totius corporis*, as the membrane binding together all the parts of the body into one. The Romans called it *pellis*; evidently from *pellens*, repelling; as it forms vesications, and endeavours to push off matter suddenly offending the body, as on application of scalding water, liquid caustic, alkali, or red hot iron. It is said likewise to have been called *cutis, ex xuto investire*, as the investing membrane of the whole body.

When carefully dissected off, and separated from all adventitious mat-

ter, in a middle sized man, it weighs about four pounds and a half.

The skin; though apparently a simple membrane, is in reality laminated, consisting of several subdivisions; the outermost lamen is termed with us scarf skin, or cuticle; the second has no English name, is known only to anatomists, and is called *rete mucosum*; after these two are removed we come to, as is commonly thought, the surface of the skin itself.

When a blister has been applied to the skin of a Negro, if it has not been very stimulating, in twelve hours after a thin transparent grayish membrane is raised, under which we find a fluid. This membrane is the cuticle or scarf skin. When this, with the fluid, is removed, the surface under them appears black; but if the blister had been very stimulating, another membrane, in which this black colour resides, would also have been raised with the cuticle; this is *rete mucosum*, which is itself double, consisting of another gray transparent membrane, and of a black web, very much resembling the *nigrum pigmentum* of the eye. When this membrane is removed, the surface of the true skin (as has hitherto been believed), comes in view, and is white, like that of a European. The *rete mucosum* gives the colour to the skin; is black in the Negro; white, brown, or yellowish, in the European. The reason why this membrane is black in the Negro, is, perhaps, that his body may be better able to defend itself against the sun's rays, and that the heat may be prevented from penetrating. The intention of a similar membrane behind the retina in the eye, appears to be not only that of absorbing the superfluous rays of light; but, like the *amalgam* behind the looking-glass, it may enable the retina to reflect the rays, in order to

perfect vision. It is not very improbable that some such purpose, as enabling the cuticle to reflect the sun's rays in those warm climates, where the inhabitants originally go naked, may be the intention of nature, in giving them the black membrane. Perhaps too, the circumstance, of the countenance's becoming brown, when exposed to the sun's rays in summer, in our own climate, may be a process of nature to defend herself against the access of external heat into the body.

Both cuticle and *rete mucosum* send innumerable processes into the pores of the true skin; the process of the *rete mucosum* is always within that of the cuticle, and in contact with the sides of the pore, as formed by the true skin. These processes are remarkable in the cuticle and *rete mucosum* of the elephant, some of them are almost an inch long; the cuticle or *rete mucosum*, or a membrane very similar, having the same properties with these, appears to be also continued into the inside of the mouth over the tongue, internal surface of the lungs, œsophagus, stomach, and intestinal tube. In most of the last named parts, the cuticle, however, forms sheaths for villi, and not processes which line pores. On viewing the surface of the skin, even with the naked eye, we find it porous; more so in some places than in others; and the pores are also larger in some parts than others. These pores are ducts of sebaceous glands, and serve not only to transmit hairs, but, it is supposed, the greatest part of the perspirable matter itself. Absorption of the skin also, in all probability, begins on the sides of these pores. These are particularly remarkable about the mouth, nose, palms of the hand, soles of the feet, on the external ear, scalp, *mons veneris*, and around the nipple in women. Grew thinks

as the first who observed them on the fingers; and has given a pretty fine engraving of them, in the Philosophical Transactions. Winslow describes these last, and says, they are the ducts of glands. The processes which line the pores transmitting hairs have been long observed; but Mr. Cruikshank, from whose work this account is taken, was the first who described these processes which are the other classes of pores. Albinus takes notice of the appearance, but says that they are the roots of hairs pulled away with the cuticle or *rete mucosum*. The processes which line the pores, would, however, from what can be collected of the opinions of the most eminent latter anatomists, be reckoned imperforated, and described as so many blind pouches, resembling the fingers of a glove, which might be pulled out of the pores entire, by long maceration of the skin in water. Of course the cuticle and *rete mucosum* would, in their opinion, be reckoned every where entire; and it must be owned, that when these membranes are separated by maceration, and viewed in the microscope, there is not the least appearance of pores. Haller, Albinus, and Meckel, are of opinion, there are no pores in these membranes. None of the latter anatomists have been able to discover Lewenhoeck's scales, of which he believed the cuticle was composed, and between whose interstices, or loose edges, the fluids passed into the body, or passed out. Malpighi's and Ruysch's perforations of the *rete mucosum* have been sought for with no better success. - Mr. Cruikshank says, that, after some pains, and assisted by pretty good microscopes, he was not able to discover perforations in the cuticle, or *rete mucosum*. It is true, that by macerating the tongue of a calf in water for a considerable time, an appearance of pores may

be produced in the *rete mucosum*; and it is as true, that the same appearance may be produced in the cuticle. But when the one appears perforated, the corresponding surface in the other is always not so; and where the processes are short, and easily separated from one another, neither cuticle nor *rete mucosum* appear to be perforated; and both may be demonstrated to have their own processes. Malpighi first taught that the *rete mucosum* was porous. Haller is of the same opinion; also asserting from Du Hamel that the *rete mucosum* in the feet of many birds, he particularly instances the ostrich, is perforated. Mr. C. says, he has seen those talked of perforations, and is convinced, that, as in the tongue of the calf, these are only *vaginulae*, or sheaths for the *villi*, and cannot be demonstrated by any means to be open at top.

Though he has not found pores in either cuticle or *rete mucosum*, he believes, nevertheless, that they certainly exist. Albinus and Meckel, particularly the last, are disposed to believe, that whatever fluids are perspired, or whatever are absorbed by the skin, must equally soak through the cuticle, as the vapour of warm water does through dried leather. Albinus even doubts, whether the transpired fluids do not ooze through the coats of the extreme arteries themselves, as vapour, and are afterwards condensed into sweat. "*Quid ni* (says he) *penetraret, per mollia nostra, humidaque, quum calentis aquæ vapor, per durum, siccumque corium, eo modo penetret?*" Professor Meckel uses nearly the same language. Talking of the cuticle, in the Memoirs of the Academy of Berlin, he says, "*Quoiqu' inaccessible aux vaisseaux, sa nature est pourtant telle, qu'il transmet le liquide, dont il est imbu, à peu près, comme pourroit le faire un cuir mince humecté.*" He also observes, that though in the palms of the hand of black-

smiths, and in the soles of the feet in travellers, the cuticle consists of many layers, and is sometimes a quarter of an inch thick, still perspiration takes place on these surfaces. Did the fine perspiring vessels reach the cuticle of the foot in the one instance, or of the hand in the other, the weight of the body, or the recoil of the hammer, he thinks must crush them to pieces.

The reasons which would favour the opinion that there are pores organized, connected with the extremities of the exhalent arteries, in the cuticle and *rete mucosum*, which, however invisible in the dead separated cuticle, still exist, and are sufficiently dilated in the erected state of the extremities of the vessels of the living and perspiring skin, are the following:

When a piece of cuticle falls off from the cutis, some of the hairs go with it, and some remain with the cutis. Those hairs certainly perforated the cuticle, yet in the microscope not the least vestige of these perforations can be traced. In places where the hairs either do not exist, or where they are invisible, where, however, the pores are very numerous, as on the nose and some parts of the external ear, no perforations can be traced in the separated cuticle; though the sebaceous matter could formerly be pressed from the cavities of these pores on the nose, in form of a small worm, of some considerable length. The processes themselves are frequently tore off, and remain with the pores of the cutis, yet no appearance of perforation is seen in the separated cuticle of any such part of the skin. The dead cuticle, and even the callous living cuticle, swell from water, though the sound parts of living cuticle do not seem to undergo any change from lying long in water. The cuticle of the palms of the hands, and

of the soles of the feet, seem at least to imbibe moisture; but the cuticle on the opposite sides of the hands and feet do not appear to have undergone any change. This may be seen in the hands of a woman who washes linen; and the reason of it is, that in the palms of the hands and soles of the feet there are a great many layers of dead cuticle, which still adhere to the living by the attraction of cohesion, and which certainly absorb warm water, thicken, and are thrown into wrinkles. When poultices are applied to these parts, the same appearances are seen. If dead cuticle swells in water, its pores will inevitably become invisible. Farther, respecting the soaking of fluids through cuticle and *rete mucosum*, let it be remembered, that in many fevers the skin is for a long time parched and dry, though it looks red and feels hot; the last circumstances prove, that the blood is determined to the skin in greater quantity than at other times, yet the fluids do not sweat out, and much less transude. Many people, notwithstanding their using exercise, even in hot weather, when the fluids must be determined to the skin, do not sweat. Vesications which take place from burns, from other accidents, or from the constitution, have been left to themselves; the fluid has not appeared sensibly to evaporate; they have remained apparently of the same size, for eight or ten days, without the cuticles ever feeling moist. When a bit of dead skin, with its cuticle sound, and adhering, is exposed to air, it will be many weeks in drying; and were not the cuticle to separate by putrefaction, would probably never dry at all. When cuticle happens to be rubbed off, in the dead body, the skin dries immediately. Though the legs in *œdema* are loaded frequently with lymph, not a drop transudes through the cuticle, unless the dis-

tention has been so great as to tear it, which rarely happens. Is it probable that the same cuticle should be the most permeable and most impermeable to fluids, of any substance, at one and the same time?

But as pores are allowed to exist, why does not the fluid of vesication escape by the pores, though it may not transpire? These pores Mr. Cruikshank believed were in the processes of cuticle and *rete mucosum*, which lined the pores of the skin. If one presses his finger about the middle in hot weather, or applies a ligature, the perspirable matter will be forced out at the pores on the tops of the fingers, in round drops, at regular distances, on the spiral ridges, like the secretion of the tarsal glands of the eyelids, after they have been immersed in spirits. In the latter case, the equal pressure of the surrounding fluid may oblige the secretion to put on the appearance of round drops. But Albinus's reasoning does not appear just, when he says, the fluid perspires, in the former instance, from every part of the skin, and is collected into drops by the equable pressure of the surrounding atmosphere. The drops appear at the orifices of the pores, and nowhere else; and their rounded form depends on their being accumulated in a round cavity, the orifice of the secondary pore. This makes it more than probable, that the perspiring pores, and, from analogy, the absorbing pores, are in the processes of the cuticle and *rete mucosum*, which line the secondary pores of the cutis; and not in that apparent external interstitial surface of the cuticle itself, placed between the mouths of the external pores. What farther confirms his idea is, that the parts most porous sweat most, and will be found to absorb most. The tip of the nose in warm weather, the head, the arm-pits, the soles of the feet, and palms

of the hands, sweat most. Now, it is contended that there are pores in the cuticle and *rete mucosum*, therefore it is proper to enquire why the cuticle does not allow the fluid of vesication to escape,—When cuticle is detached by vesication, its processes must be compressed against its internal surface, and the pores of course will be shut. When *œdema* distends a limb, the fluids do not escape for another reason. The extreme arteries, which exhale on the skin, are, probably, compressed by the water, and the cellular membrane become turgid by exhalation, from more internal branches; and besides, sweating is a secretion which cannot be conceived consistent with the distended state of the cold skin; we have therefore no moisture, in general, from such surfaces. The skin has been exposed to heat, sufficient to convert its fluids into vapour, and as vapour is allowed to be more penetrating than fluid, it should of course have dried quickly, but it did not. Now, if the *villi* are either supposed to be collapsed, or the processes compressed, one may see some reason why no moisture appeared on the skin. A state of erection, distention, and perfect freedom may be necessary to perspiration, and easily obtained in the living body; but from the relaxation or compression of the *villi*, any process similar to perspiration may be impossible, notwithstanding the action of heat, which could not make these vessels exert a power consistent only with life. The surface of the cuticle is always covered with an unctuous, or oily secretion; this is very conspicuous in the skin of the Negro, and makes it still more improbable that watery fluids soak through it: this may be one reason why it does not suffer the cutis to dry. The cuticle of the hands and feet, in the living body, seem to imbibite moisture, and become softer;

but it is probably in consequence of its having less living principle than that of other parts.

That it allows of the sweat's passing through, may be easily accounted for, though the soaking of fluids through it should be denied; for admitting that in the palms of the hands, or soles of the feet, there may be many layers of cuticle, still it is most probable, that the last formed corresponds in every respect to the first formed and intermediate layers, and that pores are opposite to pores, and connected with each other.

Besides, the *villi* appear to be lengthened, as the cuticle becomes thicker. Dr. Hunter has described and delineated, in the London Medical Essays, white filaments passing between the cuticle and cutis. These are most remarkable in the sole of the foot, in the human subject. He suspects them to be vessels of perspiration, continued even to the cuticle. If they are vessels, it corresponds with my idea of vessels becoming larger and longer, in proportion as the cuticle becomes thicker. For these filaments are more easily demonstrated on the heel, or ball of the great toe, where the cuticle is thickest, than any where else. We have been informed, that it has lately been discovered, that these filaments were nerves. That the nerves become larger, but on account of more acute sensation, or greater action in a part, appears to me a sufficient reason for rejecting the idea of larger nerves going to an insensible and nearly passive membrane. If these filaments are not vessels, from analogy to the other parts of the internal surface of cuticle, it may rather be suspected they were exceeding fine processes of the cuticle and *rete mucosum*, which line the smallest pores of the true skin; and if these processes are elongated, and go inwards, as the cuticle thickens, while at the same

time they serve the same purposes as the ducts of glands, it comes to the same thing, as if more of the vessels themselves had been elongated outwards.

If these filaments are really processes of the cuticle and *rete mucosum*, then three classes of processes in these membranes can be demonstrated. The *first* line the pores, through which the hairs pass; these are the longest, and generally have the largest diameter. The *second* class are easily distinguished on the inside of the cuticle, which cover the palms of the hands or soles of the feet, or indeed on any part of the cuticle; they line those pores described by Grew, and which Winslow calls the ducts of glands; they are short, compared to the former, are transparent on the sides, and have a white line in the centre, which are not well understood; they appear, in regular order, on those parts of the cuticle which correspond to the parallel, or spiral ridges of the cutis. The above mentioned filaments, perhaps, constitute the *third* class, are longer than the last, and more slender than any of the former.

In order to make it probable that cuticle is a substance which may be pervaded by fluids, though it has no pores, anatomists have adopted one of two theories, respecting its formation. The *first* is, that it consists of the callous extremities of the vessels of the skin, reduced to this state by the friction which perpetually takes place between the surface of the body, and substances coming in contact with it. Morgagni adopted this opinion.

The *second* is, that cuticle and *rete mucosum* were originally, and still are, exudations of mucus from the ends of the vessels of the skin; that this mucus is dried and hardened by the external atmosphere into a membrane. This last opinion has been supported

by Professor Meckel, who observes, in confirmation of his opinion, that the black membrane in the *rete mucosum* of the Negro, may still be dissolved in water, like mucus, by maceration. There is something else in cuticle; nor does its known properties correspond with these theories. If the friction of external substances rendered the ends of the vessels of the skin callous, whence have we cuticle so perfect in the earliest state of the tender fœtus, hanging in a warm liquid, more fit for dissolving, as one would imagine, than producing callosity? If the cuticle, on the other hand, is merely concreted mucus, whence should the dead cuticle remain months in water without dissolving, or becoming putrid? The hoofs, nails, and cuticle, of animals, are supposed to be similar substances, and always come away together after maceration in water; yet the hoof in the flink calf is almost an inch thick, while the cuticle is nearly the same as it is afterwards in open air.

No part of the skin of a living animal is inorganic and not possessed of life. If the cuticle, though an insensible membrane, were not alive, and possessed of irritability, why should touching it with caustic, which deprives other parts of life, and makes them drop off, have the same effect on the cuticle?

If a bit of cuticle is touched slightly with moist lunar caustic, it soon becomes black, and in a day or two drops off, shewing a new surface, in every respect like the former. This is not new cuticle, so quickly regenerated, but the cuticular surface of *rete mucosum*, which has the same appearance, and the same properties, as the cuticle. Spirit of nitre dropt on the cuticle turns it yellow, and produces, though more slowly, the same effect as the lunar caustic does. The substance of the teeth, like the cuticle, has been supposed to have no

vessels; and there are several circumstances which favour this opinion; yet, in attempting to saw a tooth in the living body, the patient complained of pain the moment the saw got through the enamel. If there are nerves in the bony part of a tooth, there can be no doubt of its also having vessels. Cartilages covering the ends of bones, in the full grown animal, have not the least vestige of vessel that can be demonstrated; but cartilage may be absorbed as well as bone; and if in the diseased state, it is most probably vascular, it must have been so in the sound state. Next to the cuticle lies the *rete mucosum*, so called from its imagined perforations, and consequent resemblance to a net, and that it consisted only of mucus. It was not known to the ancients; and as the discovery belongs to Malpighi, it is sometimes called *rete Malpighi*; he first discovered it in the tongue, and afterwards transferred it to the skin; he calls it *corpus mucosum et reticulare*, and, after describing it, says,—“*ex quo deduco non incongruam forte nigredinis Æthiopum causam: certum enim est ipsis cutim albam esse sicuti et cuticula, unde tota nigredo a subiecto mucoso et reticulari corpore ortum trahit.*” Riolan, before him, thought he had discovered the cause of the black colour in the Negro, and says it was in the epidermis, and did not go so deep as the true skin; but the epidermis and *rete mucosum* were not then distinguished. The scarf skin is colourless; the *rete mucosum*, on the contrary, is of different colours in different climates, and in different persons in different states of the body. The apparent colour of the skin entirely resides in this membrane; it is black in the Negro, copper-coloured in the Mulatto, yellow in the Egyptian, and white in the Albino, and in the inhabitants of cold climates. It, in the last, becomes brown in summer from the

heat of the sun, and particularly in those, who at the same time are exposed to the reflection of his rays from the surface of water, as in sea voyages, and similar situations. In those where its natural colour is white, it never changes if they are always within doors when the sun is up; and in European climates, if it has become brown during the summer heat, it becomes white again during the winter's cold. Even in those who live in cold climates its colour is sometimes naturally brown or yellow. It becomes black or dark brown in the areola round the nipples of women who are somewhat advanced in pregnancy, and is then one of the surest marks of their being with child, and constantly resorted to by the medical practitioner. The colour of this membrane is transmitted from the parents to their children, and is wonderfully altered by crossing the breed; the offspring therefore of a black man, by repeated intermarriages with white women, will, in the fourth generation, become white; and the converse of this is equally true. In order to ascertain whether the *rete mucosum* was vascular, Mr. Cruikshank instituted several experiments on the skin of those who died of the natural small-pox.

He macerated some portions of skin in putrid water for a week, during the heat of the summer; the spirits with which they had been previously impregnated made them resist the effects of this water longer. Cuticle and *rete mucosum* were already turned down; and upon the eighth or ninth day, he found he could now separate a vascular membrane from the cutis, in which were also situated the injected small-pox pustules. These last consisted of circles of long floating villi at the circumference, but of a white uninjected substance in the centre. This central part Mr. Hunter had previously said was a slough,

formed by the irritation of the various matter. The surface of the skin from whence this membrane was separated, was elegantly porous. The pores now appeared exceedingly more numerous, and this surface of the skin was still tough and shining. From the vast number of pores now visible, he inferred, that the processes of the cuticle and *rete mucosum* must be also more numerous than we are aware of; and many of these processes must be invisible in the microscope, from their exility and delicate texture, though their corresponding pores are visible. He macerated the same skin for four or five days more, and separated another membrane, more delicate than the former, but also vascular; the former he easily preserved; the latter, attracted by the instrument which separated it, or unable to bear the agitation of the water or spirits in which it was separated, constantly broke down; but the corresponding surface of the skin was still tough and shining; the pores were now much larger and more distinct than before, which convinced him that the appearance was natural, and that the skin had sustained no real injury in the process.

Thus, it appears, that Mr. C. has demonstrated five kinds of skin instead of three, commonly supposed. The three first are evidently cuticles, and the two last, most probably, are formed into cuticle, and, like the second and third, are to succeed the first, which is perpetually falling off in small portions, like scales,—the only circumstance which seems to favour Lewenhoek's doctrine, that the cuticle is formed of scales.

In order to be perfectly understood respecting these five membranes, it may again be observed that cuticle, commonly so called, makes the first; the *rete mucosum* is double, and makes the second and third; the first vascular membrane in which the small-

pox pustules are chiefly seated, makes the fourth; and the membrane, which may be separated some days after the separation of the last, by continuing the maceration, and which shews the pores still larger, makes the fifth. These two last membranes, it is probable might easily be detected in the skins of those who die of the measles, scarlet fever, or other eruptive diseases as well as in the small-pox skin; these eruptive diseases do not create, but demonstrate, these membranes, in consequence of the great determination of blood, in these cases, to the skin.

The skin itself was given to man not only for feeling, in a general sense, but for perspiration, absorption, and particularly for *touch*, in which he excels all other animals, and which resides, principally in the *tips of the fingers*. He was intended for examining, reasoning, forming a judgment, and acting accordingly; he was fitted by this sense to examine accurately the properties of surrounding bodies, not capable of being examined by his other senses. This, among other reasons, was one why he was made erect, that the points of his fingers should not be made callous, or less sensible, *by walking on them*.

The skin of human bodies is always of a white colour, in the dead body, let the colour of the *rete mucosum* be what it may; it is extremely full of pores, and extremely vascular; a child in full vigour comes into the world, from this circumstance, *scarlet*; it is endowed with intense sensibility, almost all the pain, in the different operations of surgery, is past when we have divided the skin. Some parts of the skin have more feeling than others; the lips, for example, as Haller says, "*ad basia destinata*." The *glans clytoridis*, and the *glans penis*, with a similar intention; there, though the nerves are not so large as

in some other parts, they are longer, more numerous, and endowed with more exquisite feeling; but where the common offices of life merely are intended, the marks of superior feeling or touch, in the skin, are the projections, above the common surface, of those packets of arteries, veins, absorbents, called *villi*; the nerves are there not only also longer, but larger, as in the points of the fingers and toes.

We are not certain that the skin is muscular, but it has properties very like those of muscle, it contracts, relaxes, and even vibrates, in some places, on certain occasions. It is extremely distensible, the skin of the *perinaeum* has stretched in labour from a quarter of an inch to six inches. It is also extremely elastic, and instantly after labour has returned again to the original quarter of an inch; it is thickest on those parts intended by nature to bear weight or pressure; of course it is thickest on the back, on the soles of the feet, and palms of the hands. It is thinner on the fore part of the body, on the insides of the arms and legs, and where its surfaces touch opposite surfaces. It is extremely thin on the lips, and allows the colour of the blood to shine through it. It is also extremely thin on the *glans penis* in men, *glans clytoridis* in women, and on the inside of the *labia pudendi*. Skin dried and dressed is extremely strong and durable, and therefore employed in making harness for horses, clothing for men, and a variety of other purposes.

SKIN, SCARF. See *Cuticle* and *Skin*.

SKINK. See *Scincus*.

SKULL, (*Cranium*, *i*, *n.*). See *Bones*, *Caput*, and *Cranium*.

SLATERS, The millepedes are sometimes so called.

SLEEP. *Somnus*. That state of the body in which the internal and external senses and voluntary motions

are not exercised. The end and design of sleep is both to renew, during the silence and darkness of the night, the vital energy which has been exhausted through the day, and to assist nutrition.

Among the exhausting powers may be reckoned heat, light, motion, sound, and thought, with the exercise of reason, imagination, desire, and volition; and if to these we add sensations accompanied by pain or pleasure, we shall complete our catalogue.

When, therefore, we are to ascertain the degree exhausted by these powers, we are taught by nature to retire, that, recumbent in some sequestered spot, unmolested by light, by heat, by noise, and free from the excitements of volition, sleep may quietly steal upon our senses, and close the avenue to thought. In this situation, all the muscles, excepting the sphincters, are relaxed, and voluntary motion ceases; but not the vital and involuntary, for these, far from exhausting, serve only to recruit our strength. Such is the peristaltic motion of the alimentary canal, on which depends nutrition; such respiration, which supplies the pabulum of life; and such the motion of the heart, which distributes the energetic principle to every part of the animated frame.

When all stimulating powers, excepting those which immediately excite the vital functions, are removed, sleep first takes possession of the limbs, and blunts sensation; then impairs the recollection with the reasoning power, and finally precludes volition. If profound, it puts a total stop to all the imaginations of the mind.

Such are the phenomena of sleep. But how is it produced? What is the proximate, what the remote cause of sleep?

The reverend Mr. Townsend is inclined to think that there are ab-

sorbents in the cavities of the brain, as in all other cavities of the body, to take up and carry off what the exhalants have deposited; and he imagines that, during our waking hours, their activity is greater in proportion to the intensity of thought, of volition, and of muscular exertion. Should this be granted, it will follow, from the laws of the animated fibre, that these absorbents, exhausted by incessant action, will become torpid in a degree, whilst the exhalants continue to pour forth into the ventricles of the brain their viscid lymph, as happens even after death, according to Sauvage.

Hence may arise that degree of pressure on the vessels of the brain which blunts the faculties, produces a cessation of voluntary motion, and terminates in total absence of sensation.

For the occasional causes of somnolency, we may look to such as diminish the vital energy and action of the absorbents, by excess of stimulus; which may be heat, animal food, spices, spirits, opium, and either violent or long continued exertions, whether mental or muscular. Among these we find the same causes which occasion drunkenness, in its several degrees of intensity, with deep sleep and death.

Or the occasional causes, diminishing the vital energy, may be directly sedative, such as excess of cold, which is attended by insuperable desire to sleep; fear, when extreme; profuse evacuations; exhausting diseases; and whatever either diminishes the supply of blood to the vessels of the brain, such as ligatures on the carotids, and pressure on the cortical substance of the brain by plethora, or impedes the return of blood by the veins, as happens to decrepit age, and to such as are oppressed with fat.

Hoffman, when treating of sleep and wakefulness, remarks, that the

tone and vigour of the brain being much diminished, partly by vigilance through the day, and partly by languid circulation of the blood by night, this gives occasion to more copious exhalation of lymph, which stagnates in the vessels of the brain, and impedes the secretion of the nervous fluid. He observes, that whatever retards the circulation of the blood produces sleep, and that sleep itself retards the circulation of the blood; for, during sleep, the pulse is slow, and the respiration is both deeper and slower than when we are awake.

That during sleep the whole system is relaxed is evident, because every part of the body becomes turgid; and that some of the exhalants act more freely than the absorbents, with which they are connected, is manifested by the pearly drops of sweat standing like dew upon the face of children, or flowing from every pore of hectic patients, in the morning. To this observation it may be added, that children, and people of lax habits, sleep more than old people, or such as are distinguished for rigidity of fibre. That there is some accumulation in the vessels of the brain, is rendered probable by observing, that when any one is suddenly awakened from profound sleep, he is convulsed; weight and torpor in the head are felt for some considerable time; the senses are slow in their return, and the muscles do not readily obey volition. These symptoms are frequently rendered more remarkable when weakly subjects sleep after a full meal before the fire.

During quiescence, the absorbents, having accumulated vital energy, act with renovated vigour, and a disposition to wakefulness ensues.

Thus, this wonderful machine, by its alternate accumulation and exhaustion of energetic power, seems to

resemble, in simplicity of action and contrivance, the syphon fountain, or an engine kept in motion by the alternate collection and condensation of the steam.

In support Mr. Townsend adduces the phenomena attendant on apoplexy. One degree of pressure produces, he imagines, drowsiness, and a greater brings on sleep in its several stages of intensity, from that which is lightest to lethargy, apoplexy, death.

If any one retires to a sequestered spot, undisturbed by light, by noise, by pain, or mental passions; when every muscle is quiescent, and when volition ceases; when there is nothing to excite the system; his state of somnolency will be prolonged, attended first by sound and refreshing sleep, afterwards by dosing. Boerhaave relates the case of a wealthy young nobleman in Holland, who, having overdrunk himself, was, by orders from the Prince of Orange, carried into a dark and quiet place, where he slept three days and as many nights, not incessantly, for he awoke often, but whenever he opened his eyes, believing it to be the middle of the night, he turned round and dosed again.

From what has been said, it should appear, that sleep may arise from either exhausted energy, or want of excitement, in the absorbent system.

Many animals, secluded from light, heat, and the free access of atmospheric air, dose through the whole winter. In this case, the vital functions are scarcely perceptible; for although the lamp of life is not extinguished, it burns dim; the animal functions are suspended, and the natural functions are nearly so; for nothing passes either by urine or by stool, little escapes by perspiration, and, in the torpid state, digestion ceases. In this condition of the ani-

mal, little oxygen is received into the system by the lungs; no great quantity of hydrogen is consumed in any given time for the purposes of life, and consequently the vital heat is much diminished.

Although I have supposed says Mr. T. that sleep may induced by pressure and accumulation of lymph in the ventricles of the brain, yet we must remark, that during sleep the absorbents are certainly at work: 1. In the urinary bladder; for the urine is small in quantity, and high coloured: 2. In the alimentary canal; for the fæces are hardened: 3. In the membrana adiposa; for the fat, after long protracted sleep, is considerably wasted, and at the end of winter, in torpid animals, is commonly consumed: 4. In the ventricles of the brain; for, were it otherwise, not merely sleep, but apoplexy and death, would be the consequence.

In the torpid and quiescent state, the appetite for food is lost; for it usually bears proportion to the quantity of exertion, whether mental or muscular; and as no fresh supply of hydrogen is received into the stomach, the little required to feed the lambent flame is readily derived by absorption from the cells or reservoirs of fat dispensed over the body, and more especially about the loins.

During our time of sleep, when every muscular fibre is relaxed, and when nutritive particles are distributed wherever they are wanted, provision of oil is made for the consumption of the waking hours. Hence animals who eat and sleep immoderately, are apt to be oppressed with fat.

Somnolence, too much indulged, brings on fatuity. Boerhaave relates the case of a physician, who took such delight in sleeping, that he retired to a quiet and sequestered chamber, where, in perfect darkness, he

slumbered almost incessantly, till he lost his intellects, and perished in an hospital.

The duration of sleep, with the alternate periods of repose and vigilance, depend much on habit, and this, once acquired, is with difficulty changed.

SLOE. See *Prunus sylvestris*.

SMALLAGE. See *Apium*.

SMALL-POX. See *Variola*.

SMELLING. To the use of discerning prejudicial food, the sense of smelling is subservient; by which we both perceive their noxious nature, before they be tasted, which might be dangerous: and especially avoid putridity in our victuals, which to us is exceedingly hurtful; and discover what is grateful and wholesome; although, by habit, this advantage of smell is more conspicuous in animals than in man. But men who have been left to themselves, and whose sense of smell has not been corrupted by variety, have been observed most certainly to retain that sagacious faculty in distinguishing food in an eminent degree. The powers of medicinal plants are hardly to be estimated better than by the simple testimonies of taste and smell. Hence, in all animals the organ of smell is placed near the mouth; and hence the smell is stronger, and the organs larger, in those animals which have to seek their prey at a considerable distance, or to reject deleterious plants from among their food.

The sense of smelling is performed by means of a soft, pulpy, vascular, papillous, porous membrane, which lines the whole internal cavity of the nostrils, and is thicker upon the septum, and principal cavity of the nose, but thinner in the sinuses. It is plentifully supplied with very soft nerves, the middle one of which descend from the first pair, through the holes of the os cribrosum to the

septum narium; but in such a manner, that it is very difficult to trace them to their extremities and into the septum. Other lateral nerves come from the second branch of the fifth pair and its branches, from that which crosses the pterygoid canal, and from another which descends through the canals of the palate; and in the maxillary sinus from the intra-orbital branch, from the dental branch, and from the anterior nerve of the palate. Moreover, the anterior part of the septum has a twig from the ophthalmic of the first branch of the fifth pair.

The nostrils are supplied with very numerous arteries; from the three nasal branches of the internal maxillary, above, from both the ethmoidal branches, and the frontal and nasal branches, with lateral arteries from the smaller ophthalmic branch of the internal carotid, and from branches of the palatine artery, and in the sinuses from the infra orbital, and from the superior dental one. These arteries have the property of exuding blood easily, and in great quantity, without any lesion of consequence. The correspondent veins form a very large plexus upon the external pterygoid muscle; then communicate with the sinuses of the dura matter; and, lastly, meet in the external branch of the internal jugular. The arteries supply nourishment, warmth, and mucus.

The head, especially in man, being of a spherical figure, confines the organ of smell within a small space. That it may be extended internally, the nostrils have been made complicated and cavernous in a surprising manner. In the first place, the nostrils are that multiform cavity which begins at the anterior openings of the nose, and, extending transversely backwards over the roof of the palate under the ethmoid bone, terminates in the cavity of the fauces. This

cavity is divided by the septum, often unequally, which is bony in the upper part, and descends from the plate of the ethmoid; below, it is formed by the vomer, and in its fore-part it consists of a triangular cartilage, whose surface is large and very sensible.

Moreover, the lateral surfaces of the nares are increased by the spiral convolutions of the ossa turbinata; the uppermost of which are the small superior and posterior convolutions of the ethmoid bone. The middle ones belong to the same bone, are of a long conchoid form, convex inwards, externally concave, pointed at both ends, covered all over with pits, and internally filled with spongy cells, suspended transversely, and supported by particular eminences of the palate and maxillary bones. The lowest turbinata are similar to the middle ones; like them resemble in figure a limpet-shell, but longer; are for the most part divided from the former, but sometimes conjoined by a bony plate, which is most frequently of a membranous nature. This appendix, being extended upwards in a square form, completes the maxillary sinus.

The cavity of the nostrils is still further enlarged, by means of the various sinuses, which are recesses or a kind of appendages to the nostrils. The uppermost of these are the frontal sinuses, which are inconstant and irregular, seated in the superciliary ridge, and situated betwixt the anterior and posterior plates of the frontal bone. They are not found in the fetus, and seem to arise from the action of the corrugator and other muscles, which draw the anterior plate outwards, and increase the diploe into cells, in the same manner as in the mastoid process. These open in the upper part of the nostrils into the anterior cell of the os papyraceum. There are instances of their being

totally wanting, and growing after birth.

The second in order are the ethmoidal sinuses; of which four or more on each side are found in the outer part of the *os cribosum*, like the cells of an honey-comb; above they are completed by the cellular diploë of the *os frontis*, before by the *os unguis*, and behind by the palate and sphenoidal bone; they open into the upper part of the nostrils in a transverse line, by many small tubes, even placed one above another. With these are continuous the cells in the bottom of the orbit, and those excavated in the *os planum* and *maxillare* are outwardly continued from them. In the third place, the large cavity of the multiform bone on each side is also contiguous, and in some measure belongs to the ethmoid and palate bones. By the drying up of the cartilage, which is here of large extent in the fetus, it gradually is formed in the solid bone, under the *fella turcica*, is capacious, either single or divided, and opens forwards by its aperture into the upper passage of the nostrils.

The last, lowest, and largest of the sinuses, which in the fetus exists in some degree, but in the adult, by the attenuation of the bony laminæ, becomes very large, is chiefly excavated in the upper maxillary bone. Its opening into the nostrils is bounded by the *os unguis*, bone of the palate, proper lamella of the lowest *os turbinatum*, and by membranes, so that it enters by a round aperture between the middle and lowest spongy bones. But it likewise sends forth an hollow appendix, stretching forwards under the orbits, which is formed by the *os planum*, *unguis*, and *papyraceum*, communicating likewise with the ethmoidal cells, and opening behind the *ostium lachrymale*.

The nerves of the nose, being almost naked, require a defence from

the air, which is continually inspired and expired through the nostrils, for the purposes of respiration. Nature has therefore supplied the nostrils, in place of a thicker cuticle, with a viscid, bland, insipid mucus, fluid at its first separation, but by the air condensing into thick dry crusts, and more consistent here than in the other parts of the body. By this mucus the nerves are defended from drying and from pain. It is poured out from the very numerous small arteries of the nostrils; and is deposited partly into numerous cylindrical ducts, and partly into round visible cryptæ, scattered throughout the nostrils. The same mucus exudes over the surface of the whole olfactory membrane, and every where anoints it. In the septum, a long sinus, common to many muciferous pores, runs forwards a considerable way. The mucus accumulated in the night-time, in too great quantity, is expelled during the day by compressing the nostrils, and forcing the breath through them; or by its dryness and acrimony, it irritates the very sensible nerves, and is then expelled by the sneezing excited. But the sinuses which abound with mucus, evacuate it according to the different postures of the body; by some of them always being at liberty to discharge it, whether the head be erect or inclined forwards, or to the side; yet so, that generally the maxillary and sphenoidal sinuses are more difficultly emptied than the rest. Moreover, the tears descend through a proper duct into the nostrils, and moisten them, and dilute the mucus.

The extremities of the nostrils are covered by the nose, which is lined inwardly with a membrane of the same nature, and is composed of two bones, and usually six cartilages, two of which are continuous with the middle septum. The nose may be moved by its muscles, so as to be raised and dilated by a muscle common

to it and the upper lip, and to be contracted by its proper depressor and compressor, and depressor of the septum. Thus the organ of smell is prominent, and exposed to the action of odours, and may be dilated for taking in a larger quantity of air, and again be contracted, when the superabundance is expelled.

The air, therefore, filled with the very subtle, invisible, pungent, oily, saline, and volatile effluvia, which exhale from almost every known body, being received into the nostrils, by the action of respiration, and by a peculiar effort for drawing the air into them, carries these particles to the nerves, widely naked, and constantly soft. By these there is excited in the nerve a kind of sensation which we call smell, by which we distinguish the several kinds of oils and salts, in a manner somewhat indistinct, difficultly reducible to classes, difficultly recalled to the memory, nevertheless sufficiently for our purposes. This sense informs us of unwholesome putridity, of excessive acrimony, and of the bland and useful nature of substances. And as salt, united with oil, is an object of taste, and as oils, combined with salts, constitute odours, the affinity of the two senses, which was necessary to derive utility from either is apparent. But volatile particles chiefly are distinguished by smell, and fixed ones by the taste; perhaps because the thick mucous cuticle, spread over the tongue, intercepts the action of the more subtle salts, which easily affect the softer and less covered nerves of the nostrils. We are ignorant of the reasons why some smells please, and others displease; perhaps custom may have some influence in this respect.

The action of smells is strong, but of short continuance; because particles in a very minute state are ap-

plied to naked nerves, in the immediate vicinity of the brain. Hence the deleterious and refreshing actions of odours, by which people are resuscitated from faintings, and even from drowning. Hence the violent sneezing, excited by acrid particles, the evacuation of the bowels, by the smell of purgatives, and the power of antipathies. Hence the pernicious effects of excessive sneezing, more especially blindness, from the great sympathy of the nerves. Amongst the various parts of the nostrils, the septum, and the ossa turbinata, and their anterior portions, especially form the organ of smell: since these parts are multiplied in quick-scented animals, forming beautiful spires in quadrupeds; and in fish, being distributed in parallel laminæ elegantly toothed.

SMILAX, (*Smilax*, *ăcis*, f. *σμιλαξ*, from *σμιλεω* to cut; so called from the roughness of its leaves and stalk). Rough bind weed.

SMILAX CHINA. The systematic name of the china root tree. See *China*.

SMILAX CHINESE. See *China*.

SMILAX SARSAPARILLA. The systematic name of the plant which affords the sarsaparilla. See *Sarsaparilla*.

SMYRNION HORTENSĒ. The master wort has been so termed. See *Imperatoria*.

SMYRNĪUM OLUSATRUM. The systematic name of the plant called Alexanders. See *Hippofelinum*.

SNAIL. See *Limaces*.

SNAKEROOT, VIRGINIAN. See *Serpentaria Virginiana*.

SNAILSEEDED GLASSWORT. See *Salsola kali*.

SNAKEWEED. See *Biflorta*.

SNAKEWOOD. See *Lignum colubrinum*.

SNEEZEWORD. See *Ptarmica*.

SOAP. See *Sapo*.

SOAP BERRY. See *Saponaria nucula*.

SOAPWORT. See *Saponaria*.

SODA, (*Soda*, æ, f. an Arabian word). See *Natron*.

SODA ACETATA. A neutral salt formed of a combination of acetous acid with the mineral alkali. It is also called *terra foliata tartari crystallizabilis*, *natron acetatum* & *sal diureticum vegetabile crystallizatum*. It possesses similar virtues to the kali acetatum, and may be easily kept dry.

SODA BORAXATA. See *Borax*.

SODA HISPANICA. Impure soda. See *Natron*.

SODA HISPANICA PURIFICATA. Pure soda. See *Natron preparatum*.

SODA MURIATA. See *Murias soda*.

SODA MURIATICA. Common culinary salt. See *Murias soda*.

SODA PHOSPHORATA. *Alkali minerale phosphoratum* of Bergman. This preparation is a phospat of soda, and therefore called *phosphas soda* in the new chemical nomenclature. It is cathartic in the dose of half an ounce to an ounce; dissolved in gruel is no way unpleasant, and is said to be useful, in scrophula, bronchocele, rachitis, and gout, in small doses.

SOL, (*Sol*, *solis*, m. The sun). Gold was so called by the older chemists.

SOLANUM, (*Solanum*, i. n. from *solor* to comfort, because it gives ease by its stupefying qualities). Garden nightshade. The plant thus called in the pharmacopæias, is the *Solanum nigrum* of Linæus; its virtues are very nearly allied to those of the *belladonna*, which consult.

SOLANUM DULCAMARA. The systematic name of the bitter sweet. See *Dulcamara*.

SOLANUM FETIDUM. The thorn apple plant is sometimes so called. See *Stramonium*.

SOLANUM LIGNOSUM. The bitter sweet is sometimes so termed. See *Dulcamara*.

SOLANUM MELONGENA. The systematic name of the mad apple plant. See *Mad-apple*.

SOLANUM NIGRUM. The systematic name of the garden nightshade. See *Solanum*.

SOLANUM SANCTUM. The systematic name of the palestine nightshade. The fruit of this plant is globular and in Egypt much eaten by the inhabitants.

SOLANUM TUBEROSUM. This plant (*Solanum caule inermi herbaceo, foliis pinatis integerrimis, pedunculis subdivisis*. Class *Pentandria*, Order *Monogynia*) affords the potato, a farinaceous root, too well known to need any particular description.

SOLANUM VESICARIUM. The winter cherry plant is so called by Caspar Bauhin. See *Alkekengi*.

SOLDANELLA, (*Soldanella*, æ. f. a *solidando* from its uses in healing fresh wounds). The sea convolvulus. See *Brassica marina*.

SOLEUS. See *Gastrocnemius internus*.

SOLIDAGO, (*Solidago*, inis, f. from *solido* to make firm; so called from its uses of consolidating wounds). The herb comfrey.

SOLIDAGO VIRGAUREA. The systematic name of the golden rod. See *Virga aurea*.

SOLUTION. An intimate commixture of solid bodies with fluids, into one seemingly homogeneous liquor. The dissolving fluid is called a menstruum or solvent.

Objections have been made, and perhaps with propriety, to these names, as it is supposed that the two bodies uniting in solution act reciprocally on each other; there is, however, no danger from the words themselves, if we do not derive them from a mistaken theory. Solution

cannot take place unless one of the bodies at least, be in a fluid state; and this fluidity is affected either by water or fire: hence solution is said to be performed in the humid or in the dry way. Thus, for instance, if any quantity of brimstone be dissolved in a solution of fixed alkali, the brimstone is said to be dissolved in the humid way; but if the brimstone be dissolved by melting it with the dry alkali, the solution is said to be done in the dry way. The compound produced by this mixture is called *hepar sulphuris*, and the same in both. Another kind of solution resembling that by the dry way, is, however, to be carefully distinguished from it. If, for example, a piece of Glauber salt is put into a pan over a fire, the salt very soon assumes a liquid state; but on continuing the heat, it loses its fluidity, and becomes a white powder: this powder is the salt freed from its water, and is found to be very refractory. This liquidity on the water of crystallization being enabled by the heat to keep the salt in solution, and the salt ceased to be fluid as soon as its crystallizing water was evaporated. This kind of solution, which is sometimes called the watery fusion differs not from the first or humid way.

The principal menstrua used in pharmacy are, water, vinous spirits, oils, acids, and alkaline liquors.

Water is the menstruum of all salts, vegetable gums, and animal jellies. Of salts it dissolves only a determinate quantity, though of one kind of salt more than another; and being thus saturated, leaves any additional quantity of the same salt untouched.

Experiments have been made for determining the quantities of water which different salts require for dissolution. Mr. Eller has given a large set in the memoirs of the royal

academy of science of Berlin, for the year 1750, from which the following table is extracted:

Eight ounces by weight of distilled water dissolved,

	oz.	dr.	gr.
Of Refined Sugar	-	24	0 0
Green Vitriol	-	9	4 0
Blue Vitriol	-	9	0 0
White Vitriol	-	4	4 0
Epsom Salt	- -	4	0 0
Purified Nitre	-	4	0 0
Soluble Tartar	-	4	0 0
Common Salt	-	3	4 0
Sal Gemmæ	-	3	4 0
Sal Catharticus Glauberi	-	3	4 0
Seignettes Salt	-	3	0 0
Alum	- -	2	4 0
Sal Ammonia	-	2	4 0
Vitriolated Tartar	-	1	4 0
Salt of Hartshorn	-	1	4 0
Sugar of Lead	-	1	2 0
Cream of Tartar	-	1	0 0
Borax	- -	0	4 20

Though these experiments appear to have been made with great care, yet the proportions of the several salts, soluble in a certain quantity of water, will not always be found exactly the same with those above set down. Salts differ in their solubility according to the degree of their purity, perfection, and dryness; the vitriols, and the artificial compound salts in general, differ remarkably in this respect, according as they are more or less impregnated with the acid ingredient. Thus, vitriolated tartar, perfectly neutralized, is extremely difficult of solution; the matter which remains on making nitrous acid, is no other than a vitriolated tartar; and it dissolves so difficultly that the operator is obliged to break the retort in order to get it out; but on adding more of the vitriolic acid it resolves with ease. Hence many have been tempted to use an over-propor-

tion of acid in this preparation; and we frequently find this acrid soluble salt in the shops, and under the name of vitriolated tartar. The degree of heat occasions also a remarkable difference in the quantity of salt taken up; in very cold weather, eight ounces of water will dissolve only one ounce of nitre, whereas in warm weather the same quantity will take up four ounces. To these circumstances are probably owing, in part, the remarkable difference in the proportional solubilities of salts, as determined by different authors. It is observeable, that common salt is less affected in its solubility by a variation of heat than any other; water in a temperate state, dissolving nearly as much of it as very hot water; and accordingly this is the salt in which the different experiments agree the best. In the experiments of Hoffmann, Newmann, and Petit, the proportion of this salt, on a reduction of the numbers, come out exactly the same, viz. three ounces of salt to eight of water; Dr. Brownrigg makes the quantity of salt a little more; Dr. Grew, a drachm and a scruple more; and Eller as appears in the above table, four drachms more: so that in the trials of six different persons made probably in different circumstances, the greatest

difference is only one-sixth of the usual quantity of salt: whereas in some other salts there are differences of twice or thrice the quantity of salt. In the experiments from which the table is drawn, the water was of the temperature of between 40 and 42 degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer.

Some salts omitted by Eller are here subjoined; the first is taken from Dr. Grew, and the other four from Newmann.

Eight ounces of water dissolved,

	oz.	dr.	gr.
Of fixed alkaline salt	-	8	0
Sal diureticus	-	8	0
Sugar candy, both brown			
white	-	9	0
Sugar of milk	-	0	2
Essential salt of sorrel		0	1

Though water takes up only a certain quantity of one kind of salt, yet when saturated with one, it will still dissolve some portion of another; and when it can bear no more of either of these, it will still take up a third, without letting go any of the former. The principal experiments of this kind, which have been made relative to pharmaceutic subjects are exhibited in the following, table, of which the two first articles are from Grew, and the others from Eller:

Water, 32 parts by weight,

Fully saturated with	Nitre,	dissolved afterwards	Sal ammoniac	10	Sugar	Sal ammonia	2
	Common salt,		Nitre	10		Common salt	2
	Nitre,		Fixed alkali	7		Fixed alkali	2 $\frac{1}{2}$
	Common alkali,		Nitre, near	2		Sugar	2
	Volatile alkali,		Nitre	4			
	Sal ammoniac,		Common salt	2 $\frac{1}{2}$			
	Volatile tartar,		Nitre	2			
	Vitriolated tartar,		Fixed alkali	2			
	Glauber's salt,		Nitre	1		Sugar	1
	Epsum salt,		Sugar	6			
	Borax,		Fixed alkali	2			

In regard to the other class of bodies for which water is a menstruum, *i. e.* those of the gummy and gelatinous kind, there is no determinate point of saturation, the water unites readily with any proportion of them, forming with different quantities, liquors of different consistence. This fluid takes up likewise, when assisted by trituration, the vegetable gummy resins, as ammoniacum and myrrh; the solutions of which, though imperfect, that is, not transparent, but turbid and of a milky hue, are nevertheless applicable to valuable purposes in medicine. It mixes with vinous spirits, with acid and alkaline liquors, not with oils, but imbibes some of the more subtile parts of essential oils, so as to become impregnated with their smell and taste.

Rectified spirit of wine, or rather alcohol, is the menstruum of the essentials oils and resins of vegetables, of the pure distilled oils, and several of the colouring and medicinal parts of animals; of some mineral bituminous substances, as of ambergris; and of soaps, though it does not act upon the expressed oils and fixed alkaline salts, of which soap is composed whence if soap contains any superfluous quantity of either the oil or the salt, it may by means of this menstruum be excellently purified. It dissolves, by the assistance of heat, volatile alkaline salts, and more readily the neutral ones, composed either of fixed alkali and the acetous acid, as the sal diureticus, or of the volatile alkali and nitrous acid, as also the salt of amber, &c. It mixes with water and with acid, not with alkaline lixivia.

Oils dissolve vegetable resins and balsams, wax, animal salts, mineral bitumens, sulphur, and certain metallic substances, particularly lead. The expressed oils are, for most of these bodies, more powerful menstrua than those obtained by dis-

tillation, as the former are more capable of sustaining without injury, a strong heat, which is in most cases necessary to enable them to act. It is said that one ounce of sulphur will dissolve in three ounces of expressed oil, particularly linseed oil, but requires six ounces of essential oil, as turpentine.

All acids dissolve alkaline salts, alkaline earths, and metallic substances. The different acids differ greatly in their action on their salt, one dissolving only some particular metals; and another, others.

The vegetable acids dissolve a considerable quantity of zinc, iron, copper, lead, and tin; and extract so much from the metallic part of antimony, as to become powerfully emetic. They dissolve lead more readily, if the metal be previously calcined by fire, than in its metallic state.

The muriatic acid dissolves zinc, iron, and copper, and though it acts scarcely on any other metallic substance in the common way of making solutions, it may nevertheless be artfully combined with them all. The corrosive sublimate and antimonial caustic of the shops are combinations of it with mercury and the metallic part of antimony, effected by applying the acid, in the form of fume, to the subjects at the same time also strongly heated.

The nitrous acid is the common menstruum of all metallic substances, except gold and the metallic part of antimony, of which two, the proper solvent is a mixture of the nitrous and muriatic, called aqua regia.

The vitriolic acid diluted with water, easily dissolves zinc and iron. In its concentrated state, and assisted by a boiling heat, it may be made to corrode, or imperfectly dissolve most of the other metals. Fixed air, or aerial acid dissolves iron, zinc, and calcareous earth; and these solutions

must be conducted without heat. Alkaline lixivia dissolve oils, resinous substances, and sulphur. Their power is greatly promoted by the addition of quicklime, instances of which occur in the preparation of soap, and in the common caustic. Thus actuated, they reduce the flesh, bones, and other solid parts of animals, into a gelatinous matter.

This increased acrimony in alkaline salts, is owing to the abstraction of their fixed air, that acid having a greater attraction for quicklime than for alkalies.

Solutions made in water and in spirit of wine, possess the virtues of the bodies dissolved, while oils generally sheath its activity, and acids and alkalies vary its quality. Hence watery and spirituous liquors are the proper menstrua of the native virtues of vegetable and animal matters.

Most of the foregoing solutions are easily affected, by pouring the menstruum on the body to be dissolved, and suffering them to stand together for some time exposed to a suitable heat. A strong heat is generally requisite to enable oils and alkaline liquors to perform their office; nor will acids act on some metallic bodies without its assistance. The action of watery and spirituous menstrua is likewise expedited by a moderate heat; though the quantity which they afterwards keep dissolved is not as some suppose, by this means increased; all that heat occasions these to take up more than they would do in a longer time in the cold, will, when the heat ceases, subside again. This at least is most commonly the case, though there may be some instances of the contrary.

The action of acids on the bodies which they dissolve, is generally accompanied with heat, effervescence, and a copious discharge of elastic aerial fluids, different in different cases.

There is another species of solution, in which the moisture of the air is the menstruum. Fixed alkaline salts, and those of the neutral kind, composed of alkaline salts and the vegetable acid, or of soluble earths and any acid except the vitriolic, and some metallic salts, on being exposed to a moist air, gradually attract humidity, and at length become liquid. Some substances, not dissoluble by the application of water in its grosser form, as the butter of antimony, are easily liquified by the slow action of the aerial moisture. This process is called deliquation.

SOLUTION OF CONTINUITY. A term given by modern surgeons to any space occasioned by a wound, ulcer, &c.

SOLVENT. See *Menstruum*.

SONCHUS, (*Sonchus*, *i*, m. σοιχος, παρὰ τὸ σῶν χεῖρ from its wholesome juice). The sow thistle. All the species of sonchus abound with a milky juice, which is very bitter and said to possess diuretic virtues. The *sonchus oleraceus* of Linnæus is sometimes employed with that intention. Boiled it may be eaten as a substitute for cabbage.

SONCHUS OLERACEUS. The systematic name of the sow thistle. See *Sonchus*.

SOPHIA, (*Sophia*, *æ*, f. σοφία from σοφός, wife; so named from its great virtues in stopping fluxes). Flix-weed or flux-weed.

SOPHIA CHIRURGÖRUM. This plant, *Sisymbrium sophia* of Linnæus, is now almost banished from practice. It was formerly in high estimation in the cure of wounds. It has been given internally in hysterical affections and uterine hæmorrhages, and the seeds are said to be efficacious in destroying intestinal worms.

SOPHISTICATION. A term employed in pharmacy, to signify the counterfeiting or adulterating any medicine. This practice unhappily

obtains with most dealers in drugs, &c.; and the cheat is carried on so artificially by many as to prevent a discovery even by persons of the most discerning faculties.

SOPHORA HEPTAPHYLLA. The systematic name of the shrub whose root and seeds are sometimes called *anticholericæ*: they are both intensely bitter, and said to be useful in cholera, colic, and dysury.

SOPOR, (*Sopor, oris, m.*). Profound sleep.

SOPORIFEROUS, (from *sopor*, sleep, and *fero*, to bear). A term given to those medicines which induce sleep. See *Anodynes*.

SORBUS, (*Sorbus, i, f.* from *sorbo*, to suck up; because its fruit stops fluxes). The service tree.

SORBUS AUCUPARIA. The wild service tree. The berries of this plant are adstringent, and, it is said, have been found serviceable in allaying the pain of calculous affections in the kidneys.

SORDES. When the matter discharged from ulcers is rather viscid or glutinous, it is thus named. This matter is frequently of a brownish red colour, somewhat resembling the grounds of coffee or grumous blood mixed with water. *Sordes, Sanies, and Ichor*, are all of them much more fetid than purulent matter, and none of them are altogether free from acrimony; but that which is generally termed *Ichor* is by much the most acrid of them, being frequently so sharp and corrosive as to destroy large quantities of the neighbouring parts.

SORE-THROAT. See *Cynanche*.

SORREL, COMMON. See *Acetosa*.

SORREL, FRENCH. See *Rumex Scutatus*.

SORREL, ROUNDEAVED. See *Rumex scutatus*.

SORREL WOOD. See *Lujula*.

SOUP DOCK, The common for-

rel is sometimes so called. See *Acetosa*.

SOUTHERNWOOD. See *Abrotanum*.

SOW-BREAD. See *Arthanita*.

SOW-BREED. See *Cyclamen*.

SPA WATER. This mineral water appears to be a very strongly acidulous chalybeate, containing more iron, and carbonic acid, than any other mineral spring. What applies to the use of chalybeates will apply to this water.

SPAIN, PELLITORY OF. See *Pyrethrum*.

SPANISH FLY. See *Cantharides*.

SPANISH LIQUORICE. See *Glycyrrhiza*.

SPARTIUM SCOPARIUM. The systematic name of the common broom. See *Genista*.

SPASM, (*Spasmus, i. m.* or *Σπασμος*; from *Σπασμα; σπαιω*, to draw). A spasm or convulsion. An involuntary contraction of the muscular fibres, or that state of the contraction of muscles which is not spontaneously disposed to alternate with relaxation. When the contractions alternate with relaxation, which are frequently and preternaturally repeated, they are called convulsions. Spasms are distinguished by authors into clonic and tonic spasms. In *clonic* spasms, which are the true convulsions, the contractions and relaxations are alternate, as in epilepsy; but in *tonic* spasms the member remains rigid, as in locked jaw. See *Convulsion* and *Tonic spasm*.

SPASMI. Spasmodic diseases. The third order of the class *neuroses* of Cullen; characterised by a morbid contraction or motion of muscular fibres.

SPASMODIC COLIC. See *Colica*.

SPASMOLOGY, (*Spasmologia, æ, f.* *σπασμολογια*, from *σπασμος*, a spasm, and *λογος*, a discourse). A treatise on convulsions.

SPASMUS CYNICUS. The *spasmus cynicus*, or sardoniac grin, is a convulsive affection of the muscles of the

face and lips on both sides, which involuntarily forces the muscles of those parts into a species of grinning distortion. If one side only be affected, the disorder is nominated *tortura oris*. When the masseter, buccinator, temporal, nasal, and labial muscles, are involuntarily excited to action, or contorted by contraction or relaxation, they form a species of malignant sneer. It sometimes arises from eating hemlock, or other acrid poisons, or succeeds to an apoplectic stroke.

SPEARMINT. See *Mentha sativa*.

SPEARWORT WATER. See *Flamula*.

SPECIFICS. Such remedies as have an infallible efficacy in the cure of disorders. The existence of such remedies is doubted.

SPECŪLUM OCŪLI, (*Speculum, i, n.* from *specio*, to view). An instrument used by oculists to keep the eyelids open and the eye fixed.

SPECŪLUM ORIS. An instrument to force open the mouth.

SPECŪLUM VENĒRIS. See *Millefolium*.

SPEECH. See *Voice*.

SPEEDWELL FEMALE. See *Elatina*.

SPEEDWELL MALE. See *Veronica*.

SPEEDWELL MOUNTAIN. See *Veronica*.

SPERMA-CETI, (*Sperma-ceti, spermatis-ceti, n.* from *σπέρμα*, feed, a *σπείρω*, to sow, and *cete* or *cetus*, the whale). An oily, concrete, crystalline, semi-transparent matter, obtained from the cavity of the cranium of several species of whales. It was formerly very highly esteemed, and many virtues were attributed to it; but it is now chiefly employed in affections of the lungs, *primæ viæ*, kidneys, &c. as a softening remedy, mixed with mucilages. It is also

employed by surgeons as an emollient in form of cerates, ointments, &c.

SPERMATOCĒLE, (*Spermatocele, es*, f. from *σπερματοκῆλη* from *σπέρμα*, feed, and *κῆλη*, a tumour). A swelling of the testicle or epididymis from an accumulation of semen. It is known by a swelling of those organs, pain extending to the loins without inflammation.

SPHĀCĒLUS, (*Sphacelus, i, m*, *σφακελος*, from *σφάω*, to destroy). A mortification of any part. See *Gangrene*.

SPHÆNOID BONE, (*Os sphenoides*, from *σφην*, a wedge, and *ειδος*, a likeness; because it is fixed in the cranium like a wedge). *Os cuneiforme, os multiforme.* Pterygoid bone. The *os sphenoides*, or *cuneiforme* as it is called from its wedge-like situation amidst the other bones of the head, is of a more irregular figure than any other bone. It has been compared to a bat with its wings extended. This resemblance is but faint, but it would be difficult perhaps to find any thing it resembles more.

We distinguish in this bone its body or middle part, and its wings or sides, which are much more extensive than its body.

Each of its wings or lateral processes is divided into two parts. Of these the uppermost and most considerable portion, helping to form the deepest part of the temporal fossa on each side, is called the *temporal process*. The other portion makes a part of the orbit, and is therefore named the *orbital process*. The back part of each wing, from its running out sharp to meet the *os petrosum*, has been called the *spinous process*; and the two processes, which stand out almost perpendicular to the basis of the skull, have been named *pterygoid* or *aliform* processes, though they may be said rather to resemble the legs than the wings of the bat.

Each of these processes has two plates and a middle fossa facing backwards; of these plates the external one is the broadest, and the internal one the longest. The lower end of the internal plate forms a kind of hook, over which passes the round tendon of the *musculus circumflexus palati*. Besides these, we observe a sharp middle ridge, which stands out from the middle of the bone. The fore part of it, where it joins the nasal lamella of the ethmoidal bone, is thin and straight; the lower part of it is thicker, and is received into the vomer.

The cavities observable on the external surface of the bone, are where it helps to form the temporal, nasal, and orbital fossæ. It has likewise two fossæ in its pterygoid processes. Behind the edge, which separates these two fossæ, we observe a small groove, made by a branch of the superior maxillary nerve in its passage to the temporal muscle. Besides these, it has other depressions, which serve chiefly for the origin of muscles.

Its foramina are four on each side. The three first serve for the passage of the optic, superior maxillary, and inferior maxillary nerves; the fourth transmits the largest artery of the dura mater. On each side we observe a considerable fissure, which, from its situation, may be called the superior orbital fissure. Through it pass the third and fourth pair of nerves, a branch of the fifth, and likewise the sixth pair. Lastly, at the basis of each pterygoid process, we observe a foramen which is named *pterygoidean* and sometimes *Vidian*, from Vidian who first described it. Through it passes a branch of the external carotid, to be distributed to the nose.

The os sphenoides on its internal surface affords three fossæ. Two of these are considerable ones; they are formed by the lateral processes, and

make part of the lesser fossæ of the basis of the skull. The third, which is smaller, is on the top of the body of the bone, and is called *fella turcica*, from its resemblance to a Turkish saddle. In this fossa the pituitary gland is placed. At each of its four angles is a process. They are called the *clinoid* processes, and are distinguished by their situation into anterior and posterior processes. The two latter are frequently united into one.

Within the substance of the os sphenoides, immediately under the fella turcica, we find two cavities, separated by a thin bony lamella. These are the sphenoidal sinuses. They are lined with the pituitary membrane, and, like the frontal sinuses, separate a mucus which passes into the nostrils. In some subjects there is only one cavity; in others, though more rarely, we find three.

In infants the os sphenoides is composed of three pieces, one of which forms the body of the bone and its pterygoid processes, and the other two its lateral processes. The clinoid processes may even then be perceived in a cartilaginous state, though some writers have asserted the contrary; but we observe no appearance of any sinus.

This bone is connected with all the bones of the cranium, and likewise with the ossa maxillaria, ossa malarum, ossa palati, and vomer. Its uses may be collected from the description we have given of it.

SPHÆNOIDAL SUTURE. *Sutura sphenoidalis*. The sphænoideal and ethmoidal sutures are those which surround the many irregular processes of these two bones, and join them to each other and to the rest.

SPHÆNO - SALPINGO - STAPHILINUS. See *Circumflexus*.

SPHÆNO - STAPHILINUS. See *Levator palati*.

SPHINCTER, (*Sphincter, eris, m.*

σφικτήρ, from σφίγω, to shut up). The name of several muscles, whose office is to shut or close the aperture around which they are placed.

SPHINCTER ANI. *Sphincter externus* of Albinus and Douglas. *Sphincter cutaneus* of Winslow. A single muscle of the anus, which shuts the passage through the anus into the rectum, and pulls down the bulb of the urethra, by which it assists in ejecting the urine and semen. It arises from the skin and fat that surround the verge of the anus on both sides, near as far as the tuberosity of the ischium; the fibres are gradually collected into an oval form, and surround the extremity of the rectum. It is inserted by a narrow point into the perineum, acceleratores urinæ, and transversî perinei; and behind into the extremity of the os coccygis, by an acute termination.

SPHINCTER ANI CUTANÆUS. See *Sphincter ani*.

SPHINCTER ANI EXTERNUS. See *Sphincter ani*.

SPHINCTER ANI INTERNUS. Albinus and Douglas call the circular fibres of the muscular coat of the rectum which surround its extremity by this name.

SPHINCTER LABIÖRUM. See *Orbicularis oris*.

SPHINCTER ORIS. See *Orbicularis oris*.

SPHINCTER VAGINÆ. A muscle which contracts the mouth of the vagina, and compresses its corpus cavernosum.

SPHINCTER VESICÆ. *Constrictor cunni* of Albinus. *Second muscle of the clitoris* of Douglas. This muscle arises from the sphincter ani and from the posterior side of the vagina near the perineum; from thence it runs up the side of the vagina, near its external orifice, opposite to the nymphæ, covers the corpus cavernosum, and is inserted into the crus

and body or union of the crura clitoridis. Its use is to contract the mouth of the vagina.

SPHONDYLÏUM, (*Sphondylium*, *z*, *n*. σπονδυλίον, from σπονδυλος, vertebra named from the shape of its root; or probably because it was used against the bite of a serpent, called σπονδυλισ.) This is supposed to be the branekurfine. See *Banca ursina*.

SPICA, (*Spica*, *a*, *f*.). An ear of corn.

SPICA CELTICA. See *Nardus celtica*.

SPICA INDICA. See *Nardus indica*.

SPICA NARDI. See *Nardus indica*.

SPIGELIA, (*Spigelia*, *a*, *f*. from *spica*, an ear of corn; so called from its spicated top). The *Spigelia anthelmia*, *caule herbaceo foliis summis quaternis* of Linnæus is the plant directed as an anthelmintic by this name, its virtues are very similar to those of the Indian pink. See *Spigelia marilandica*.

SPIGELIA ANTHELMIA. The systematic name of the spigelia of some pharmacopœias. See *Spigelia*.

SPIGELIA LONICERA. See *Spigelia marilandica*.

SPIGELIA MARILANDICA, (*Spigelia*, *a*, *f*. from *spica*, an ear of corn; so called from its spicated top). *Spigelia lonicera*. Perennial worm-grass, or Indian pink. *Spigelia marilandica* of Linnæus. *Spigelia caule tetragono, foliis omnibus oppositis*. Class *Pentandria*. Order *Monogynia*. The whole of this plant, but most commonly the root, is employed as an anthelmintic by the Indians and inhabitants of America Dr. Hope has writted in favour of this plant, in continued and remitting low worm fevers; besides its property of destroying the worms in the primæ viæ, it acts as a purgative.

SPIGELIAN LOBE. See *Liber*.

SPIGNEL. See *Meum athamanticum*.

SPIKE. See *Nardus indica*.

SPIKENARD. See *Nardus indica*.

SPILANTHUS ACMELLA. The systematic name of the balm leaved pilanthus which, possesses a bitter taste and a fragrant smell. The herb and seed are said to be diuretic and menagogue, and useful in dropsies, jaundice, fluor albus, and calculous complaints.

SPINA ACIDA. See *Berberis*.

SPINA BIFIDA. A tumour upon the spine of new born children immediately about the lower vertebræ of the loins, and upper parts of the sacrum; at first, it is of a dark blue colour; but in proportion as it increases in size, approaches nearer and nearer to the colour of the skin, becoming perfectly diaphanous.

From the surface of this tumour pellucid watery fluid sometimes exudes, and this circumstance has been noticed by different authors. It is always attended with a weakness, or, more properly speaking, a paralysis of the lower extremities. The opening of it rashly has proved quickly fatal to the child. Talpius, therefore, strongly dissuades us from attempting this operation. Acrel mentions a case where a nurse rashly opened a tumour, which, as she described, it was a blood bag on the back of the child at the time of its birth, its bigness equal to a hen's egg, in two hours after which the child died. From the dissection it appeared that the bladder laid in the middle of the os sacrum, and consisted of a coat, and some strong membrane, which proceed from a long fissure of the bones. The extremity of the spinal marrow lay bare, and the spinal duct, in the os sacrum, was uncommonly wide, and distended by the pressure of the waters. Upon

tracing it to the head, the brain was found nearly in its natural state, but the ventricles contained so much water that the infundibulum was quite distended with it, and the passage between the third and fourth ventricle was greatly enlarged.

He likewise takes notice of another case, where a child lived about eight years labouring under this complaint, during which time it seemed to enjoy tolerable health, though pale. Nothing seemed amiss in him, but such a degree of debility as rendered him incapable to stand on his legs.

The tumour, as in the former case, was in the middle of the os sacrum, of the bigness of a man's fist with little discolouring; and upon pressing it became less. When opened it was found full of water, and the coats were the same as in the former, but the separation of the bones was very considerable. The spinal marrow, under the tumour, was as small as a pack-thread, and rigid; but there were no morbid appearances in the brain.

SPINA CERVINA, (so called from its thorns resembling those of the stag). *Rhamnus catharticus*. *Spina insectoria*. *Cervispina*. Purging buckthorn. The fruit or berries of this shrub, *Rhamnus catharticus* of Linnæus (*Rhamnus spinis terminalibus floribus quadrifidis dioicis, foliis ovatis, caule erecto*. Class *Pentandria*. Order *Monogynia*.), have been long received into the materia medica: they contain a pulpy deep green juice, of a faint unpleasant smell, a bitterish, acrid, nauseous taste, which operate briskly by stool, producing thirst, dryness of the mouth and fauces, and severe gripings, unless some diluting liquor be drank plentifully after it: made into syrup, it is the officinal preparation, which at present is rarely prescribed except as a drastic purge.

SPINĀ INFECTORĪA. See *Spina cervina*.

SPINĀ VENTŌSA. A tumour arising from an internal caries of a bone. It most frequently occurs in the carpus and tarsus, and is known by a continual pain in the bone, and a red swelling of the skin, which has a spongy feel,

SPINACHĪA, See *Spinacia*.

SPINĀCĪA, (*Spinacia*, *a*, f. *σπινάκια* quasi *ισπινάκια*, from *ισπανία* Spain, whence it originally came, or from its spinous seed). *Spinachia*. Spinage. This plant *Spinacia oleracea* of Linnaeus is sometimes directed for medicinal purposes in the cure of phthisical complaints; made into a poultice, by boiling the leaves and adding some oil, it forms an excellent emollient. As an article of food it may be considered as similar to cabbage and other oleraceous plants. See *Brassica capitata*.

SPINĀCĪA OLERACĒA. The systematic name of spinage. See *Spinacia*.

SPINAL MARROW. See *Medulla spinalis*.

SPINALIS CERVICIS. This muscle, which is situated close to the vertebræ at the posterior part of the neck and upper part of the back, arises, by distinct tendons, from the transverse processes of the five or six uppermost vertebræ of the back, and, ascending obliquely under the complexus, is inserted, by small tendons, into the spinous processes of the sixth, fifth, fourth, third, and second vertebræ of the neck.

Its use is to extend the neck obliquely backwards.

SPINALIS DORSI. This is the name given by Albinus to a tendinous and fleshy mass, which is situated along the spinous processes of the back and the inner side of the longissimus dorsi.

It arises tendinous and fleshy from

the spinous processes of the uppermost vertebræ of the loins, and the lowermost ones of the back, and is inserted into the spinous processes of the nine uppermost vertebræ of the back.

Its use is to extend the vertebræ, and to assist in raising the spine.

SPINE, (*Spina*, *a*, f. from *spina*, thorn; so called from the spine-like processes of the vertebræ). *Spina dorsī*. *Columna spinalis*. *Columna vertebralis*. A bony column or pillar extending in the posterior part of the trunk from the great occipital foramen to the sacrum. It is composed of twenty-four bones called vertebræ. The cavity that runs down the middle, and which contains the spinal marrow, is called the *specus* or *theca vertebralis*. See *Vertebræ*.

SPIRÆA, (*Spiræa*, *a*, f. from *spira* a pillar; so named from its spiral stalk). African meadow sweet.

SPIRĒA FILIPENDŪLA. The systematic name of the officinal dropwort. See *Filipendula*.

SPIRĒA ULMARIĀ. The systematic name of the meadow sweet. See *Ulmaria*.

SPIRĪTUS ÆTHĒRIS NITRŌSI. *Spiritus nitrosi dulcis*. A febrifuge, diaphoretic, and diuretic compound, mostly administered in asthma, nervous affections, dysuria, and calculous affections.

SPIRĪTUS ÆTHĒRIS VITRIOLICI. *Spiritus vitrioli dulcis*. A diaphoretic, antispasmodic, and tonic preparation mostly exhibited in nervous debility, and weakness of the primæ viæ.

SPIRĪTUS ÆTHĒRIS VITRIOLICI AROMATĪCUS. An excellent stimulating and stomachic compound, which is administered in debility of the stomach and nervous affections.

SPIRĪTUS ÆTHĒRIS VITRIOLICI COMPOSITUS. A stimulating anodyne supposed to be the celebrated *liquor mineralis anodynus* of Hoffman

It is exhibited in fevers, nervous affections, hysteria, &c. ; and in most cases of fever where medicines are rejected by the stomach, this is of infinite service.

SPIRĪTUS AMMONIÆ. *Spiritus salis ammoniaci dulcis* A stimulating antispasmodic exhibited in cases of asphyxia, asthenia, and in nervous diseases.

SPIRĪTUS AMMONIÆ COMPOSITUS. *Sal volatile liquidus.* A stimulating antispasmodic and sudorific in very general use to smell at in faintings and lowness of spirits. It is exhibited internally in nervous affections, hysteria, and weakness of the stomach.

SPIRĪTUS AMMONIÆ FETĪDUS. *Spiritus volatilis fetidus* A stimulating antispasmodic, often exhibited to children against convulsions, and to gouty and asthmatic persons.

SPIRĪTUS AMMONIÆ SUCCINATUS. *Eau de luce. Spiritus salis ammoniacæ succinatus. Liquor cornu cervi succinatus.* This preparation is nothing more than a compound succinate of ammoniac, and therefore termed *succinus ammoniacæ* in the new chemical nomenclature. It is much esteemed as a stimulant and nervine medicine, and is employed internally and externally against spasms, hysteria, syncope, vertigo, and the stings of insects.

SPIRĪTUS ANĪSI COMPOSITUS. A stimulating carminative and stomachic calculated to relieve flatulency, borborygmus, colic, and spasmodic affections of the bowels.

SPIRĪTUS CAMPHORATUS. A stimulating medicine only used as an external application against chilbains, rheumatism, palsy, numbness, and gangrene.

SPIRĪTUS CARICI. This possesses the virtues of the carraway, and is mostly given as a dram or in conjunction with other carminatives.

SPIRĪTUS CINNAMOMI. Spirit of cinnamon is mostly used in conjunction with other carminatives to give a pleasant flavour ; it may be exhibited alone as a carminative and stimulant.

SPIRĪTUS CORNU CERVI. liquid carbonate of ammoniac. See *Liquor volatilis cornu cervi.*

SPIRĪTUS EBŌRIS. A liquid carbonate of ammoniac ; it possesses similar virtues to the hartshorn. See *Liquor volatilis cornu cervi* and *Ammonia preparata.*

SPIRĪTUS LAVENDULE. Though mostly used as a perfume, this spirit may be given internally as a stimulating nervine and antispasmodic.

SPIRĪTUS LAVENDULE COMPOSITUS. An elegant and useful antispasmodic, and stimulant in very general use against nervous diseases, lowness of spirits, and weakness of the stomach, taken on a lump of sugar.

SPIRĪTUS LUMBRICŌRUM. The spirit obtained by the distillation of the earthworm is similar to hartshorn.

SPIRĪTUS MENTHÆ PIPERITIDIS. This possesses all the properties of the peppermint with the stimulating virtues of the spirit.

SPIRĪTUS MENTHÆ SATIVÆ. This is most commonly added to carminative or antispasmodic draughts and seldom exhibited alone.

SPIRĪTUS MILLEPEDARUM. A fluid volatile alkali, whose virtues are similar to hartshorn.

SPIRĪTUS MYNDERERI. See *Aqua ammoniæ acclata.*

SPIRĪTUS MYRISTICÆ. A stimulating and agreeable spirit possessing the virtues of the nutmeg.

SPIRĪTUS NITRI DULCIS. See *Spiritus atheris nitrosi.*

SPIRĪTUS NITRI DUPLEX. The nitrous acid. See *Acidum nitrosum.*

SPIRĪTUS NITRI FUMANS. See *Acidum nitrosum.*

SPIRĪTUS NITRI GLAUBĒRI. See *Acidum nitrosum*.

SPIRĪTUS NITRI SIMPLEX. The dilute nitrous acid. See *Acidum nitrosum dilutum*.

SPIRĪTUS NITRI VULGĀRIS. This is now called *acidum nitrosum dilutum*. See *Acidum nitrosum dilutum*.

SPIRĪTUS PIMENTO. A stimulating aromatic tincture mostly employed with adstringent and carminative medicines.

SPIRĪTUS PULEGII. This is in very general use as an emmenagogue amongst the lower orders. It possesses nervine and carminative virtues.

SPIRĪTUS RĀPHĀNI COMPOSITUS. A very warm stimulating compound given in gouty, rheumatic, and spasmodic affections of the stomach and in scorbutic disorders.

SPIRĪTUS RŌRISMARTNI. A very fragrant spirit mostly employed for external purposes in conjunction with other resolvents.

SPIRĪTUS SALIS AMMONIACI AQUŌSUS. See *Aqua ammoniac*.

SPIRĪTUS SALIS AMMONIACI DULCIS. See *Spiritus ammoniac*.

SPIRĪTUS SALIS AMMONIACI SIMPLEX. See *Aqua ammoniac*.

SPIRĪTUS SALIS GLAUBĒRI. See *Acidum muriaticum*.

SPIRĪTUS SALIS MARĪNI. See *Acidum muriaticum*.

SPIRĪTUS VINŌSUS RECTIFICATUS. Rectified spirit of wine is in general use to dissolve resinous and other medicines. It is seldom exhibited internally, though it exists in the diluted state in all vinous and spirituous liquors.

SPIRĪTUS VINŌSUS TENUIOR. Proof spirit, which is half the strength of rectified, is much employed for preparing tinctures of genuine resinous juices, barks, roots, &c.

SPIRĪTUS VITRIOLI. See *Acidum vitriolicum dilutum*.

SPIRĪTUS VITRIOLI DULCIS. See *Spiritus aetheris vitriolici*.

SPIRĪTUS VOLATILIS FŒTĪDUS. See *Spiritus ammoniac fatidus*.

SPITTING OF BLOOD. See *Hæmatemesis* and *hæmoptysis*.

SPLANCHNOLOGY, (*Splanchnologia*, *a*, *f*. *επλανχνολογία* from *επλανχρον* an entrail and *λογος*, a discourse). The doctrine of the viscera.

SPLANCHNIC NERVE. The interior intercostal nerve. See *Intercostal nerve*.

SPLEEN, (*Splen*, *enis*, *m*. *επλν*). *Lien*. The spleen or milt is a spongy viscus of a livid colour, and so variable in form, situation, and magnitude, that it is hard to determine either. Nevertheless, in a healthy man it is always placed on the left side, in the left hypocondrium, between the eleventh and twelfth false ribs. Its circumference is oblong and round, resembling an oval figure. It is larger, to speak generally, when the stomach is empty, and smaller when it is compressed evacuated by a full stomach.

It should particularly be remembered of this viscus, that it is convex towards the ribs, and concave internally: also, that it has an excavation, into which vessels are inserted.

It is connected with the following parts:

1. With the stomach, by a ligament and short vessels.
2. With the omentum, and the left kidney.
3. With the diaphragm, by a portion of the peritonæum.
4. With the beginning of the pancreas, by vessels.
5. With the colon, by a ligament.

In man the spleen is covered with one simple, firm membrane, arising from the peritonæum, which adheres to the spleen, very firmly, by the intervention of cellular structure.

The vessels of the spleen are, the splenic artery coming from the celiac artery, which, considering the size of the spleen, is much larger than is requisite for the mere nutrition of it.

This goes by serpentine movements, out of its course, over the pancreas, and behind the stomach, and after having given off branches to the adjacent parts, it is inserted into the concave surface of the spleen. It is afterwards divided into smaller branches, which are again divided into other yet smaller, delivering their blood immediately to the veins, but emitting it no where else. The veins, at length, come together into one, called the splenic vein, and having received the large coronary vein of the stomach, besides others, it constitutes the left principal branch of the vena portæ.

The nerves of the spleen are small; they surround the arteries with their branches; they come from the particular plexus, which is formed of the posterior branches of the eighth pair, and the great intercostal nerve.

Lymphatic vessels are almost only seen creeping along the surface of the human spleen.

The use of spleen has not hitherto been determined; yet if its situation and fabric be regarded, one would imagine its use to consist chiefly in retaining the blood for some space of time, dissolving it by its warmth and rendering it more fluid.

SPLEENWORT. See *Ceterach*.

SPLENĪTIS, (*Splenitis*, *īdis*, f. *σπληνιτις*, from *σπλην*, the spleen). Inflammation of the spleen. A genus of disease in the class *pyrexia* and order *phlegmasia* of Cullen; characterized by pyrexia, tension, heat, tumour, and pain in the left hypochondrium, increased by pressure. This disease, according to Juncker, comes on with a remarkable shivering, succeeded by a most intense

heat, and very great thirst; a pain and tumor are perceived in the left hypochondrium, and the paroxysms for the most part assume a quartan form, when the patients expose themselves for a little to the free air, their extremities immediately grow very cold. If an hæmorrhagy happen the blood flows out of the left nostril. The other symptoms are the same with those of the hepatitis. Like the liver, the spleen often is also subject to a chronic inflammation which often happens after agues, and is called the ague cake, though that name is also frequently given to a scirrhus tumor of the liver succeeding intermittents. The causes of this disease are in general the same with those of other inflammatory disorders; but those which determine the inflammation to that particular part more than another, are very much unknown. It attacks persons of a very plethoric and sanguine habit of body rather than others.

SPLENIUS, (*σπληνιος*; from *σπλην*, the spleen; so named from its resemblance in shape to the spleen or according to some it derives its name from *splenium*, a *ferula*, or splint, which surgeons apply to the sides of a fractured bone). The splenius is a flat, broad, and oblong muscle, in part covered by the upper part of the trapezius, and obliquely situated between the back of the ear, and the lower and posterior part of the neck.

It arises tendinous from the four or five superior spinous processes of the dorsal vertebræ; tendinous and fleshy from the last of the neck, and tendinous from the ligamentum colli, or rather the tendons of the two splenii unite here inseparably; but about the second or third vertebra of the neck they recede from each other, so that part of the complexus may be seen.

It is inserted, by two distinct tendons, into the transverse processes of the two first vertebræ of the neck, sending off some few fibres to the complexus and levator scapulæ; tendinous and fleshy into the upper and posterior part of the mastoid process, and into a ridge on the occipital bone, where it joins with the root of that process.

This muscle may easily be separated into two parts. Eustachius and Fallopius were aware of this; Winslow has distinguished them into the *superior* and *inferior* portions; and Albinus has described them as two distinct muscles, calling that part which is inserted into the mastoid process and os occipitis, *splenius capitis*, and that which is inserted into the vertebræ of the neck, *splenius colli*. We have here followed Douglas, and the generality of writers, in describing these two portions as one muscle, especially as they are intimately united near their origin.

When this muscle acts singly, it draws the head and upper vertebræ of the neck obliquely backwards; when both act, they pull the head directly backwards.

SPLENOCELE, (*Splenocèle*, *es*, *f.* *σπληνοκηλη*; from *σπλην*, the spleen, and *κηλη*, a tumour). A rupture of the spleen.

SPONGE. See *Spongia*.

SPONGIA, (*Spongia*, *æ*, *f.* *σπογγία*, or *σπομτια*). Sponge. A sea production. The *Spongia officinalis* of Linnaeus; the habitation of insects. Burnt sponge is said to cure effectually the bronchocele, and to be of infinite utility in scrophulous complaints. Sponge tents are employed by surgeons to dilate fistulous ulcers, &c.

SPONGIA OFFICINALIS. The systematic name of the sponge. See *Spongia*.

SPONGIA USTA. Burnt sponge. This preparation is exhibited with bark in the cure of scrophulous com-

plaints, and forms the basis of a lozenge which has been known to cure the bronchocele in many instances.

SPORADIC, (*Σποραδικος*; from *σπειρω*, to sow). An epithet for such diseases as seize particular persons, at the same time or season.

SPOTTED LUNGWORT. See *Pulmonaria*.

SPURGE FLAX. See *Thymalæa*.

SPURGE LAUREL. See *Laureola*.

SPURGE OLIVE. See *Meze-reum*.

SPRAIN. See *Subluxatio*.

SQUAMOSE SUTURE, (*Sutura squamosa*, from *squama*, a scale; because the bones lie over each other like scales). The suture which unites the squamose portion of the temporal bone with the parietal.

SQUILL. See *Scilla*.

SQUILLA. See *Scilla*.

SQUINANTHUS, (*Squinanthus*, *i.* from *squinanthia*, the quincey; so named from its uses in the quincey). The sweet rush was once so called. See *Juncus odoratus*.

STANNI PULVIS. Tin finely filed is exhibited internally as a vermifuge.

STANNUM, (*Stannum*, *i. n.*). See *Tin*.

STAPEDIUS, (*Stapedius*, *sc. musculus*; from *stapes*, one of the bones of the ear). *Stapedæus* of Douglas. *Musculus stapedis* of Winslow. A muscle of the internal ear, which draws the stapes obliquely upwards towards the cavern, by which the posterior part of its base is moved inwards, and the anterior part outwards.

STAPES, (*Stapes*, *edis*, *m. in quo pes stat*). A bone of the internal ear, so called from its resemblance to a stirrup.

STAPHYLINUS EXTERNUS. See *Circumflexus*.

STAPHISAGRIA, (*Staphisagria*, *æ*.

radix aspera, wild vine; from the resemblance of its leaves to those of the vine). *Staphys. Pedicularia*, Staves acre. *Delphinium staphisagria* of Linnæus. *Delphinium nectariis tetraphyllis petalo brevioribus, foliis palmatis, lobis obtusis*. Class *Polyandria*. Order *Trigynia*. The seeds, which are the only part directed for medicinal use, are usually imported here from Italy; they are large, rough, of an irregular triangular figure, and of a blackish colour on the outside, but yellowish within; their smell is disagreeable, and somewhat fetid; to the taste they are very bitter, acrid, and nauseous. It was formerly employed as a masticatory, but is now confined to external use in some kinds of cutaneous eruptions, but more especially for destroying lice and other insects; hence by the vulgar it is called louse-wort.

STAPHYLINUS, (*Staphilin*, *sc. musculus*, *σταφυλινος*; from *σταφυλη*, the uvula). *Azygos uvulae*. *Epistaphylinus*. *Palato-staphylinus*. An azygos muscle of the uvula: it arises fleshy from the extremity of the suture which joins the palate bones, runs down the whole length of the velum pendulumpalati, and uvula, resembling an earth worm, and adhering to the tendons of the circumflexi; is inserted into the tip of the uvula, which, by contracting, it raises upwards, and forwards and shortens it.

STAPIDEUS. See *Stapedius*.

STAPHYLOMA, (*Staphyloma*, *ατис*, *σταφυλωμα*; from *σταφυλη*, a grape). A disease of the cornea of the eye, in which this membrane acquires a preternatural thickness and opacity in its substance. The proximate cause is an effusion of thick humor between the lamellæ of the cornea, so that the internal and external superficies of the cornea, very much protuberates. The remote causes are, an habitual ophthalmia, great contusion, and frequently a deposition

of the variolous humor in the small-pox. The species are; 1st. *Staphyloma totale*, which occupies the whole transparent cornea; this is the most frequent species. The symptoms are, the opaque cornea protuberates, and if in the form of a cone increasing in magnitude, it pushes out and inverts the lower eyelid; and sometimes the morbid cornea is so elongated, as to lay on the cheek, causing friction and excoriation. The bulb of the eye being exposed to the air, sordes generate, the inferior palpebra is irritated by the cilia, and very painful red and small papillæ are observable. 2nd. *Staphyloma racemosum*, is a staphyloma formed by carnosous tubercles, about the size of a small pin's head. 3rd. *Staphyloma partiale*, which occupies some part of the cornea: it exhibits an opaque tumor prominent from the cornea, similar to a small blueish grape. 4th. *Staphyloma sclerotica*, is a bluish tumor attached to some part of the sclerotica, but arising from the tunica albuginea. 5th. *Staphyloma pellucidum*, in which the cornea is not thickened or increased, but very much extended and pellucid. 6th. *Staphyloma complicatum*, which is complicated with an ulcer, ectropium, caruncles, or any other disorder of the eye. 7th. *Staphyloma iridis*. For this species see *Ptochis iridis*.

STARCH, *Amylum*. The fecula of wheaten flour. See *Amylum*.

Starch is one of the constituent parts in all mealy farinaceous seeds, fruits, roots, and other parts of plants. Of these the feculæ of the ancients for medicinal use are an example. They are mere starch; as for instance the fecula of wake robin, (*radix ari. aronis*); of bryony (*bryonia alba*); the starch of potatoes; (*Solanum tuberosum*); of sago, from the pitch of the palm landanum; the cassava of the Americans, from the manioc root (*jatropha manicot*).

The salep roots, from a species of orchis consists for the greatest part of starch. Our common starch is made from wheat. It is not necessary that the grain be first bruised in mills. The entire corn, well cleansed, is soaked in cold water until the husk separates; and the grains, having become quite soft, give out by pressure a milky fluid. The grains are then taken out of the water by means of a sieve, put into a coarse linen sack, and transferred into the treading tub; where they are trodden, after cold water has been poured upon them.

By this operation the starchy part is washed out, and mingling with the water makes it milky. The water is now drawn off, running through a sieve into the settling tub. Fresh water is again effused upon the grains, and the same operation is continued, till the water in the treading tub is no longer rendered milky. The starch here precipitates by repose from the water that held it suspended; during which, especially in a warm season, the mucilaginous saccharine matter of the flour, that was dissolved by the water, goes into the acetous fermentation. From this cause the starch grows still purer and whiter. The water is next let off from the starch, which is several times more washed with clear fresh water; the remaining part of which is suffered to drip through linen cloths supported by hurdles, upon which the wet starch is placed. When the starch has fully subsided, it is wrapt in, wrung between these cloths, or pressed, to extort still more of the remaining liquid.

It is afterwards cut into pieces, which are laid in airy places on slightly burnt bricks to be completely dried, partly by the free currency of air, and partly by the bricks imbibing their moisture. Lastly, the outer crust is scraped off, and they are broken into smaller pieces.

In the sacks wherein the corn was trodden there remain its husks and glutinous parts; and this residuum is employed as food for cattle.

STATICE, (*Statice*, es. f. *στατική*; from *σταίω*, to stop, so named from its supposed property of restraining hæmorrhages). The herb Sea-thrift.

STATICE LIMONIUM. The systematic name of the thrift or sea frisk. See *Behen rubrum*.

STAVESCRE. See *Staphisagria*.

STEATOCÈLE, (*Steatocele*, es, f. *στατοκῆλη*; from *σταε*, fuet, and *κῆλη*, a tumor). A collection of a suetty substance in the scrotum.

STEATOMA, (*Steatoma*, atis, n. *στατωμα*; from *σταε*, fuet). An encysted tumor, whose contents are of a suetty consistence.

STEEL. *Chalybs*. The best, hardest, finest, and closest grained iron, combined with carbon by a particular process.

STELOCHITES. See *Osteocolla*.

STEMLESS MILKVETCH. See *Astragalus excapus*.

STERNO. Names compounded of this word belong to muscles which are attached to the sternum; as,

STERNO - CLEIDO HYOIDEUS. See *Sterno-hyoideus*.

STERNO - CLEIDO MASTOIDÆUS. *Sterno-mastloideus* and *Cleido-mastloideus* of Albinus. *Mastloideus* of Winslow. A muscle, on the anterior and lateral part of the neck, which turns the head to one side and bends it forward. It arises by two distinct origins; the anterior tendinous and fleshy, from the top of the sternum near the junction with the clavicle; the posterior fleshy, from the upper and anterior part of the clavicle; both unite a little above the anterior articulation of the clavicle, to form one muscle, which runs obliquely upwards and outwards to be inserted, by a thick strong tendon, into the mastoid pro-

cess of the temporal bone, which it surrounds; and gradually becoming thinner, is inserted as far back as the lambdoidal future.

STERNO COSTALES. Vesalius considered these as forming a single muscle on each side, of a triangular shape; hence we find the name of *triangularis* adopted by Douglas and Albinus; but Verheyen, who first taught that they ought to be described as four or five distinct muscles, gave them the name of *sterno costales*; and in this he is very properly followed by Winslow, Haller, and Lieutaud.

These muscles are situated at each side of the under surface of the sternum, upon the cartilages of the third, fourth, fifth, and sixth ribs. Their number varies in different subjects; very often there are only three, sometimes five, and even six, but most usually we find only four.

The lowermost of the *sterno costales*, or what would be called the inferior portion of the *triangularis*, arises tendinous and fleshy from the edge and inner surface of the lower part of the cartilago ensiformis, where its fibres intermix with those of the diaphragm and transversalis abdominis. Its fibres run nearly in a transverse direction, and are inserted, by a broad thin tendon, into the inner surface of the cartilage of the sixth rib, and lower edge of that of the fifth.

The second and largest of the *sterno costales*, arises tendinous from the cartilago ensiformis and lower part of the sternum, laterally, and, running a little obliquely outwards, is inserted into the lower edge of the cartilage of the fifth, and sometimes of the fourth rib.

The third arises tendinous from the sides of the middle part of the sternum, near the cartilages of the fourth and fifth ribs, and, ascending obliquely outwards, is inserted

into the cartilage of the third rib.

The fourth and uppermost, which is the most frequently wanting, arises tendinous from the beginning of the cartilage of the third rib and the adjacent part of the sternum, and running almost perpendicularly upwards, is inserted by a thin tendon (which covers a part of the second internal intercostal), into the cartilage and beginning of the bony part of the second rib.

All these muscles are more or less intermixed with one another at their origin, and this probably occasioned them to be considered as one muscle. Fallopius informs us, that the plate Vesalius has given of them was taken from a dog, in which animal they are much larger than in man. Douglas has endeavoured to account for this difference, but his explanation is far from being satisfactory.

STERNO HYOIDÆUS. As this muscle arises from the clavicle, as well as from the sternum, Winslow calls it *sterno-cleido-hyoideus*. It is a long, flat, and thin muscle, situated obliquely between the sternum and os hyoides, behind the lower part of the mastoideus, and covering the *sterno-thyroideus* and the *hyo-thyroideus*. It arises, by very short tendinous fibres, from the cartilaginous part of the first rib, from the upper and inner part of the sternum, from the capsular ligament that connects that bone with the clavicle, and commonly from a small part of the clavicle itself; from thence, ascending along the anterior and lateral part of the neck, we see it united to its fellow, opposite to the inferior part of the larynx, by means of a thin membrane, which forms a kind of *linea alba*. After this the two muscles separate again, and each passing over the side of the thyroid cartilage, is inserted into the basis of

the os hyoides, immediately behind the insertion of the last described muscle.

Its use is to draw the os hyoides downwards.

STERNO MASTOIDÆUS. See *Sterno-cleido-mastoideus*.

STERNO THYROIDÆUS, (*musculus sterno-thyroideus*). This is flat and thin, like the preceding muscle, but longer and broader. It is situated at the fore part of the neck, between the sternum and thyroid cartilage, and behind the sterno hyoidæus. It arises broad and fleshy from the upper and inner part of the sternum, between the cartilages of the first and second ribs, from each of which it receives some few fibres, as well as from the clavicle, where it joins with the sternum. From thence, growing somewhat narrower, it ascends, and, passing over the thyroid gland and the cricoid cartilage, is inserted tendinous into the lower and posterior edge of the rough line of the thyroid cartilage, immediately under the insertion of the last described muscle. Now and then a few of its fibres pass on to the os hyoides. Its use is to draw the thyroid cartilage, and consequently the larynx, downwards.

STERNUM, (*Sternum, i. n.*). The breast-bone. The sternum, os pectoris, or breast-bone, is the oblong, flat bone, placed at the fore part of the thorax. The ossification of this bone in the fœtus beginning from many different points at the same time, we find it, in young subjects, composed of several bones united by cartilages; but as we advance in life, most of these cartilages ossify, and the sternum, in the adult state, is found to consist of three, and sometimes only of two pieces, the two lower portions being united into one; and very often, in old subjects, the whole is formed into one bone. But, even in the latter case, we may still observe the marks of its former divi-

sions; so that, in describing the bone, we may very properly divide it into its upper, middle, and inferior portions.

The upper portion forms an irregular square, which, without much reason, has, by many writers, been compared to the figure of a heart as it is painted on cards. It is of considerable thickness, especially at its upper part. Its anterior surface is irregular, and slightly convex; posteriorly, it is somewhat concave. Its upper middle part is hollowed, to make way for the trachea arteria. On each side, superiorly, we observe an oblong articulating surface, covered with cartilage in the recent subject, for receiving the ends of the clavicles. Immediately below this, on each side, the bone becomes thinner, and we observe a rough surface for receiving the cartilage of the first rib, and, almost close to the inferior edge of this, we find the half of such another surface, which, combined with a similar surface in the middle portion of the sternum, serves for the articulation of the cartilage of the second rib.

The middle portion is much longer, narrower, and thinner than the former; but is somewhat broader and thinner below than above, where it is connected with the upper portion. The whole of its anterior surface is slightly convex, and within it is slightly concave. Its edge, on each side, affords four articulating surfaces, for the third, fourth, fifth, and sixth ribs; and parts of articulating surfaces at its upper and lower parts, for the second and seventh ribs. About the middle of this portion of the sternum we sometimes find a considerable hole, large enough in some subjects to admit the end of the little finger. Sylvius seems to have been the first who described it. Riolanus and some others after him have, without reason, supposed it to be more

frequent in women than in men. In the recent subject it is closed by a cartilaginous substance; and, as it does not seem destined for the transmission of vessels, as some writers have asserted, we may, perhaps very properly, with M. Hunauld, consider it as an accidental circumstance, occasioned by an interruption of the ossification, before the whole of this part of the bone is completely ossified.

The third and inferior portion of the sternum is separated from the former by a line, which is seldom altogether obliterated, even in the oldest subjects. It is smaller than the other parts of the bone, and descends between the ribs, so as to have been considered as an appendix to the rest of the sternum. From its shape, and its being constantly in a state of cartilage in young subjects, it has been commonly named *cartilago xiphoides, ensiformis*, or sword-like cartilage; though many of the ancients gave the name of xiphoides to the whole sternum; comparing the two first bones to the handle, and this appendix to the blade of the sword. The shape of this appendix varies in different subjects; in some it is longer and more pointed, in others shorter and more obtuse! Vessingius has seen it reaching as low as the navel, and incommoding the motion of the trunk forwards. In general it terminates obtusely, or in a single point; sometimes, however, it is bifurcated, and Eustachius and Haller have seen it trifid. Very often we find it perforated, for the transmission of branches of the mammary artery. In the adult it is usually ossified and tipped with cartilage, but it very often continues cartilaginous through life, and Haller once found it in this state in a woman who died in her hundredth year.

The substance of the sternum, internally, is of a light, spongy tex-

ture, covered externally with a thin bony plate; hence it happens that this bone is easily fractured. From the description we have given of it, its uses may be easily understood. We have seen it serving for the articulation of seven true ribs on each side, and hence we shall find it of considerable use in respiration. We likewise observed, that it is articulated with each of the clavicles. It serves for the origin and insertion of several muscles; it supports the mediastinum; and lastly, defends the heart and lungs: and it is observable, that we find a similar bone in almost all animals that have lungs, and even in such as have no ribs, of which latter we have an instance in the frog.

STERNUTAMENTORIA. See *Plar-mica*.

STERTOR, (*Stertor, oris, m.*). A noisy kind of respiration as is observed in apoplexy. A snoring or snorting.

STIBIUM, (*Stibium i. n.*). An ancient name of antimony. See *Antimonium*.

STIGMA, (*stigma, atis, n.*). A small red speck in the skin, occasioning no elevation of the cuticle. Stigmata are generally distinct or apart from each other. They sometimes assume a livid colour and are then termed *petechiae*.

STIMULANTS, (*Stimulantia, &c. medicamenta*, from *stimulo*, to stir up). Medicines are so termed which possess a power of exciting the animal energy. They are divided into, 1. *Stimulantia tonica*, as *sinapi, cantharides, mercurii preparationes*. 2. *Stimulantia defussibilia*, as *alkali volatile, electricity, heat, &c.* 3. *Stimulantia cardiaca*, as *cinnamomum, nuxmoschata, wine, &c.*

STIMULUS, (*Stimulus, i, m.*). Any thing which irritates.

STINKING LETTUCE. See *Lactuca gravecolens*.

STIZOLOBIUM- The cowage is sometimes so called. See *Dolichos*.

STOECHAS, (*Stachas*, *στοιχας*; from *στοιχαις*, the islands on which it grew). French lavender.

STOECHAS ARABICA. French lavender. *Lavendula stachas* of Linnaeus. This plant is much less grateful in smell and flavour than the common lavender to which it is allied in its properties.

STOECHAS CITRINA. See *Elichrysum*.

STOMACACE, (*Stomacace*, *es*, f. *στομακικη*; from *στομα*, the mouth, and *κακος*, evil). A fetor in the mouth with a bloody discharge from the gums.

STOMACH. *Ventriculus*. A membranous receptacle, situated in the epigastric region, which receives the food from the œsophagus; its figure is somewhat oblong and round: it is largest on the left side, and gradually diminishes towards its lower orifice, where it is the least. Its superior orifice, where the œsophagus terminates, is called the *cardia*; the inferior orifice, where the intestine begins, the *pylorus*. The anterior surface is turned towards the abdominal muscles, and the posterior opposite the lumbar vertebræ. It has two curvatures: the first is called the great curvature of the stomach, and extends downwards from one orifice to the other, having the omentum adhering to it: the second is the small curvature, which is also between both orifices, but superiorly and posteriorly. The stomach, like the intestinal canal, is composed of three coats or membranes: 1. The *outermost*, which is very firm and from the peritonæum: 2. The *muscular*, which is very thick, and composed of various muscular fibres: and, 3. The *innermost* or *villosus coat*, which is covered with exhaling and inhaling vessels, and mucus. These coats are connected together by cellular membrane. The glands

of the stomach which separate the mucus, are situated between the villosus and muscular coat, in the cellular structure. The arteries of the stomach come chiefly from the cœliac artery, and are distinguished into the coronary, gastro-epiploic, and short arteries; they are accompanied by veins which have similar names, and which terminate in the vena portæ. The nerves of the stomach are very numerous, and come from the eighth pair and intercostal nerves. The lymphatic vessels are distributed throughout the whole substance, and proceed immediately to the thoracic duct. The use of the stomach is to excite hunger and partly thirst, to receive the food from the œsophagus, and to retain it, till by the motion of the stomach, the admixture of various fluids, and many other changes, it is rendered fit to pass the right orifice of the stomach, and afford chyle to the intestines.

STOMACH, INFLAMMATION OF, See *Gastritis*.

STOMACHICS, (*Stomachia*, f. *medicamenta*, from *στομαχος*, the stomach). Medicines which excite and strengthen the action of the stomach.

STONE. See *Calculus*.

STONECROSS. See *Illecebra*.

STORAX, (*Storax*, *acis*, f. *στοραξ*). See *Syrax*.

STORAX LIQUID. See *Liquidambra*.

STORAX LIQUIDA. See *Liquidambra*.

STORAX WHITE. See *Balsamum peruvianum*.

STRABISMUS, (*Strabismus*, i, m. *σπασμοσ*, from *σπασιζε*, to squint). Squinting. An affection of the eye, by which the person sees objects in an oblique manner, from the axis of vision being distorted. Cullen arranges this disease in the class *locales* and order *dyscinesie*.

STRAMMONIUM. See *Stramonium*.

STRAMŌNIUM, (*Stramonium*, i, n. from *stramen*, straw; so called from its fibrous roots). Common thorn-apple. *Datura stramonium* of Linnaeus. *Datura pericarpis spinosis erectis ovatis, foliis ovatis glabris*. Class *Pentandria*. Order *Monogynia*. This plant has been long known as a powerful narcotic poison. In its recent state it has a bitterish taste, and a smell somewhat resembling that of poppies, especially if the leaves be rubbed between the fingers. Instances of the deleterious effects of the plant are numerous, more particularly of the seed. An extract prepared from the seeds is recommended by Baron Stoerck in maniacal, epileptic, and convulsive affections. Externally the leaves of stramonium have been applied to inflammatory tumors and burns, and it is said with success.

STRANGURY, (*Stranguria*, æ, f. *σπασμια*, from *σπασξ*, a drop, and *ουρ*, urine). A difficulty of making water, attended with pain and dripping.

STRATIŌTES, (*Stratiotes*, æ, m. *στρατιώτης*, from *στρατος*, an army, so named from its virtues in healing fresh wounds, and its usefulness to soldiers.) See *Millefolium*.

STRAWBERRY. See *Fragaria*.

STROPHULUS, (*Strophulus*, i, m.) A papulous eruption, peculiar to infants, and exhibiting a variety of forms, which are described by Dr. Willan, under the titles of *intertinctus*, *albidus*, *confertus*, *volaticus*, and *candidus*.

1. *Strophulus Intertinctus*, usually called the red gum, and by the French, *Efflorescence Benigne*. The papulæ characterizing this affection, rise sensibly above the level of the cuticle, are of a vivid red colour, and commonly distinct from each other. Their number and extent varies much in different cases. They appear most constantly on the cheeks,

fore-arm, and back of the hand, but are sometimes diffused over the whole body. The papulæ are, in many places, intermixed with stigmata, and often with red patches of a larger size, which do not, however, occasion any elevation of the cuticle. A child's skin thus variegated, somewhat resembles a piece of red printed linen; and hence this eruption was formerly called the *red gown*, a term which is still retained in several counties of England, and may be found in old dictionaries. Medical writers have changed the original word for one of a similar sound, but not more significant. The *Strophulus Intertinctus* has not, in general, any tendency to become pustular, a few small pustules containing a straw-coloured, watery fluid, occasionally appear on the back of the hand, but scarcely merit attention, as the fluid is always re-absorbed in a short time, without breaking the cuticle. The eruption usually terminates in scurf, or exfoliation of the cuticle; its duration, however, is very uncertain, the papulæ and spots sometimes remain for a length of time, without an obvious alteration, sometimes disappear and come out again daily; but, for the most part, one eruption of them succeeds another, at longer intervals, and with more regularity. This complaint occurs chiefly within the two first months of lactation. It is not always accompanied with, or preceded by any disorders of the constitution, but appears occasionally in the strongest and most healthy children. Some authors connect it with aphthous ulcerations common in children, supposing the latter to be a part of the same disease diffused along the internal surfaces of the mouth and intestines. The fact however seems to be, that the two affections alternate with each other; for those infants, who have the papulous eruption on the skin are less

liable to aphthæ; and when the aphthæ take place to a considerable degree, the skin is generally pale and free from eruption. The *Strophulus Intertinctus* is, by most writers, said to originate from an acidity, or acrimonious quality of the milk taken into a child's stomach, communicated afterwards to the blood, and stimulating the cutaneous excretories. This opinion might, without difficulty, be proved to have little foundation. The pre-disposition to the complaint may be deduced from the delicate and tender state of the skin, and from the strong determination of blood to the surface, which evidently takes place in infants. The papulous eruption is, in many cases, connected with a weak, irritable state of the alimentary canal, and consequent indigestion. For if it be, by any means suddenly repelled from the surface, diarrhea, vomiting, spasmodic affections of the bowels, and often general disturbance of the constitution succeed; but as soon as it reappears, those internal complaints are wholly suspended. Dr. Armstrong and others have particularly noted this reciprocation, which makes the red gum, at times, a disease of some importance, though in its usual form it is not thought to be in any respect dangerous. On their remarks a necessary caution is founded, not to expose infants to a stream of very cold air, nor to plunge them unseasonably in a cold bath. The most violent, and even fatal symptoms have often been the consequence of such imprudent conduct.

2. The *Strophulus Albidus*, by some termed the *white gum*, is merely a variety of *strophulus intertinctus*, but deserves some notice on account of the different appearance of its papulæ. In place of those described as characterizing the red gum, there is a number of minute, whitish specks, a little elevated, and sometimes,

though not constantly surrounded by a slight redness. These papulæ, when their tops are removed, do not discharge any fluid; it is however probable that they are originally formed by the deposition of a fluid, which afterwards concretes under the cuticle. They appear chiefly on the face, neck, and breast, and are more permanent than the papulæ of the red gum. In other respects they have the same nature and tendency, and require a similar plan of treatment. Although a distinctive name has been applied to this eruption, when occurring alone, yet it is proper to observe that in a great number of cases, there are red papulæ and spots intermixed with it, which prove its connexion with the *strophulus intertinctus*.

3. The *Strophulus Confertus*. An eruption of numerous papulæ, varying in their size, appears on different parts of the body in infants during dentition, and has thence been denominated the tooth rash: it is sometimes also termed, the *rank red gum*. About the fourth or fifth month after birth, and eruption of this kind usually takes place on the cheeks and sides of the nose, extending sometimes to the forehead and arms, but rarely to the trunk or body. The papulæ on the face are smaller, and set more closely together than in the red gum; their colour is not so vivid, but they are generally more permanent. They terminate at length with slight exfoliations of the cuticle, and often appear again in the same places, a short time afterwards. The papulæ which in this complaint occasionally appear on the back or loins are much larger and somewhat more distant from each other, than those on the face. They are often surrounded by an extensive circle of inflammation, and a few of them contain a semi-pellucid watery fluid.

which is re-absorbed when the inflammation subsides. In the seventh or eighth, the strophulus confertus assumes a somewhat different form: one or two large irregular patches appear on the arms, shoulder, or neck; in which the papulæ are hard, of a considerable size, and set so close together that the whole surface is of a high red colour. Most commonly the fore-arm is the seat of this eruption, the papulæ rising first on the back of the hand, and gradually extending upwards along the arm. Sometimes, however, the eruption commences at the elbow, and proceeds a little upwards and downwards on the outside of the arm. It arrives at its height in about a fortnight, the papulæ then begin to fade, and become flat at the top, afterwards the cuticle exfoliates from the part affected, which remains discoloured rough, and irregular, for a week or two longer.

An obstinate and very painful modification of this disease takes place, though not often, on the lower extremities. The papulæ spread from the calves of the legs to the thighs, nates, loins, and round the body as high as the navel: being very numerous and close together, they produce a continuous redness over all the parts above mentioned.

The cuticle presently however shrivelled, cracks in various places, and finally separates from the skin in large pieces. During this process a new cuticle is formed, notwithstanding which the complaint recurs in a short time, and goes through the same course as before. In this manner successive eruptions take place, during the course of three or four months, and perhaps do not cease till the child is one year old, or somewhat more. Children necessarily suffer great uneasiness from the heat and irritation occasioned by so extensive an eruption, yet, while they

are affected with it, they often remain free from any internal or febrile complaint. This appearance should be distinguished from the intertrigo of infants, which exhibits an uniform, red, smooth, shining surface, without papulæ; and which affects only the lower part of the nates and inside of the thighs, being produced by the stimulus of the urine, &c. with which the child's cloaths are almost constantly wetted. The strophulus confertus where the child is otherwise healthy, is generally ascribed to a state of indigestion, or some feverish complaint of the mother or nurse. Dr. Willan however asserts that he has more frequently seen the eruption, when no such cause was evident. It may with more probability, be considered as one of the numerous symptoms of irritation, arising from the inflamed and painful state of the gums in dentition: since it always occurs during that process, and disappears soon after the first teeth have cut the gums.

4. The *Strophulus Volaticus* is characterized by an appearance of small circular patches, or clusters of papulæ, arising successively on different parts of the body. The number of papulæ in each cluster is from six to twelve. Both the papulæ and their interstices are of a high red colour. These patches continue red with a little heat or itching, for about four days, when they turn brown, and begin to exfoliate. As one patch declines another appears at a small distance from it, and in this manner the complaint often spreads gradually over the face, body, and limbs, not terminating in less than three or four weeks. During that time the child has sometimes a quick pulse, a white tongue, and seems uneasy and fretful. In many cases, however, the eruption takes place without any symptoms of internal disorder. The above complaint has been by some

writers denominated *ignis volaticus Infantum* : under this title Astruc and Lorry have described one of the forms of *crusta lactea*, in which a successive eruption of pustules takes place on the same spot generally about the mouth or eyes, in children of different ages, and sometimes in adults. The *maculae volaticae infantum* mentioned by Wittichius, Sennertus, and Sebizeus, agree in some respect with the *strophulus volaticus*; but they are described by other German authors as a species of erysipelas, or as irregular efflorescences affecting the genitals of infants, and often proving fatal. The *strophulus volaticus* is a complaint by no means frequent. In most cases which have come under Dr. Willan's observation, it appeared between the third and sixth month; in one instance, however, it occurred about ten days after birth, and continued three weeks, being gradually diffused from the cheeks and forehead to the scalp, afterwards to the trunk of the body, and to the extremities, when the patches exfoliated a red surface was left, with slight border of detached cuticle.

5. *Strophulus Candidus*. In this form of *strophulus* the papulae are larger than in any of the foregoing species. They have no inflammation round their base; their surface is very smooth and shining, whence they appear to be of a lighter colour than the adjoining cuticle. They are diffused, at a considerable distance from each other, over the loins, shoulders, and upper part of the arms; in any other situation they are seldom found.

This eruption affects infants about a year old, and most commonly succeeds some of the acute diseases to which they are liable. Dr. Willan has observed it on their recovery from a catarrhal fever, and after inflammations of the bowels or lungs. The papulae continue hard and

elevated for about a week, then gradually subside and disappear.

STRŪMA, (*Struma*, *ε*, f. from *struo*, to heap up). This term is applied by some authors to scrofula, and by others to an induration of the thyroid gland, which is endemial to the Tyrolese and Swiss.

STRUTHIUM, (*Struthium*, *i*, n. *στρουθιον*, from *στρουθος*; a sparrow, so named from the resemblance of its flowers to an unfledged sparrow). The master-wort or soap-wort. See *Imperatoria*.

STRYCHNOS NUX VOMICA. The systematic name of the tree whose seed is called the poison nut. See *Nux vomica*.

STRYCHNOS VOLUBILIS. The systematic name of the tree which is supposed to afford the Jesuits bean. See *Faba indica*.

STUPOR, (*Stupor*, *oris*, m, from *stueo*, to be senseless). Insensibility.

STYLIFORM, (*Styliformis*, from *stylus*, a bodkin, and *forma*, a likeness). Shaped like a bodkin or style.

STYLO. Names compounded of this word belong to muscles which are attached to the stiloïd process of the temporal bone; as,

STYLO-GLOSSUS, (*Musculus styloglossus*). A muscle, situated between the lower jaw and os hyoides laterally, which draws the tongue aside and backwards. It arises tendinous and fleshy from the styloid process, and from the ligament which connects that process to the angle of the lower jaw, and is inserted into the root of the tongue, runs along its sides and is insensibly lost near its tip.

STYLO-HYOIDEUS. (*Musculus hyoideus*). A muscle, situated between the lower jaw and os hyoides laterally, which pulls the os hyoides to one side and a little upwards.

It is a small, thin, fleshy muscle,

situated between the styloid process and os hyoides, under the posterior belly and middle tendon of the digastricus, near the upper edge of that muscle.

It arises by a long thin tendon, from the basis and posterior edge of the styloid process, and, descending in an oblique direction, is inserted into the lateral and anterior part of the os hyoides, near its horn.

The fleshy belly of this muscle is usually perforated, on one or both sides, for the passage of the middle tendon of the digastricus.

Sometimes, though not always, we find another smaller muscle placed before the stylo-hyoides, which, from its having nearly the same origin and insertion, and the same use, is called *stylo-hyoides-alter*. It seems to have been first known to Eustachius; so that Douglas was not aware of this circumstance, when he placed it amongst the muscles discovered by himself. It arises from the apex of the styloid process, and sometimes, by a broad and thin aponeurosis, from the inner and posterior part of the angle of the lower jaw, and is inserted into the appendix or little horn of the os hyoides.

The use of these muscles is to pull the os hyoides to one side, and a little upwards.

STYLO-HYOIDÆUS ALTER. See *Stylo-hyoides*.

STYLO-MASTOID FORAMEN. A hole between the styloid and mastoid process of the temporal bone, through which the portio dura of the auditory nerve passes to the temples.

STYLO-PHARYNGÆUS, (*Musculus pharyngeus*). A muscle, situated between the lower jaw and os hyoides laterally, which dilates and raises the pharynx and thyroid cartilage upwards. It arises fleshy from the root of the styloid process, and is inserted into the side of the pharynx and back part of the thyroid cartilage.

STYPTICS, (*Styptica*, a *στυπω*, to adstringe). A term given to those substances which possess the power of stopping hæmorrhages, such as turpentine, alum, &c.

STYRAX, (*Styrax*, *ἄκισ*, f. from *στυράξ*, a reed, in which it was used to be preserved). *Styrax calamita*. Official storax. *Styrax officinalis* of Linnæus. *Styrax foliis ovatis, subtus villosis, racemis simplicibus folio brevioribus*. Hort. Kew. Class *Decandria*. Order *Monogynia*. There are two kinds of storax to be found in the shops; the one is usually in irregular compact masses, free from impurities, of a reddish brown appearance, and interspersed with whitish tears, somewhat like gum ammoniac or benzoin; it is extremely fragrant, and upon the application of heat readily melts. This has been called *storax in lump*, *red storax*; and in separate tears, *storax in tears*. The other kind, which is called the *common storax*, is in large masses, very light, and bears no external resemblance whatever to the former storax, as it seems almost wholly composed of dirty saw dust, caked together by resinous matter. Storax was formerly used in catarrhal complaints, coughs, asthmas, obstructions, &c. In the present practice it is almost totally disregarded, notwithstanding it is an efficacious remedy in nervous diseases.

STYRAX ALBA. See *Balsamum peruvianum*.

STYRAX BENZOIN. The systematic name of the tree which affords the gum benzoin. See *Benzoin*.

STYRAX CALAMITA. See *Styrax*.

STYRAX LIQUIDA. See *Liquidambar*.

STYRAX OFFICINĀLIS. The systematic name of the tree which affords the solid styrax. See *Styrax*.

SUBCLAVIAN ARTERY, (from *sub*, under, and *clavis*, a key, because

the clavicles were supposed to resemble the key of the ancients). The right subclavian arises from the arteria innominata, and proceeds under the clavicle to the axilla. The left subclavian arises from the arch of the aorta, and ascends under the left clavicle to the axilla. The subclavians in their course give off the internal mammary, the cervical, the vertebral, and the superior intercostal arteries.

SUBCLAVIUS, (*Musculus subclavius*). A muscle, situated on the anterior part of the thorax, which pulls the clavicle downwards and forwards. It arises tendinous from the cartilage that joins the first rib to the sternum, is inserted after becoming fleshy into the inferior part of the clavicle, which it occupies from within an inch of the sternum as far outwards as to its connexion, by a ligament, with the coracoid process of the scapula.

SUBCUTANEOUS GLANDS. These are sebaceous glands, lying under the skin, which they perforate by their excretory ducts.

SUBER, (*Suber, eris, n.*) The cork tree. The fruit of this tree, *Quercus suber* of Linnæus are much more nutritious than our acorns, and are sweet and often eaten when roasted in some parts of Spain. The bark called cork when burnt, is employed as an astringent application to bleeding piles, and to allay the pain usually attendant on hæmorrhoids, when mixed with an ointment. Pessaries and other surgical instruments are also made of this useful bark.

SUBLIMATE. See *Hydrargyrus muriatus*.

SUBLIMATION, (*Sublimatio, onis, f.* from *sublimo*, to raise or sublime). This chemical process differs from evaporation only in being confined to solid substances. It is usually performed either for the purpose of purifying certain substances, and disen-

gaging them from extraneous matters; or else to reduce into vapour, and combine, under that form, principles which would have united with greater difficulty if they had not been brought to that state of extreme division.

As all fluids are volatile by heat, and consequently capable of being separated, in most cases, from fixed matters, so various solid bodies are subjected to a similar treatment. Fluids are said to distil, and solids to sublime, though sometimes both are obtained in one and the same operation. If the subliming matter concretes into a solid, hard mass, it is commonly called a sublimate; if into a powdery form, flowers.

The principal subjects of this operation are, volatile alkaline salts; neutral salts, composed of volatile salts and acids, as sal ammoniac, the salt of amber, and flowers of benzoin, mercurial preparations, and sulphur. Bodies of themselves not volatile are frequently made to sublime by the mixture of volatile ones, thus iron is carried by sal ammoniac in the preparations of the flores martialis, or ferrum ammoniacale.

The fumes of solid bodies in close vessels rise but a little way, and adhere to that part of the vessel where they concrete. Hence a receiver or condenser is less necessary here than in the preceding operation; a single vessel, as a matrafs, or tall vial, or the like being frequently sufficient.

SUBLIMIS, (*Musculus sublimis*). See *Flexor brevis digitorum pedis*, and *Flexor sublimis perforatus*.

SUBLINGUAL GLANDS, *Glandula sublingualis*. The glands which are situated under the tongue, and secrete saliva. Their excretory ducts are called *Riverian*, from their discoverer.

SUBLUXATIO. A sprain. Sprains are always attended with inflammation and often with an ecchymosis.

SUBMERSION, (*Submersio, onis, f.* from *sub*, under, and *mergo*, to sink). Drowning.

SUBSCAPŪLĀRIS, (*Musculus subscapularis*, from *sub*, under, and *scapula*, the shoulder-blade). The name of this muscle sufficiently indicates its situation. It is composed of many fasciculi of tendinous and fleshy fibres, the marks of which we see imprinted on the under surface of the scapula. These fasciculi, which arise from all the basis of that bone internally, and likewise from its superior, as well as from one half of its inferior costa, unite to form a considerable flat tendon which adheres to the capsular ligament, and is inserted into the upper part of the lesser tuberosity at the head of the os humeri.

The principal use of this muscle is to roll the arm inwards. It likewise serves to bring it close to the ribs; and, from its adhesion to the capsular ligament, it prevents that membrane from being pinched.

SUBSULTUS TENDĪNUM, (*Subsultus, us, m.* from *subsultio*, to leap). Weak convulsive motions or twitchings of the tendons, mostly of the hands, generally observed in the extreme stages of putrid fever.

SUCCINAS AMMŌNIACÆ. See *Spiritus ammonia succinatus*.

SUCCINATES, (*Succinas, tis, m.*) Salts formed by the combination of the acid of amber, or succinic acid, with different bases; as, *succinate of potash*, *succinate of copper*, &c

SUCCINIC ACID. *Acidum succinicum. Sal succini*. The succinic acid is drawn from amber by sublimation in a gentle heat, and rises in a concrete form into the neck of the subliming vessel. The operation must not be pushed too far, nor by too strong a fire, otherwise the oil of amber rises along with the acid.

SUCCĪNUM, (*Succinum, i, n.* from

succus, juice; because it was thought to exude from a tree. See *Amber*.

SUCCĪNUM CINERĒUM. The ambergris is so called by some authors. See *Ambergrisea*.

SUCCĪNUM GRISĒUM. The ambergris is sometimes so called. See *Ambergrisea*.

SUCCĪNUM PREPĀRĀTUM. Prepared amber. See *Amber*.

SUCCORY. See *Cichorium*.

SUCCUS ACACIÆ VERÆ. See *Acacia vera*.

SUCCUS ACONĪTI SPISSĀTUS. See *Aconitum*.

SUCCUS BACCÆ SAMBŪCI SPISSĀTUS. An aperient and deobstruent extract, often employed diluted with water in the cure of catarrhal affections.

SUCCUS BELLADONNÆ SPISSĀTUS. See *Belladonna*.

SUCCUS CICIŪTÆ SPISSĀTUS. *Extractum cicutæ*. See *Cicuta*.

SUCCUS COCHLIARIÆ COMPOSITUS. A warm aperient and diuretic, mostly exhibited in the cure of diseases of the skin arising from scurvy.

SUCCUS GASTRICUS. See *Gastric juice*.

SUCCUS HELIOTROPĪI. See *Berzetta cerulia*.

SUCCUS HYOSCIĀMUS SPISSĀTUS. See *Hyosciamus*.

SUCCUS LACTŪCÆ VIRŌSÆ SPISSĀTUS. See *Lactuca graveolens*.

SUCCUS LIMŌNIS SPISSĀTUS. See *Limon*.

SUDĀMĪNA, (*Sudamen, inis, n.* from *sudor*, sweat). *Hidroa. Boa*. Vesicles resembling millet-seeds in form and magnitude, which appear suddenly, without fever, especially in the summer-time after much labour and sweating.

SUDATIO, (*Sudatio, onis, f.* from *sudor* sweat). A sweating. See *Ephidrosis*.

SUDORIFICS, (*Sudorifica, sc. medi-*

camenta, from *sudor*, sweat, and *facio*, to make). A synonym of Diaphoretics. See *Diaphoretics*.

SUGAR. See *Saccharum*.

SULCUS, (*Sulcus, i, m.*). A groove or furrow; generally applied to the bones.

SULPHAS ALUMINOSUS. Alum. See *Alumin*.

SULPHAS AMMONIACÆ. *Alkali volatile vitriolatum* of Bergman. *Sal ammoniacum secretum* of Glauber. *Vitriolum ammoniacale*. This salt has been found native in the neighbourhood of some volcanoes. It is esteemed diuretic and deobstruent, and exhibited in the same diseases as the muriate of ammonia. See *Ammonia muriata*.

SULPHAS CUPRI. *Vitriolum cupri*. *Vitriolum cæruleum*. *Vitriolum Romanum*, &c. *Cuprum vitriolatum* Pharm. Lond. The sulphat of copper possesses acrid and styptic qualities; is esteemed as a tonic, emetic, adstringent, and escharotic, and is exhibited internally in the cure of dropsies, hæmorrhages, and as a speedy emetic. Externally it is applied to stop hæmorrhages, to hæmorrhoids, leucorrhœa, phagedenic ulcers, proud flesh, and condylomata.

SULPHAS CUPRIAMMONIACALIS. *Cuprum ammoniacale*. This preparation of copper possesses adstringent and antiepileptic virtues; with which views it is given internally in the cure of weakness of the primæ viæ, intermittents, and hysterical affections.

SULPHAS FERRI. See *Ferrum vitriolatum*.

SULPHAS HYDRARGYRI. See *Hydrargyrus vitriolatus*.

SULPHAS MAGNESIÆ. See *Magnesia vitriolata*.

SULPHAS POTASSÆ. See *Kali vitriolatum*.

SULPHAS SODÆ. See *Natron vitriolatum*.

SULPHAS ZINCI. See *Zincum vitriolatum*.

SULPHATES, (*Sulphas, tis, m.*) Salts formed by the combination of the sulphuric acid with different bases as, *sulphat of alumin, sulphat of iron*, &c.

SULPHITES, (*Sulphis, tis, m.*) Salts formed by the combination of the sulphureous acid with different bases: as, *aluminous sulphite, ammoniacal sulphite*, &c.

SULPHUR, (*Sulphur, ūris, n.*) Brimstone. A combustible, dry, very brittle substance, of a lemon-yellow colour, insoluble in water, destitute of smell unless heated, and of a peculiar faint taste. It becomes electric by friction. Nature abounds with sulphur, both pure and in state of combination. The former is found near the craters of volcanoes and the sources of some mineral waters; and in larger masses mixed with gypsum and calcareous earth in Sicily, Spain, Switzerland, and other countries. The latter is found in metallic ores, and combined with hydrogen and lime, in various mineral waters. The sulphur of commerce is either such as is found ready formed, or such as is extracted from copper or iron pyrites. Of late it has been asserted, that sulphur is often separated during the putrefaction of animal and vegetable matter, and even that it has been extracted from them by chemical means. Sulphur till within these few years, was thought to be a compound body, the constituent parts of which were said to be vitriolic acid and phlogiston but it can now be demonstrated by experiment, that sulphur is a simple body, which, during combustion, or in other words, during its combination with oxygen, produces sulphuric acid. It is a medicine in frequent use in cutaneous diseases, hæmorrhoids, scurvy, ulcers of the legs, tinea, &c. and is the only specific against the itch. Sulphur separated from its impurities by sul-

nation, when it is called *flores sulphuris*, and the remaining drops *sulphur vivum*. Sulphur combined with kalis, lime, and the oxyds of mercury, forms the following sulphurets: with potash or soda, the kali sulphuretum or hepar sulphuris; see *Sulphuretum potassæ*: with ammonia, the volatile sulphuret of ammonia, hepar sulphuris volatile; see *Sulphuretum ammoniacæ*: with lime, the sulphuret of lime, *hepar calcis*; see *Sulphuretum calcis*: with the black oxyd of mercury per se, it forms what is commonly called æthiops mineral; see *Sulphuretum hydrargyri nigrum*: with the red oxyd, cinnabar; see *Sulphuretum hydrargyri rubrum*: with black sublimated quicksilver, æthiops antimonial; see *Sulphuretum hydrargyri stibium nigrum*: and with the red stibiated quicksilver, the red cinnabar of antimony; see *Sulphuretum hydrargyri stibiatum rubrum*. Sulphur unites with the oxyds of antimony, and forms kermes mineral; see *Hydro-sulphuretum stibii rubrum*: See also *Hydro-sulphuretum stibii luteum*, and antimony. These, with a wine, syrup, &c. are the principal combinations of sulphur used in medicine. For the virtues of the different sulphurets, see their respective heads.

SULPHUR ANTIMONII PRÆCIPITATUM. *Sulphur auratum antimonii*. This preparation of antimony appears to have rendered that called *kermes mineral* unnecessary. It is a yellow hydro-sulphuret of antimony, and therefore called *hydro-sulphuretum stibii luteum* in the new chemical nomenclature. As an alterative and sudorific it is in high estimation, and given in diseases of the skin and glands; and, joined with calomel, it is one of the most powerful and penetrating alteratives we are in possession of.

SULPHUR AURATUM ANTIMONII. The yellow hydro-sulphuret of

antimony. See *Sulphur antimonii præcipitatum*.

SULPHUR PRÆCIPITATUM. *Lac sulphuris*. This preparation is mostly preferred to the flowers of sulphur, in consequence of its being freed from its impurities.

SULPHURWORT. See *Peucedanum*.

SULPHURATED HYDROGEN. See *Hepatic air*.

SULPHUREOUS ACID. *Acidum sulphurōsum*. Phlogisticated vitriolic acid. Volatile sulphuric acid. Sulphurous acid. Volatile acid of vitriol. Sulphur is capable of being oxygenated in different degrees. In the sulphuric acid it is saturated, or nearly saturated, with oxygen, and is therefore reckoned a perfect acid. With a smaller portion of oxygen it exhibits an acid of a different nature and of different properties, which ought to be regarded as an imperfect sulphuric acid, and to which we give the name of *sulphureous acid*. This sulphureous acid is obtained by slow combustion of sulphur, when it burns only with a blue flame. The acid generated by this process is of much less acidity than sulphuric acid, and it is at the same time exceedingly volatile, as it is apparent from the very suffocating smell issuing from the combustion, and even assuming the aerial form if moisture is excluded. This acid may be procured, when to the sulphuric acid any body is presented, that by its attraction for oxygen deprives the sulphur of part of that acidifying principle, in combination with which it constitutes the sulphuric acid.

SULPHURES, (*Sulphuretum*, i, n.) Sulphurets. Combinations of sulphur with different alkaline, earthy, and metallic bases.

SULPHURETUM AMMONIACÆ. *Hepar sulphuris volatile*. Boyle's or Beguine's fuming spirit. Sulphuret of ammoniac is obtained in the form of a yellow fuming liquor, by the

ammoniac and sulphur uniting whilst in a state of gaz during distillation. It excites the action of the absorbent system and diminished arterial action, and is given internally in diseases arising from the use of mercury, phthisis, diseases of the skin, and phlegmasiæ: externally it is prescribed in the form of bath in paralysis, contractura, pfora, and cutaneous diseases.

SULPHURĒTUM CALCIS. *Hepar calcis.* Sulphuret of lime. It is principally used as a bath in various diseases of the skin.

SULPHURETUM HYDRARGYRI NIGRUM. See *Hydrargyrus cum Sulphure.*

SULPHURĒTUM HYDRARGYRI RUBRUM. See *Hydrargyrus sulphuratus ruber.*

SULPHURĒTUM HYDRARGYRI STIBIATUM NIGRUM. *Æthiops antimonialis.* *Kermes mineral.* It consists of three parts of quicksilver, and two parts of the red antimoniated hydrosulphuret, rubbed together. It is an efficacious remedy in worms, in atrophy of infants, diseases of the skin, amaurosis, &c.

SULPHURĒTUM HYDRARGYRI STIBIATUM RUBRUM. *Cinnabaris antimonii.* This preparation was formerly much esteemed in diseases of the skin, but is fallen into disuse in this country.

SULPHURĒTUM POTASSÆ. *Hepar sulphuris.* Sulphuret of potash. Liver of sulphur, having for its basis the vegetable alkali. The virtues and uses of this preparation are similar to those of the *sulphuretum ammoniacæ.*

SULPHURĒTUM SODÆ. See *Hepar sulphuris.*

SULPHURĒTUM STIBII NATIVUM. *Sulphuretum stibii nigrum.* *Antimonium crudum.* Its virtues are stimulant, diaphoretic, and alterative.

SULPHURIC ACID. *Acidum sulphuricum.* Oil of vitriol. Vitriolic

acid. Sulphuric acid consists of sulphur, which constitutes its basis, and of oxygen. It frequently occurs in combination with alkalis, earths, and metals; but seldom in a state of purity, and whether at all, has been doubted. For chemical, medical, and other purposes, it is obtained by the rapid combustion of sulphur and the decomposition of metallic and earthy sulphuric acid salts by fire. If melted sulphur be exposed in open air to an increased heat, it takes fire, is entirely consumed, and burns with a flame, and an acid suffocating vapour. The sulphur is by this combustion changed to an acid. If the heat by which burning sulphur is consumed be only weak, its flame is blue, and the acid then generated is imperfect, very volatile, and æriform. This imperfect sulphuric acid is called *sulphureous acid.* But if the heat be stronger, the flame of the sulphur is white and lively, and a perfect sulphuric acid in the vaporous state is formed. The sulphuric acid may be obtained by different methods: that prepared in England is by the combustion of sulphur; for which purpose peculiar apartments, with their insides lined with lead, are constructed, in order to enclose the burning sulphur. But because the sulphur would in that situation be soon extinguished, and never burn with due vivacity, about the eighth part of its weight of nitre is mingled with it to supply vital air, without which no combustion can exist. Both the water at the bottom of the chamber, and also the aqueous vapours conveyed into it, imbibe the sulphuric acid as it forms. The weak or diluted acid thus obtained is collected and concentrated by evaporating the superfluous water in glass vessels. Sulphuric acid, concentrated in this manner, is sold under the name of *English oil of vitriol*, *oleum vitrioli*, to distinguish it from another species

called *Saxon oil of vitriol*, which is obtained from green vitriol by distillation. Every kind of concentrated sulphuric acid, formerly found in commerce, was prepared by distillation from green vitriol, or copper: and it is on this account that the sulphuric acid is generally called *vitriolic acid*. Oil of vitriol is a very strong acid, burns and corrodes the skin. When pure, it has neither colour nor smell, but is very apt to turn more or less brown, and of a sulphureous odour, by combustible, animal, and vegetable matter, as is usually the case with what is sold in the shops. If sulphuric acid be highly concentrated, it congeals at a temperature of 150°, and becomes a crystalline mass, formerly termed glacial oil of vitriol. Mixed with water it becomes hot, and is then termed spirit of vitriol.

SULPHURIS FLORES. See *Sulphur*.

SULPHUROUS ACID. See *Sulphurous acid*.

SULTAN FLOWER. The *Centaurea moschata* of Linnæus.

SUMACH, (*Sumach*, n. ind. *sumak*, from *samak*, to be red; Heb. so called from its red berry). Elm-leaved sumach. This plant, *Rhus coriaria*; *foliis pinnatis obtusis, caule ferratis corolibus subtus villosis* of Linnæus. Class *Pentandria*. Order *Trigynia*, is a small tree, a native of the south of Europe. It is singular that this is the only species of the genus *rhus* which is perfectly innocent; the others being active poisons. Both the leaves and berries of this plant are used medicinally, as astringents and tonics; the former are the most powerful, and have been long in common use, where they may be easily obtained in various complaints indicating this class of remedies. The berries, which are red, and of a roundish compressed figure, contain a pulpy matter, in

which is lodged a brown, hard, oval seed, manifesting a considerable degree of astringency. The pulp, even when dry, is grateful, and has been discovered to contain an essential salt, similar to that of woodforrel. An infusion of the dried fruit is not rendered black by a solution of iron: hence it appears to be destitute of astringency. But its acidity is extremely grateful; therefore, like many other fruits, these berries may be advantageously taken to allay febrile heat, and to correct bilious putrescency.

SUMACH, ELM LEAVED. See *Sumach*.

SUN DEW. See *Ros solis*.

SUPERBUS, (*musculus superbus*). See *Rectus superior oculi*.

SUPERCILIUM, (*Supercilium*, i. n.). The eyebrow. See *Eyebrow*.

SUPERCILIUM VENERIS. The milfoil or yarrow was once so termed. See *Millefolium*.

SUPERFÆTATION, (*Superfætatio*, *onis*, f. from *super*, above or upon, and *fætus*, a fœtus). The impregnation of a woman already pregnant.

SUPINATION. The act of turning the palm of the hand upwards, by rotating the radius upon the ulna.

SUPINATOR, (*Supinator*, *oris*, m. from *supinus*, upwards). A name given to those muscles which turn the hand upwards.

SUPINATOR LONGUS. See *Supinator radii longus*.

SUPINATOR RADII BREVIS. This small muscle, which is tendinous externally, is situated at the upper part of the fore arm under the supinator longus, the extensor carpi radialis brevis, the extensor carpi ulnaris, the extensor digitorum communis, and the extensor minimi digiti.

It arises tendinous from the lower and anterior part of the outer condyle

of the os humeri, and tendinous and fleshy from the outer edge and posterior surface of the ulna, adhering firmly to the ligament that joins the radius to that bone. From these origins its fibres descend forwards and inwards, and are inserted into the upper, inner, and anterior part of the radius around the cartilaginous surface upon which slides the tendon of the biceps, and likewise into a ridge that runs downwards and outwards below this surface.

This muscle assists in the supination of the hand by rolling the radius outwards.

SUPINATOR RADII LONGUS. *Supinator longus* of Albinus, Winslow, and Douglass. A long flat muscle, covered by a very thin tendinous fascia, and situated immediately under the integuments along the outer convex surface of the radius. It arises, by very short tendinous fibres, from the anterior surface and outer ridge of the os humeri, about two or three inches above its external condyle, between the brachialis internus and the triceps brachii; and likewise from the anterior surface of the external intermuscular membrane, or ligament, as it is called. About the middle of the radius, its fleshy fibres terminate in a flat tendon, which is inserted into the inner side of the inferior extremity of the radius, near the root of its styloid process.

This muscle not only assists in rolling the radius outwards, and turning the palm of the hand upwards, on which account Riolanus first gave it the name of *supinator*, but it likewise assists in pronation, and in bending the fore arm.

SUPPOSITORIUM, (*Suppositorium*, *i. n.* from *sub*, under, and *pone*, to put). A suppository, *i. e.* a substance to put into the rectum, there to remain and dissolve gradually.

SUPPRESSED MENSES. See *Amenorrhœa*.

SUPPURATION, (*Suppuratio, onis*, *f.* from *suppuro*, to suppurate). That morbid action by which pus is deposited in inflammatory tumours. See *Pus*.

SUPRA COSTALES. A portion of the intercostal muscles. See *Intercostal muscles*.

SUPRA SPINATUS, (*musculus supra-spinatus*). This muscle, which was first so named by Riolanus, from its situation, is of considerable thickness, wider behind than before, and fills the whole of the cavity or fossa that is above the spine of the scapula.

It arises fleshy from the whole of the base of the scapula that is above its spine, and likewise from the spine itself, and from the superior costa. Opposite to the basis of the coracoid process, it is found beginning to degenerate into a tendon, which is at first covered by fleshy fibres, and then passing under the acromion, adheres to the capsular ligament of the os humeri, and is inserted into the upper part of the large tuberosity at the head of the os humeri.

This muscle is covered by a thin fascia, which adheres to the upper edge and superior part of the basis, as well as to the upper edge of the spine of the scapula.

The principal use of the *supra-spinatus* seems to be to assist in raising the arm upwards; at the same time, by drawing the capsular ligament upwards, it prevents it from being pinched between the head of the os humeri and that of the scapula. It may likewise serve to move the scapula upon the humerus.

SUS SCROFA. The systematic name of the hog which affords the lard.

SUCCINUM OLĒUM. See *Oleum succini*.

SUTURE, (*Sutura, æ*, *f.* from *suo*, to join together). In surgery this term signifies the uniting the lips of

a wound by sewing. A number of different kinds of futures have been recommended by writers on surgery, but all of them are now reduced to two: namely, the twisted, and the interrupted. The twisted future is made in the following manner: having brought the divided parts nearly into contact, a pin is to be introduced from the outside inwards, and carried out through the opposite side to the same distance from the edge that it entered at on the former side; a firm wax ligature is then to be passed around it, making the figure of 8, by which the wounded parts are drawn gently into contact. The number of pins is to be determined by the extent of the wound; half an inch, or at most three quarters, is the proper distance between two pins. The interrupted future is practised where a number of stitches is required, and the interruption is only the distance between the stitches.

In anatomy the word future is applied to the union of bones by means of dentiform margins, as in the bones of the cranium. See *Temporal*, *Sphenoidal*, *Zygomatic*, *Transverse*, *Coronal*, *Lambdoidal*, and *Sagittal futures*.

SWALLOWWORT. See *Vincetoxium*.

SWEAT. See *Perspiration*.

SWEATING, IMMENSE. See *Epidrofsis*.

SWEET MARGORAM. See *Marrorana*.

SWEET NAVEW. See *Rapus*.

SWEETRUSH. See *Juncus odoratus*.

SWEET SULTAN. The *Centaurea noschata* of Linnæus.

SWEET WILLOW. See *Myrtus Brabantica*.

SWIETENIA, (*Swietenia*, *a*, f. named after swieten). See *Mahagoni*.

SWIETENIA MAHAGONI. The systematic name of the mahogany tree. See *Mahogani*.

SYCAMORE. The maple tree is sometimes improperly so termed.

SYLPHIUM. *Asafætida* is so termed by some writers. See *Asafætida*.

SYMBLEPHARUM, (*Symblepharum*, *i*, n. *συμβλεφαραι*, from *συ*, with, and *βλεφαρον*, the eyelid). A concretion of the eyelid to the globe of the eye: also a concretion of the palpebræ with the eye. This chiefly happens in the superior, but very rarely in the inferior palpebræ.

The causes of this concretion are a bad conformation of the parts, or from ulcers of the cornea, the membrana conjunctiva, or internal superficies of the palpebræ, or imprudent scarifications, or burns, especially if the eye remains long closed.

There are two species, the partial or total; in the former the adhesion is partial, in the latter, the membrana conjunctiva and cornea are concreted together.

SYMMETRY. The exact and beautiful proportion of parts to one another.

SYMPATHETIC NERVE. Intercostal nerve. See *Intercostal nerve*.

SYMPATHY. (*Συμπάθεια*, from *συμπασχω*, to suffer together, to sympathise). All the body is sympathetically connected together, and dependent, the one part upon the rest, constituting a general sympathy. But sometimes we find particular parts more intimately dependent upon each other than upon the rest of the body, constituting a particular sympathy. Action cannot be greatly increased in any one organ, without being diminished in some other; but certain parts are more apt to be affected by the derangement of particular organs, than others; and it was the observance of this fact, which gave foundation to the old and well known doctrine of sympathy, which was said to proceed, "*tum ob communionem et simili*

litudinem generis, tum ob viciniam." It may be thought that this position of action being diminished in one organ, by its increase, either in the rest or in some other part, is contradicted by the existence of general diseases or actions affecting the whole system. But in them we find, in the first place, that there is always some part more affected than the rest. This local affection is sometimes the first symptom, and affects the constitution in a secondary way, either by the irritation which it produces, or by an extension of the specific action. At other times the local affection is coeval with the general disease, and is called sympathetic; in the second, idiopathic. It is observed in the second place, that as there is some part which is always more affected than the rest, so also is there some organ which has its action, in consequence of this, diminished lower than that of the rest of the system, and most commonly lower than its natural standard. From the extensive sympathy of the stomach with almost every part of the body, we find that this most frequently suffers, and has its action diminished in every disease, whether general or local, provided that the diseased action arises to any considerable degree. There are also other organs which may, in like manner, suffer from their association or connection with others which become diseased, as will be immediately explained. Thus, for instance, we see, in the general disease called puerperal fever, that the action of the breasts is diminished by the increased inflammatory action of the uterus.

In consequence of this balance of action, or general connection of the system, a sudden pain, consequent to violent action of any particular part, will so weaken the rest as to produce fainting, and occasionally death. But this dependence appears more evidently in what may be called the

smaller systems of the body, or those parts which seem to be more intimately connected with each other than they are with the general system. Of this kind is the connection of the breasts with the uterus of the female; of the urethra with the testicles of the male; of the stomach with the liver; and of the intestines with the stomach, and of this again with the brain; of the one extremity of the bone with the other; and of the body of the muscle with its insertion; of the skin with the parts below it.

These smaller systems or circles, shall be treated regularly; but, first, it may be proper to observe that these are not only intimately connected with themselves, but also with the general system, an universal sympathy being thus established.

That there is a very intimate connection between the breasts and uterus has been long known; but it has not been very satisfactorily explained. Fallopius, and all the older authors, declare plainly that the sympathy is produced by an anastomosis of vessels; Bartholin adding, that the child being born, the blood no longer goes to the uterus, but is directed to the breasts, and changed into milk. But none of all those who talk of this derivation assign any reasonable cause which may produce it.

In pregnancy, and at the menstrual periods, the uterus is active; but, when the child is delivered, the action of the uterus subsides, whilst the breasts in their turn become active, and secrete milk.

If, at this time, we should again produce action in the uterus, we diminish that of the breasts, and destroy the secretion of milk, as is well illustrated by the case of inflammation of the uterus, which is incident to lying-in women. When the uterus, at the cessation of the menses, ceases to be active, or to secrete, we

men find that the breasts have an action excited in them, becoming slowly inflamed, and assuming a cancerous disposition. The uterus and breasts seem to be a set of glands balancing each other in the system, the only being naturally active, or secreting properly at a time; and accordingly we seldom, if ever, find that when the uterus yields the menstrual discharge, the milk is secreted in perfection, during the continuance of this discharge, nor do we ever find them both inflamed at the same time.

The uterus has not only this connection with the breasts, but it has also a very particular sympathy with the stomach, which again sympathises with the brain; and thus we see how a disorder of the uterus may induce an extensive series of affections, each dependent on the other. The uterus has been known, ever since the foundation of physic, to produce very extensive disease in the nervous system; and it is amusing to hear how this was explained. The disease called "suffocation of the uterus," with many other hysterical ailments, were attributed to the swelling or choking up of the uterus, by winds and vapours generated from the retention of the menses, or by the corruption of the semen, and the putrefaction of the bad humours which came there to be discharged; for this organ was considered by many as a common cloaca.

These ventosities being once generated, it was believed that they mounted up to the stomach, the liver, and at last to the brain. The cure consisted in expelling these; and one of these remedies which was employed for this purpose, was warm aromatic fumes, conveyed by tubes to the os uteri; for there was no safety they imagined, until the vile stuff was discharged; this "occult odour," as Van Helmont calls it.

The organs of generation in the

male form likewise a little system, in which all the parts exhibit this sympathy with each other. They likewise give us a very good instance of the association of action, or sympathy in the common acceptation of that word.

Sympathy has been divided into the contiguous, where parts become affected. It will be more conformable to the present doctrine, which is presumed to be true, to divide it into first, the sympathy of equilibrium in which one part is weakened by the increased action of another; and, second, the sympathy of association in which two parts act together at the same time.

The sympathy of association is produced suddenly, and for a short time. The sympathy of equilibrium is produced more slowly, and continues to operate for much longer time.

It is curious enough that most, or at least many, of those organs, which seem to be connected by the sympathy of equilibrium, exhibit likewise more or less of the sympathy of association, when under the circumstances in which this can take place.

The sympathy of equilibrium is seen in the effects of inflammation of the end of the urethra on the testicle; which often diminishes its action, and produces a very disagreeable sensation of dullness, or if this inflammation be suddenly diminished, the action of the testicle is as suddenly increased, and swelling takes place. The same is seen in the connection of the urethra with the bladder and prostate gland, as is mentioned in all the dissertation on gonorrhoea. These parts likewise affect the stomach greatly, increased action in them weakening that organ much. This is seen in the effects of swelled testicle or excessive venery, or inflamed bladder, and in a stone; all which weaken the stomach, and in and pro-

duce dyspepsia. The same remark applies to the kidney; vomiting and flatulence being produced by nephritis.

The sympathy of association, or an instance of sympathy in the common acceptation of the word, is likewise seen in the connection betwixt the glans and testicles in coition; but for this purpose, the action in the glands must be sudden and of short duration; for if continued long, weakness of the testicles, or diminished action, is induced. In those parts which exhibit this natural association of action, if the action of one part be suddenly and for a short time increased, the action of the sympathising part will likewise be increased; as we see in the instance already given of coition, and likewise in paroxysms of the stone, in which the glans penis, after making water, becomes very painful.

But if the action be more slowly induced, and continued for a long time, then this association is set aside, by the stronger and more general principle of the equilibrium of action, and the sympathising part is weakened. Hence, violent inflammation of the end of the urethra produces a weakness and irritability of the bladder, dullness of the testicles, &c.

There is also an evident sympathy of equilibrium betwixt the stomach and lower tract of intestines; which two portions may be said in general to balance each other in the abdomen. When the action of the intestines is increased in diarrhoea, the stomach is often weakened, and the patient tormented with nausea. This will be cured, not so easily by medicines taken into the stomach, as by anodyne clysters, which will abate the action of the intestines. When the intestines are inflamed, as in strangulated hernia, vomiting is a never-failing attendant.

When again the stomach is inflamed, the intestines are affected, and obstinate constiveness takes place; even in

hysterical affections of the stomach, the intestines are often deranged. Injections of cold water frequently relieve these affections of the stomach, by their action of the intestines.

The liver and stomach are also connected with one another. When the liver is inflamed, or has its action increased, the stomach is weakened, and dyspeptic symptoms take place. When the stomach is weakened, as, for instance, by intoxication, then the action of the liver is increased, and a greater quantity than usual of bile is secreted. The same takes place in warm climates, where the stomach is much debilitated.

If the liver has its action thus frequently increased, it assumes a species of inflammation, or becomes, as it is called, scirrhus. This is exemplified in the habitual dram-drinkers, and in those who stay long in warm countries and use freedoms with the stomach. The liver likewise sympathises with the brain; for when this organ is injured and its action much impaired, as in compression, inflammation, and suppuration, have been often known to take place in the liver.

Besides this connection of the stomach with the liver, it is also very intimately dependent on the brain, being weakened when the action of the brain is increased; as we see in inflammation of that organ. The brain again is affected with pain, when the stomach is weakened by intoxication, or other causes; and this pain will be often relieved by slowly renewing the action of the stomach, by such stimuli as are natural to it, such as small quantities of soups frequently repeated. A slight increase of action in the stomach, at least if not of a morbid kind, affects the brain so as to produce sleep, diminishing its action. This we see in the effects of a full meal, and even of a draught of warm water. The stomach likewise sympathises with

the throat, squeamishness and anorexia being often produced by inflammation of the tonsils. This inflammation is frequently abated by restoring or increasing the action of the stomach. Hence the throat in slight inflammation is frequently easier after dinner; hence, likewise, the effect of emetics in cynanche.

The extremities of bones and muscles also sympathise in the same manner. When one end of a bone is inflamed, the action of the other is lessened, and pain is produced; for a painful sensation may result both from increased and diminished action. When the tendon of a muscle is inflamed, the body of that muscle often is pained, and *vice versa*.

Lastly, the external skin sympathises with the parts below it. If it be inflamed, as in erysipelas, the parts immediately beneath are weakened, or have their natural action diminished. If this inflammation affect the face or scalp, then the brain is injured; and head-ache, stupor, or delirium mite, supervene. If it attack the skin of the abdomen, then the abdominal viscera are affected, and we have vomiting and purging or obstinate costiveness, according to circumstances. This is illustrated by the disease of children, which is called by the women the bowel hive, in which the skin is inflamed, as they suppose, from some morbid matter within.

If the internal parts be inflamed, the action of the surface is diminished, and by increasing this action, we can lessen or remove the disease below; as we see daily proved by the good effects of blisters. When the stomach, intestines, or kidney, have been very irritable, a sinapism has been known to act like a charm; and in the deep-seated inflammations of the breasts, bowels, or joints, no better remedy is known after the use of the lancet, than blisters.

The utility of issues in diseases of

the lungs, the liver, and the joints, is to be explained on the same principle. In these cases we find that issues do little good unless they be somewhat painful, or be in the state of healthy ulcers. An indolent flabby sore, however large the discharge (which is always thin, and accompanied with little action), does no good, but only adds to the misery of the patient. We may, however, err on the other hand by making the issues too painful, or by keeping them active too long, for after they have removed the inflammatory disease below, they will still operate on these parts, lessening their action, and preventing the healing process from going on properly. This is seen in cases of curvature of the spine, where at first the inflammation of the vertebra is diminished by the issues; but if they be kept long open after this is removed, they do harm. We often see the patient recover rapidly after his surgeon has healed the issue in despair, judging that it could do no farther service, but only increase the weakness of his patient.

It is a well-established fact, that when any particular action disappears suddenly from a part, it will often speedily affect that organ which sympathises most with the part which was originally diseased.

This is best seen in the inflammatory action, which, as practical writers have well observed, occasionally disappears quickly from the part first affected, and then shews itself in some other.

From the united testimony of all these facts, Mr. Burns of Glasgow, maintains the doctrine just delivered, and proposes to introduce it into pathological reasonings. In the whole of the animal economy, we discover marks of the wisdom of the Creator, but perhaps in no part of it more than in this, of the existence of the sympathy of equilibrium, for if a large

part of the system were to have its action much increased, and all the other parts to continue acting in the same proportionate degree as formerly, the whole must be soon exhausted; (for increased action would require for its support, an increased quantity of energy).

But upon this principle, when action is much increased in one part, it is to a certain degree diminished in some other, the general sum or degree of action in the body, is thus less than it otherwise would be, and consequently the system suffers less.

SYMPHISIS, (*Symphisis*, is, f. *συμφυσις*, from *συ*, together, and *φύω*, to grow). Mediate connexion. A genus of the connexion of bones, in which they are united by means of an intervening body. It comprehends four species, viz. synchondrosis, syffarcosis, syneurosis, and syndesmosis.

SYMPHYTUM, (*Symphitum*, i, n. *συμφυτον*; from *συμ*, to unite; so called because it is supposed to unite and close the lips of wounds together). *Consolida major*. Comfrey. This plant, *Symphytum officinale*, *foliis ovatis lanceolatis decurrentibus*, is administered where the althea cannot be obtained, its roots abounding with a viscid glutinous juice, whose virtues are similar to that of the *althea*.

SYMPHYTUM MACULOSUM. The sage of Jerusalem. See *Pulmonaria*.

SYMPHYTUM MINUS. See *Prunella*.

SYMPHYTUM OFFICINALE. The systematic name of the Comfrey. See *Symphytum*.

SYNARTHROSIS, (*Synarthrosis*, is, f. *συνάρθρωσις*, from *συν*, together, and *αρθρον*, a joint). Immoveable connexion. A genus of connexion of bones, in which they are united together by an immoveable union. It has three species, viz. suture, harmony, and gomphosis.

SYNCHONDROSIS, (*Synchondro-*

sis, is, f. *συνχονδρωσις*, from *συν*, with, and *χονδρος*, a cartilage). A species of symphysis, in which one bone is united with another by means of an intervening cartilage, as the vertebrae and the bones of the pubis.

SYNCHONDROTOMIA, (*Synchondrotomia*, a, f. *συνχονδρωτομία*, from *συνχονδρωσις*, the symphysis of the pubis, and *τεμνω*, to cut). The operation of dividing the symphysis of the pubis.

SYNCHYSIS, (*Synchysis*, is, f. *σύνχυσις*, from *σύνχυναι*, to confound). A solution of the vitreous humour into a fine attenuated aqueous fluid.

SYNCIPITIS OSSA. See *Parietal bones*.

SYNCIPUT, (*Synciput*, itis, n.) The forepart of the cranium.

SYNCOPE, (*Syncope*, es, f. *συνκοπή*, from *συν*, with, and *κοπή*, to cut or strike down). *Animi deliquium*. *Leipothymia*. Fainting or swooning. A genus of disease in the class *neuroses* and order *adynamiae* of Cullen, in which the respiration and action of the heart either cease, or become much weaker than usual, with paleness and coldness, arising from diminished energy of the brain, or from organic affections of the heart. Species: 1. *Syncope cardiaca*, the cardiac syncope, arising without a visible cause, and with violent palpitation of the heart, during the intervals, and depending generally on some organic affection of the heart or neighbouring vessels: 2. *Syncope occasionalis*, the exciting cause being manifest.

SYNCOPE ANGINOSA. See *Angina pectoris*.

SYNDESMOLOGY, (*Syn-desmologia*, a, f. *συνδεσμολογία*, from *συνδεσμος*, a ligament, and *λογος*, a discourse). The doctrine of the ligaments.

SYNDESMOPHARYNGEUS. See *Constrictor pharyngis medius*.

SYNDESMOSIS, (*Syn-desmosis*, is, f. *συνδεσμοσις*, from *συνδεσμος*, a ligament). That species of symphysis or mediate

connexion of bones in which they are united by ligament, as the radius with the ulna.

SYNECHIA, (*Synechia*, α, f. *συνεχία*.) A concretion of the iris with the cornea, or with the capsule of the crystalline lens. The proximate cause is the contact from inflammation or adhesion of these parts, the consequence of inflammation. The remote causes are, a prolapsus of the cornea, a prolapsus of the iris, a swelling or tumified cataract, hypopium, or a natural formation. The species of this disorder are: 1. *Synechia anterior totalis*, or a concretion of the iris with the cornea. This species is known by every skilful anatomist inspecting the parts. The pupil in this species is dilated or contracted, or it is found concreted; from hence various lesions of vision. 2. *Synechia anterior partialis*, when only some part of the iris is accreted. This concretion is observed in one or many places; from hence the pupil is variously disfigured, and an inordinate motion of the pupil is perceived. 3. *Synechia anterior composita*, when not only the whole iris, but together a prolapsus of the crystalline lens, unites with the cornea. 4. *Synechia posterior totalis*, or a concretion of the whole uvea, with the ciliary processes and the capsule of the crystalline lens. 5. *Synechia posterior partialis*, when only some part of the capsule of the crystalline lens is concreted with the uvea and cornea. This accretion is simplex, duplex, triplex, or in many places it may happen. 6. *Synechia complicata*, with an amaurosis, cataract, mydriasis, myosis, or synezezis.

SYNEURŌSIS, (*Syneurosis*, is, f. *συνευρωσις*, from *συν*, with *νευρον*, a nerve, because the ancients included membranes, ligaments, and tendons, under the head of nerves). A species of symphyosis, in which one bone is united to another by means of an intervening membrane.

SYNEZESIS, (*Synezezis*, is, f. *συνεζσις*, *confidentia*). A perfect concretion and coardation of the pupil. It is known by the absence of the pupil, and a total loss of vision. The species are: 1. *Synezezis nativa*, with which infants are sometimes born. In this case, by an error in the first conformation of the pupil, there is no perforation; it is very rarely found. 2. *Synezezis accidentalis*, a concretion of the pupil, from an inflammation or exulceration of the uvea or iris, or from a defect of the aqueous or vitreous humour. 3. *Synezezis*, from a secession of the iris or cornea. From whatever cause it may happen, the effect is certain, for the pupil contracts its diameter; the longitudinal fibres, separated from the circle of the cornea, cannot resist the orbicular fibres: from hence the pupil is wholly or partially contracted. 4. *Synezezis complicata*, or that which is complicated with an amaurosis, synechia, or other ocular disease. The amaurosis or gutta serena is known by the total absence of light to the retina; we can distinguish this not only by the pupil being closed, but likewise the eyelids, for whether the eyelids be open or shut, all is darkness to the patient. The other complicated cases are known by viewing the eye, and considering the parts anatomically. 5. *Synezezis spuria* is a closing of the pupil by mucus, pus, or grumous blood.

SYNŌCHA, (*Synocha*, α, f. *συνωχνη*, from *συνεχω*, to continue). Inflammatory fever. A species of continued fever; characterised by increased heat; pulse frequent, strong, hard; urine high-coloured; senses not much impaired. This fever is so named from its being attended with symptoms denoting general inflammation in the system, by which we shall always be able readily to distinguish it from either the nervous or putrid. It makes its attack at all seasons of

the year. but is most prevalent in the spring; and it seizes persons of all ages and habits, but more particularly those in the vigour of life, with strong elastic fibres, and of a plethoric constitution. It is a species of fever almost peculiar to cold and temperate climates, being rarely, if ever met with in very warm ones, except amongst Europeans lately arrived; and even then, the inflammatory stage is of very short duration, as it very soon assumes either the nervous or putrid type.

The exciting causes are sudden transmutations from heat to cold, swallowing cold liquors when the body is much heated by exercise, too free a use of vinous and spirituous liquors, great intemperance, violent passions of the mind, the sudden suppression of habitual evacuations, and the sudden repulsion of eruptions. It may be doubted if this fever ever originates from personal infection; but it is possible for it to appear as an epidemic amongst such as are of a robust habit, from a peculiar state of the atmosphere. It comes on with a sense of lassitude and inactivity, succeeded by vertigo, rigors, and pains over the whole body, but more particularly in the head and back; which symptoms are shortly followed by redness of the face and eyes, great restlessness, intense heat, and unquenchable thirst, oppression of breathing, and nausea. The skin is dry and parched; the tongue is of a scarlet colour at the sides, and furred with white in the centre; the urine is red and scanty; the body is costive; and there is a quickness, with a fullness and hardness in the pulse, not much affected by any pressure made on the artery. If the febrile symptoms run very high, and proper means are not used at an early period, stupor and delirium come on, the imagination becomes much disturbed

and hurried, and the patient raves violently. The disease usually goes through its course in about fourteen days, and terminates in a crisis, either by diaphoresis, diarrhæa, hæmorrhage from the nose, or the deposit of a copious sediment in the urine; which crisis is usually preceded by some variation in the pulse.

Our judgment as to the termination of the disease, must be formed from the violence of the attack, and the nature of the symptoms. If the fever runs high, or continues many days with stupor or delirium, the event may be doubtful; but if to these are added, picking at the bed clothes, startings of the tendons, involuntary discharges by stool and urine, and hiccups, it will then certainly be fatal. On the contrary, if the febrile heat abates, the other symptoms moderate, and there is a tendency to a crisis, we may then expect a recovery. In a few instances, this fever has been known to terminate in mania.

On opening those who die of an inflammatory fever, an effusion is often perceived within the cranium, and now and then, topical affections of some of the viscera are to be observed.

SYNÖCHUS, (*Synochus. i.* f. *συνεχος*, from *συνεχα*, to continue). A mixed fever. A species of continued fever, commencing with symptoms of synocha and terminating in typhus; so that synocha and typhus, blended together in a slight degree, seem to constitute this species of fever, the former being apt to preponderate at its commencement, and the latter towards its termination.

Every thing which has a tendency to enervate the body, may be looked upon as a remote cause of fever; and accordingly we find it often arising from great bodily fatigue, too great an indulgence in sensual pleasures,

violent exertion, intemperance in drinking, and errors in diet, and now and then likewise from the suppression of some long accustomed discharge. Certain passions of the mind (such as grief, fear, anxiety, and joy), have been enumerated amongst the causes of fever, and in a few instances it is probable they may have given rise to it; but the concurrence of some other powers seems generally necessary to produce this effect. The most usual and universal cause of this fever is the application of cold to the body; and its morbid effects seem to depend partly upon certain circumstances of the cold itself, and partly upon certain circumstances of the person to whom it is applied.

The circumstances which seem to give the application of cold due effect, are its degree of intensity, the length of time which it is applied; its being applied generally, or only in a current of air, its having a degree of moisture accompanying it, and its being a considerable or sudden change from heat to cold. The circumstances of persons rendering them more liable to be affected by cold, seem to be debility, induced either by great fatigue, or violent exertions, by long fasting, by the want of natural rest, by severe evacuations, by preceding disease, by errors in diet, by intemperance in drinking, by great sensuality, by too close an application to study, or giving way to grief, fear, or great anxiety, by depriving the body of a part of its accustomed cloathing, by exposing any one particular part of it, whilst the rest is kept of its usual warmth, or by exposing it generally or suddenly to cold when heated much beyond its usual temperature; these we may therefore look upon as so many causes giving an effect to cold which it otherwise might not have produced. Another frequent cause of fever seems

to be breathing air contaminated by the vapours arising either directly or originally from the body of a person labouring under the disease. A peculiar matter is supposed to generate in the body of a person affected with fever, and this floating in the atmosphere, and being applied to one in health, will no doubt often cause fever to take place in him, which has induced many to suppose that this infectious matter is produced in all fevers whatever, and that they are all more or less contagious.

The effluvia arising from the human body, if long confined to one place without being diffused in the atmosphere, will, it is well known, acquire a singular virulence, and will if applied to the bodies of men, become the cause of fever. Exhalations arising from animal or vegetable substances in a state of putrefaction, have been looked upon as another general cause of fever: marshy or moist grounds, acted upon by heat for any length of time, usually send forth exhalations which prove a never failing source of fever, but more particularly in warm climates. Various hypotheses have been maintained, with respect to the proximate cause of fever; some supposing it to be a lentor or viscosity prevailing in the mass of blood, and stagnating in the extreme vessels; others, that it is a noxious matter introduced into or generated in the body, and that the increased action of the heart and arteries is the effect of nature to expel the morbid matter; others, that it consisted in an increased secretion of bile; and others again, that it is to be attributed to a spasmodic constriction of the extreme vessels on the surface of the body; which last was the doctrine taught by the late Dr. Cullen.

An attack of fever is generally marked by the patient's being seized

with a considerable degree of languor or sense of debility, together with a sluggishness in motion, and frequent yawning and stretching; the face and extremities at the same time become pale, and the skin over the whole surface of the body appears constricted; he then perceives a sensation of cold in his back, passing from thence over his whole frame, and this sense of cold continuing to increase; tremors in the limbs and rigors of the body succeed.

With these there is a loss of appetite, want of taste in the mouth, slight pains in the head, back, and loins, small and frequent respirations. The sense of cold and its effects after a little time become less violent, and are alternated with flushings, and at last, going off altogether, they are succeeded by great heat diffused generally over the whole body; the face looks flushed, the skin is dry as likewise the tongue; universal restlessness prevails, with a violent pain in the head, oppression at the chest, sickness at the stomach, and an inclination to vomit. There is likewise a great thirst and costiveness, and the pulse is full and frequent, beating perhaps 90 or 100 strokes in a minute. When the symptoms run very high, and there is a considerable determination of blood to the head, a delirium will arise. In this fever, as well as most others, there is generally an increase of symptoms towards evening.

If the disease is likely to prove fatal, either by its continuing a long time, or by the severity of its symptoms, then a starting of the tendons, picking at the bed-clothes, involuntary discharges by urine and stool, coldness of the extremities, and hiccups, will be observed; where no such appearances take place, the disease will go through its course.

As a fever once produced will go on, although its cause be entirely removed, and as the continued or fresh

application of a cause of fever, neither will increase that which is already produced, nor occasion a new one, there can be no certainty as to the duration of fever, and it is only by attending to certain appearances or changes, which usually take place on the approach of a crisis, that we can form any opinion or decision. The symptoms pointing out the approach of a crisis, are the pulse becoming soft, moderate, and near its natural speed; the tongue losing its fur and becoming clean, with an abatement of thirst; the skin being covered with a gentle moisture, and feeling soft to the touch; the secretory organs performing their several offices; and the urine depositing flaky crystals of a dirty red colour, and becoming turbid on being allowed to stand any time.

Many physicians have been of opinion, that there is something in the nature of all acute diseases, except those of a putrid kind, which usually determines them to be of a certain duration, and therefore that these terminations, when salutary, happen at certain periods of the disease rather than at others, unless disturbed in their progress by an improper mode of treatment, or the arising of some accidental circumstance. These periods are known by the appellation of critical days; and from the time of Hippocrates down to the present, have been pretty generally admitted. The truth of them, Dr. Thomas thinks can hardly be disputed, however they may be interrupted by various causes. A great number of phenomena shew us, that both in the sound state and the diseased, nature has a tendency to observe certain periods; for instance, the vicissitudes of sleeping and watching occurring with such regularity to every one; the acute periods that the menstrual flux observes, and the exact time of pregnancy in all viviparous animals, and many other such

instances that might be adduced, all prove this law.

With respect to diseases, every one must have observed the definite periods which take place in regular intermittents, as well those universal as topical, in the course of true inflammation, which at the fourth, or at the farthest the seventh day, is resolved, or after this period, changes into either abscess, gangrene, or scirrhus, in exanthematous eruptions, which if they are favourable and regular, appear on a certain and definite day; for example, the small pox about the fourth day. All these appear to be founded on immutable laws, according to which the motions of the body in health and in disease are governed.

The days on which it is supposed the termination of continued fevers principally happens, are the third, fifth, seventh, ninth, eleventh, fourteenth, seventeenth, and twentieth.

A simple continued fever terminates always by a regular crisis in the manner before mentioned, or from the febrile matter falling on some particular parts, it excites inflammation, abscess, eruption, or destroys the patient.

Great anxiety, loss of strength, intense heat, stupor, delirium, irregularity in the pulse, twitchings in the fingers and hands, picking at the bed clothes, startings of the tendons, hiccups, involuntary evacuations by urine and stool, and such like symptoms, point out the certain approach of death.

On the contrary, when the senses remain clear and distinct, the febrile heat abates, the skin is soft and moist, the pulse becomes moderate and is regular, and the urine deposits flaky crystals, we may then expect a speedy and happy termination to the disease.

The usual appearances which are to be observed on dissection of those who die of this fever, are an effusion within the cranium, and topical affections, perhaps of some viscera.

SYNOVIA, (*Synovia*, *æ*, *f*. a term of no radical meaning, coined by Paracelsus). An unctuous fluid secreted from certain glands in the joint in which it is contained. Its use is to lubricate the cartilaginous surfaces of the articulatory bones, and to facilitate their motions.

SYNOVIAL GLANDS. The assemblage of a fatty fimbriated structure within the cavities of some joints.

SYNTENOSIS, (*Syntenosis*, *is*, *f*. *συντενωσις*; from *συν*, with, and *τενω*, a tendon). A species of articulation where the bones are connected together by tendons.

SYNTHESIS, (*Synthesis*, *is*, *f*. *συνθεσις*; from *συντίθημι*, to compose). Combination. See *Analysis*.

SYPHILIS, (*Syphilis*, *is*, *f*. the name of a shepherd, who fed the flocks of king Alcithous, who proud of their number and beauty, insulted the sun; as a punishment for which fable relates, that this disease was sent on earth; or from *σιφης*, filthy). *Lues venerea*. *Morbus Gallicus*. A genus of disease in the class *cachexie* and order *impetigines* of Cullen. Towards the close of the memorable fifteenth century, about the year 1494 or 1495 the inhabitants of Europe were greatly alarmed by the sudden appearance of lues venerea. The novelty of its symptoms, and the wonderful rapidity with which it was propagated throughout every part of the known world, soon made it an important object of medical enquiry.

1. In the common language, it is said a person is poxed, injured, or infected with the venereal disease, pox, or bad distemper, when the venereal poison has been received into, or is diffused through the system, and there produces its peculiar effects. These effects or symptoms are ulcers of the mouth, fauces, spots, tetters, and ulcers of the skin, pains, swelling, and caries of the bones, &c. But as long as the effects of poison

are local and confined to or near the genitals, the disorder is not called syphilis, lues venerea, or pox; but distinguished by some particular name according to its different seat or appearance; such as clap, shanker, bubo, &c. Concerning the nature of the venereal poison, we know no more than we do about that of the small-pox or any other contagion; we know only that it produces peculiar effects, which yield to a peculiar mode of treatment. The smallest particle of this poison is sufficient to bring on the most violent disorder over the whole body.

2. It seems to spread and diffuse itself by a kind of fermentation and assimilation of matter; and like other contagions, it requires some time after being applied to the human body, before it produces that effect. It is not known whether it has different degrees of acrimony and volatility, or whether it is always the same in its nature, varying only with regard to the particular part to which it is applied, or according to the different habit and constitution or particular idiosyncrasy of the person who receives the infection. We know that mercury possesses a certain and specific power of destroying the venereal virus; but we are quite uncertain whether it acts by a sedative, astringent, or evacuant quality; or if not perhaps rather by a chemical elective attraction whereby both substances uniting with one another are changed in a third, which is no more hurtful, but has some new properties entirely distinct from those which any of them had before they were united. The variolous miasma, we know, produces its effects in about twenty or twenty-four days after the infection is received from the atmosphere, and eight or ten days if by inoculation, but the venereal virus seems to keep no particular period. At some times, and perhaps in particular persons, Dr.

Swediaur has seen shankers arise in the space of twelve hours, nay in a still shorter time; indeed he mentions in a few minutes after an impure coition, whereas in most cases, they make their appearance only in as many days. The generality of men feel the first symptoms of a clap between the second and fifth day after an impure coitus; but there are instances where they do not appear till after as many weeks or months. About ten years ago, I was consulted by a young man who was seized with a violent discharge from the glans along with a phymosis, but without any shankers, four weeks after coition; and during all the intervals, he felt not the least symptom of the disease. Some years ago, a gentleman went out from London in seemingly perfect health, to the East Indies; but on his arrival in that hot climate, after a voyage of four months a violent clap broke out before he went on shore, though he could have received no infection during the voyage, as there was not a woman on board. There are instances which render it probable that the virus may lie four, five, or six weeks, and perhaps longer, on the surface of the genitals before it is absorbed; and were it not then to produce a shanker, might probably not be absorbed at all. We see daily examples, where common women communicate the infection to different men in the space of several weeks, while they themselves have not the least symptom of syphilis local or universal, the poison lying all that time in the vagina harmless, and generally without being absorbed. How long the venereal virus may lurk in the body itself, after it has been absorbed into the mass of blood, before it produces any sensible effects is a matter of equal uncertainty. There is scarce a practitioner who has not observed instances of its remaining harmless for

weeks or even months in the body. I had access to observe a case, where after lying dormant for half a year, it broke out with unequivocal symptoms. But the following instance, if to be depended upon, is still more extraordinary.

Some years ago, says the above writer, I was consulted by a gentleman about a sore throat, which I declared to be venereal. My patient was astonished; and assured me that for nine years past he had not had the least venereal complaint, nor had he any reason to believe he had since received any infection: but that he had been in the East Indies, where he was affected with a violent clap. On his return to Europe, being to appearance in good health, he married, and continued perfectly free of any such complaint ever since. By a mercurial course however, the complaint for which he applied to me was completely removed. With regard to its effects, the venereal poison follows no constant rule: for though, in general, it affects first the throat, where it produces ulcerations, while in others it exerts its virulence on the skin or bones. Whilst the greatest part of mankind are thus easily affected by this poison, there are some few who seem to be altogether unsusceptible of the infection with the variolous contagion, though they go into infected places, and expose themselves to inoculation or every hazard by which the disease is generally communicated.

Some persons are more liable than others to be infected who are seemingly of the same habit; nay, the very same person seems to be more liable to be infected at one time than another, and those who have been once infected seem to be more liable to catch the infection a second time, than those who never were infected before with the disease. The climate, season, age, state of health, diosyncrasy are, perhaps, as in other

diseases, the necessary predisposing causes. The same difference is observable in the progress made by the disease after the patient is infected. In some the progress is slow, and the disease appears scarce to gain any ground, while in others it advances with the utmost rapidity, and speedily produces the most terrible symptoms. Whether the venereal poison can be absorbed into the system, without a previous excoriation, or ulceration of the genitals, or some other parts of the surface of the body, is still a matter of doubt. Several cases, however, have occurred which render it highly probable, if not certain, that the poison really is now and then absorbed, without any previous excoriation or ulceration whatsoever, and thus produces buboes and other venereal symptoms in the body.

It has been asserted by the earliest and even by some late writers, that it may be caught by lying in the same bed or living in the same room with or after an infected person. What may have been the case at the commencement of the disease, cannot be said, but the most accurate observations and experiments which have been made upon the subject, do not confirm this to be the case in our times. Nor are nurses infected in the Lock Hospital, where they live night and day with patients in all stages of the distemper. The fact seems to be, that patients in our times are apt to impose upon themselves or upon physicians and surgeons, with regard to this matter; and the above opinion easily gains ground among the vulgar, especially in countries where people are more influenced by prejudices, superstition, servile situation in life, or other circumstances. Hence, we sometimes hear the most ridiculous accounts given in those countries by friars and common soldiers, of the

manner by which they came to this disorder: such as piles, gravel, colics, contusions, fevers, little houses, lying in suspected beds, or lying in bed with a suspected person, retention of the semen, coition with a woman in menstruation, the use of cyder, bad wine or beer, &c.

Another question undecided is, whether the venereal poison ever infects any fluid of our body besides the mucous and lymphatic system. Does the venereal poison in an infected woman ever affect the milk, and consequently can the infection be conveyed to the infant by the milk alone, without any venereal ulcer on or about the nipples? It is equally a matter of uncertainty whether the venereal disease is ever conveyed from an infected father or mother, by coition, to the foetus, provided their genitals are sound; or, whether a child is ever affected with venereal symptoms in the uterus of an infected mother. Such infected infants as came under the observation of Dr. Swediaur or of his friends whose practice afforded them frequent opportunities, of seeing newborn infants, seemed rather to militate against the opinion. Neither he nor any of them, have ever been able to observe ulcerations or other symptoms of a venereal kind upon newborn children; and such as make their appearance four, six, or eight, or more days afterwards, on the genitals, anus, lips, mouth, &c. may rather be supposed to arise by infection during the passage from ulcers in the vagina of the mother, the skin of the infant being then nearly in as tender a state as the glans, penis, or the labia; and this perhaps at the time when an absorption of the venereal poison might easier take place without a previous excoriation, or ulceration of the skin. All the ways, therefore, by which we see, in our days, the venereal poison communi-

cated from an unhealthy to an healthy person may be reduced to the following heads:

1. By the coition of an healthy person with another who is infected with venereal symptoms of the genitals.

2. By the coition of an healthy person with another, apparently healthy, in whose genitals the poison lies concealed, without having yet produced any bad symptom. Thus a woman who has perhaps received the infection from a man two or three days before, may during that time infect, and often does infect the man or men who have to do with her afterwards, without having any symptoms of the disease visible upon herself; and, *vice versa*, a man may infect a woman in the same manner. Such instances occur in practice every day.

3. By sucking; in this case the nipples of the wet nurse may be infected by venereal ulcers in the mouth of the child: or *vice versa*, the nipples of the nurse being infected, will occasion venereal ulcers in the child's nose, mouth, or lips. It is uncertain as mentioned above, whether the venereal poison was ever propagated by means of the milk from the breast.

4. By exposing to the contact of venereal poison, any part of the surface of the body, by kissing, touching, &c. especially if the parts so exposed have been previously excoriated, wounded, or ulcerated by any cause whatever. In this manner we frequently see venereal ulcers arise in the scrotum and thighs; and there are some well attested instances where the infection took place in the fingers of midwives or surgeons. Several instances are recorded of venereal ulcers in the nostrils, eye-lids, and lips of persons who had touched their own genitals, or those of others, affected at the time with local venereal com-

plaints, and then rubbed their nostrils, &c. with the fingers, without previously washing the hands. There was a few years ago in London, a melancholy example of a young lady, who, after having drawn a decayed tooth, and replaced it with one taken immediately from a young woman apparently in perfect health, was soon after affected with an ulcer in the mouth. The fore manifested symptoms of a venereal nature; but such was its obstinacy, that it resisted the most powerful mercurial remedies, terminating at last in a caries of the maxilla with a most shocking erosion of the mouth and face, by which the unhappy patient was destroyed. During all this, however, we are informed that not the smallest venereal symptom was perceived in the woman from whom the sound tooth was procured.

5. By wounding any part of the body with a lancet or knife infected with the venereal virus. In this instance there is a similarity between the venereal poison and that of the small-pox. There are several examples of the latter being produced by bleeding with a lancet which had been previously employed for the purpose of inoculation, or of opening variolous pustules, without being properly cleaned afterwards. In Moravia in the year 1577 a number of persons who being assembled in a house for bathing, had themselves, according to the custom of that time, scarified by the barber, were all of them infected with the venereal disease, and treated accordingly. Krato the physician, and Jordan who gave a description of this distemper, are both of opinion that it was communicated by means of the scarifying instrument. And Van Swieten relates several instances where the lues was communicated by similar carelessness in cleaning the instrument used in bleeding or scarification.

SYRIÆ OLĒUM. A fragrant essential oil, obtained by distilling the canary balsam plant or moldavica.

SYRIAN HERB MASTICH. See *Marum syriacum*.

SYRUP. (*Syrupus*, i, m.). When sugar is dissolved in any vegetable liquor, to the consistence of honey, a medicinal preparation is formed called syrup; which, if obtained from a single plant, is called *simple*; but if from more than one, *compound*.

SYRŪPUS ACĒTI. A refrigerating and antiseptic syrup.

SYRŪPUS ALTHÆÆ. An emollient and demulcent; mostly given to allay tickling coughs, hoarseness, &c. in conjunction with other remedies.

SYRŪPUS CARYŌPHŶLLI RUBRI. A warm and stimulating syrup.

SYRŪPUS COLCHICI. An acrid and diuretic compound given in dropsies.

SYRŪPUS CORTICIS AURANTII. A bitter and stomachic.

SYRŪPUS CRŌCI. This imparts a beautiful colour to liquids, and is sometimes employed as a cordial. Amongst the vulgar syrup of saffron is in high esteem in measles, small-pox, &c.

SYRŪPUS LIMŌNIS SUCCI. A very pleasant, cooling, and acid syrup which may be exhibited with advantage, in gastritis and bilious affections.

SYRŪPUS MŌRI. Syrup of mulberries, is very grateful and aperient, and may be given with such intentions to children.

SYRŪPUS PAPAVERIS ALBI. A useful anodyne preparation which may be added with advantage to a vast variety of medicines against diseases of the bowels, coughs, &c.

SYRŪPUS PAPAVERIS ERRATICI. A much milder preparation than the former.

SYRŪPUS RIBIS NIGRI. Aperient and diuretic qualities are attributed to this preparation.

SYRŪPUS ROSÆ. A useful laxative for children.

SYRŪPUS ROSĀRUM RUBRĀRUM. An adstringent and nutritive syrup mostly given to children with weak bowels who refuse the more nauseous drugs.

SYRŪPUS RUBI IDÆI. A pleasant aperient syrup for children.

SYRŪPUS SCILLITĪCUS. Expecto- rant and diuretic.

SYRŪPUS SPINÆ CERVINÆ. Syrup of buckthorn was formerly much used as a purgative but now seldom except in glysters.

SYRŪPUS TOLUTĀNUS. A use-

ful balsamic syrup, calculated to allay tickling coughs and hoarsenesses.

SYRUPUS VIOLÆ. A pleasant laxative for young children.

SYRŪPUS ZINGIBĒRIS. A carminative.

SYSSARCŌSIS, (*Syffarcosis*, *is*, f. *συσσερκωσις*, from *συν* and *σάρξ*, flesh). A species of union of bones in which one bone is united to another by means of an intervening muscle. In this manner the os hyoides is connected with the sternum and other parts.

SYSTŌLE, (*Systole*, *es*, f. *συστολή*, from *συσελλω*, to contract). The contraction of the heart.

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TABACUM, (*Tabacum*, *i*, n. from *Tobago*, the island whence it was first brought). *Tobacco*. See *Nicotiana*.

TABES, (*Tabes*, *is*, f. from *tabeo*, to grow thin). A wasting of the body. A genus of disease in the class *cachexia* and order *marcores* of Cullen; characterised by emaciation and weakness, attended with hectic fever. It has three species: 1. *Tabes parulenta*, from an ulcerous discharge: 2. *Tabes scrofulosa*, from a scrofulous habit: 3. *Tabes venenata*, from poison.

TACAMAHACCA, (*Tacamahacca*, *a*, f. Indian). The name of a resinous substance which exudes both spontaneously and when incisions are made into the stem of the *Fagara octandria*; *foliolis tomentosis* of Linnæus, and not as was formerly supposed from the *Populus balsamifera* Linnæi. Two kinds of tacamahacca are met with in the shops. The best, called, from its being collected in a kind of gourd shell, *tacamahacca* in

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shells; is somewhat unctuous and soft, of a pale yellowish or greenish colour, a bitterish aromatic taste, and a fragrant delightful smell, approaching to that of lavender and ambergris. The more common sort is in semi-transparent grains, of a whitish, yellowish, brownish, or greenish colour, and of a less grateful smell than the former. *Tacamahacca* was formerly in high estimation as an ingredient in warm stimulating plaisters; and although seldom used internally, it may be given with advantage as a corroborant and adstringent balsamic.

TACTUS. See *Touch*.

TÆNIA, (*Tenia*, *a*, f. *ταινια*, a Hebrew word, signifying a fillet; so named from its resemblance to a fillet or piece of tape). The tape worm. A genus of intestinal worms; characterized by a long, flat, and jointed body. Species: 1. *Tenia osculis marginalibus*, the long tape-worm, and the soleum of authors, which is peculiar to this country,

Russia, France, &c.: 2. *Tania ovalis superficialibus*, the broad tape-worm, which is peculiar to the inhabitants of Switzerland, &c. See *Worms*.

TALC. See *Talcum*.

TALCUM, (*Talcum*, i, n. from *talk*, German). Talc. A white, grey, yellow, or greenish substance of a soft and soapy touch, formed of transparent laminæ placed upon each other. Talc is composed of pure magnesia mixed with near twice its weight of silica and less than its weight of alumine. There are several different appearances of talc. The greenish foliaceous Venetian talc has been preferred for medicinal uses, as possessing antacid and aperient qualities.

TALUS, (*Talus*, i, m.). A synonym of *Astragalus*. See *Astragalus*.

TAMALAPATRA. The Indian leaf is to termed by some authors. See *Cassia lignea*.

TAMARIND. See *Tamarindus*.

TAMARINDUS, (*Tamarindus*, i, m. *ταμαρινδος*; from *tamar* or *tamarindi*, which is in the Arabian language a synonym of the dactylus or date). *Oscyphænicon*. The Tamarind. The tree which affords this fruit is the *Tamarindus indica* of Linnæus. Class *Monadelphia*. Order *Triandria*. The Tamarind is employed as a laxative, and for abating thirst or heat in various inflammatory complaints, and for correcting putrid disorders, especially those of a bilious kind, in which the cathartic, antiseptic, and refrigerant qualities of the fruit have been found equally useful. The pulp of tamarinds is an ingredient in the *electuarium e cassia* and *electuarium e senna*.

TAMARINDUS INDICA. The systematic name of the tamarind tree. See *Tamarindus*.

TAMARISCUS, (*Tamariscus*, from *Tamarik*, absterion Heb. named from

its properties of cleansing and purifying the blood). The bark, wood, and leaves of this tree *Tamarix gallica* of Linnæus were formerly employed medicinally, though seldom used at present. The former for its aperient and corroborant virtues in obstructions of the liver; the latter in icterus, hæmoptysis, and some affections of the skin.

TAMARIX GALICA. The systematic name of the tamarisk tree. See *Tamariscus*.

TAMEPOISON. See *Vincetoxicum*.

TANACETUM, (*Tanacetum*, i, n. corrupted from *tanasia*, *athanasia*, the old name for tansy). *Tanasia*. *Athanasia*. *Parthenium mas*. Tansy.—*Tanacetum vulgare, foliis bipinnatis incisis serratis* of Linnæus. Class *Syn-genesia*. Order *Polygamia superflua*. The leaves and flowers of tansy have a strong, not very disagreeable smell, and a bitter somewhat aromatic taste. The virtues of tansy are tonic, stomachic, anthelmintic, emmenagogue, and resolvent. It has been much used as a vermifuge; and testimonies of its efficacy are given by many respectable physicians.

TANACETUM BALSAMITA. The systematic name of the officinal alecost. See *Balsamita mas*.

TANACETUM HORTENSE. See *Balsamita mas*.

TANACETUM VULGARE. The systematic name of the common tansy. See *Tanacetum*.

TANASIA. See *Tanacetum*.

TANSY. See *Tanacetum*.

TANSY, WILD. See *Potentilla*.

TAPPING. See *Parancetesis*.

TAPSUS BARBATUS. See *Verbascum*.

TAR. See *Pix liquida*.

TAR, BARBADOES. See *Petroleum barbadense*.

TARANTISMUS, (*Tarantismus*, i, m, from *tarantula*, the animal whose bite is supposed to be cured only by music). The desire of dancing

which is produced by the bite of the tarantula.

TARANTULA, (*Tarantula*, *a*, *f*. from *taranta*, a city in Naples, where they abound). A kind of venomous spider whose bite is said to be cured by music.

TARAXACUM, (*Taraxacum*, *i*, *n*. *Ταραξάκων*, from *ταρασσω*, to alter or change; because it alters the state of the blood). *Dens leonis*. The dandelion, or pissabed. *Leontodon taraxacum caule squamis inferne reflexis, foliis runcinatis denticulatis levibus*. Class *Syngenesia*. Order *Polygamia equalis*. The young leaves of this plant in a blanché state have the taste of endive, and make an excellent addition to those plants eaten early in the spring as salads; and Murray informs us, that at Goettingen, the roots are roasted and substituted for coffee by the poorer inhabitants, who find that an infusion prepared in this way can hardly be distinguished from that of the coffee-berry. The expressed juice of dandelion is bitter and somewhat acrid; that of the root is bitterer, and possesses more medicinal power than any other part of the plant. It has been long in repute as a detergent and aperient, and its diuretic effects may be inferred from the vulgar name it bears in most of the European languages, *quasi lecti minga et urinaria herba dicitur*; and there are various proofs of its efficacy in jaundice, dropsy, consumption, and some cutaneous disorders.

TARCHON SYLVESTRIS. See *Ptarmica*.

TARE. See *Ervum*.

TARSI, EXTENSOR MINOR. See *Plantares*.

TARSUS (*Tarsus*, *i*, *m*, *ταρσος*). The tarsus is composed of seven bones, viz. the astragalus, os calcis, os naviculare, os cuboides, and three ossa cuneiformia.

The *astragalus* is the uppermost bone of the foot, and the most con-

siderable in bulk, if we except the os calcis. Its upper part is formed into a large smooth head, round the basis of which is a rough fossa, that serves for the attachment of ligaments. The upper convex surface of the head, which resembles a pulley, is admitted into the cavity of the tibia; the inner side of this head is flat and smooth, for its articulation with the malleolus internus, while its outer side affords another flat but broader surface, for its articulation with the malleolus externus. Both these lateral surfaces are covered with a cartilage, which is continued from the upper convex part of the head, and descends lower down on the outer than on the inner side. Anteriorly, the astragalus is convex, and covered with cartilage, for its articulation with the os naviculare. The under surface of the bone affords two articulating surfaces, separated by a deep irregular fossa. The anterior of these two surfaces is very small, and slightly convex; the posterior one oblong and concave. They both serve for the articulation of this bone with the os calcis.

The *os calcis*, or *calcaneum*, which is the largest bone of the foot, is of a very irregular figure. It is long, and somewhat flattened at its sides. Behind, it is formed into a considerable tuberosity, called the heel, which is slightly hollow above, and rough behind, where the tendo Achillis is inserted into it. Without this tuberosity, which supports us in an erect posture, and when we walk, we should be liable to fall backwards. The upper surface of the bone rises so as to form an irregular, oblong, smooth prominence, which is adapted to the posterior concave surface of the astragalus. The fore part of this prominence is separated by a narrow fossa, from a small, smooth, and slightly concave surface, situated obliquely, and which receives the small convex

surface described at the fore part of the under surface of the astragalus. Anteriorly, this bone is formed into an oblong, smooth, convex surface, which is circular above, and somewhat pointed below. This surface is adapted to the os cuboides. The lower surface of the bone is flat, and immediately beyond this fore part we observe two tubercles, one internal, and the other external, which give origin to muscles. The rest of this surface is concave, for lodging the flexor muscles, and rough, for the attachment of ligaments. The external side of the bone is flat, and affords a superficial groove for the tendon of the peroneus longus; the internal side is hollowed, for the lodgment of muscles, and for the safe passage of tendons, nerves, and vessels.

The *os naviculare*, or *scaphoides*, is situated between the astragalus and the *ossa cuneiformia*, at the inner side of the foot. Its posterior surface is concave, and adapted to the anterior head of the astragalus, and its anterior surface convex, affording three articulating surfaces, which answer to the three cuneiform bones. Of these three surfaces, the internal one is the largest. Its upper surface is convex, and affords a rough fossa. Its under surface is hollow, for the lodgment of muscles, and rough and unequal, for the attachment of ligaments. The outer side of this bone is rounded, except where it is joined, by a semi-circular smooth surface, to the os cuboides. On its inner side is observed a tuberosity, into which the tendon of the tibialis posticus is inserted.

The *os cuboides* is of a very irregular shape, and is placed at the outside and at the anterior part of the tarsus. Posteriorly, it is formed into an oblong, articulating surface, which receives the fore-part of the os calcis. Anteriorly, it is flat, and slightly divided into two articulating

surfaces, which are connected with the two last bones of the metatarsus. Its upper surface is rough and convex; its under surface is broader, and affords a considerable protuberance, on the fore part of which is a groove, for the tendon of the peroneus longus. On the inner side of the bone are two articulating surfaces, covered with cartilage; the foremost of these is flat and oblong, for its articulation with the os cuneiforme externum; the hindmost is small and semi-circular, for its articulation with the os naviculare. The external side of the bone, which helps to form the outside of the foot, is shorter and more irregular than the inner side.

The *ossa cuneiformia* are the three wedge-like bones, which are placed by the sides of each other between the os naviculare and the metatarsus, and which, from their situation, are usually distinguished into os cuneiforme externum, medium, and internum. They are of unequal bulk, the middle one being the smallest, and the internal one the largest. We shall give a separate description of each.

The *os cuneiforme externum* is of a middle size, when compared with the two others. Its upper surface forms an oblong square, and, as its sides extend obliquely downwards, a sharp edge is formed at the inside of the foot: hence the bone has the appearance of a wedge. Posteriorly, it is a little concave, and nearly triangular, where it joins the os naviculare; anteriorly, it is nearly of the same shape, and slightly convex, for sustaining the metatarsal bone of the middle toe. Its external surface is divided into two articulating surfaces; the foremost and smallest of the two is joined to the inner side of the basis of the fourth metatarsal bone, while the other and longer surface is articulated with the os cuboides. Its inner side affords, in the same manner,

two surfaces, for its articulation with the os cuneiforme medium, and the outer side of the basis of the second metatarsal bone.

The *os cuneiforme medium*, or *minimum* as it is sometimes called on account of its size when compared with the other two, is wedged in between four bones. Its upper surface forms a more regular square than the last described bone. Anteriorly, it is triangular, and slightly concave, for its articulation with the second metatarsal bone; posteriorly, it has a similar surface, by which it is joined to the os naviculare. Its external side is contiguous to the last described bone, and its internal side is joined to the following one.

The *os cuneiforme internum*, or *maximum*, differs from the other two, in having its broad square surface placed towards the sole of the foot, where it is slightly concave, for allowing a passage to the flexors of the great toe, while its small thin edge, which appears twisted, is turned upwards. Posteriorly, it is concave, and somewhat triangular, where it is joined to the os naviculare; anteriorly, it is convex, and of a semi-lunar shape, for supporting the metatarsal bone of the great toe. Of its two sides, the inner one is rough and convex, affording two tubercles below; the external side is flat, and consists of two smooth surfaces, covered with cartilage: the direction of these two surfaces is nearly at right angles with each other; the posterior one, which is the largest, is joined to the os cuneiforme medium, while the anterior one is connected with the basis of the second metatarsal bone.

When these seven bones, which compose the tarsus, are joined together, they are convex above, where they help to form the back of the foot, and afford a concavity below, in which the tendons, vessels, and nerves of the foot are placed secure

from compression. Their connections, are with one another, and with the bones of the metatarsus, by amphiarthrosis, except the articulation of the astragalus with the os naviculare, which is by arthrodia.

The astragalus is joined to the tibia and fibula by ginglymus, but the articulation being loose, it allows motion in every direction. All these articulations are secured by very strong ligaments.

The ligaments which connect the leg and foot, are a capsular, and two lateral ligaments. The capsular ligament is attached to the lower extremities of the tibia and fibula, and adheres all round the upper surface and the two lateral surfaces of the astragalus. Of the two lateral ligaments, the internal one is short and thick; it begins from the lower, and chiefly from the anterior part of the malleolus internus, and descending somewhat obliquely backwards, spreading broader as it descends, is fixed to the upper part of the inner side of the astragalus. Some of the fibres of this ligament are spread almost transversely to the back part of the malleolus internus. The whole of it is covered by a broad and thick annular ligament, which begins from the lower extremity of the malleolus internus, and spreading wider as it descends, is fixed to the inner sides of the astragalus and os calcis. This ligament serves to strengthen the articulation of the leg with the foot; but its principal use seems to be, to bind down the tendons of the flexor longus pollicis, the flexor longus digitorum, and the tibialis posticus muscles, and likewise to secure the vessels and nerves in their way to the foot. The external lateral ligament is of greater length and thickness, though looser than the internal one. It begins from the anterior part of the malleolus externus, and descends

ing obliquely backwards, is fixed to the upper and outer part of the os calcis. Besides this, many other strong fibres, which have been sometimes described as a separate ligament, are seen extending, almost in a transverse direction, from the inner part of the malleolus externus to the back part of the astragalus. This external lateral ligament is likewise covered by an annular ligament, which like the one just now described, serves rather to bind down the tendons of the foot, than to strengthen the articulation, though it is certainly useful in this latter respect. This annular ligament adheres below to the outer side of the os calcis, after which it separates into two portions; one of these extends to the lower part of the tibia, while the other is fixed to the inner side of the astragalus and os naviculare.

The bones of the tarsus are likewise firmly connected by a great number of strong ligaments, which cover their upper and under surfaces in the same manner as was observed of the bones of the carpus; and when we join the astragalus to the os calcis and os naviculare, we find an opening, which, in the recent subject, is filled up by ligaments, so that the body rests upon a yielding basis, by which means we sustain a less shock in walking or jumping.

All these bones are of a very spongy texture covered with a compact bony lamella. Like the bones of the carpus, they are all in a cartilaginous state in the fœtus, except the astragalus and os calcis, both of which are in a great measure ossified at the ordinary time of birth; and the great tuberosity of the latter, unto which the tendo Achillis is inserted, becomes an epiphysis before it is completely united to the rest of the bone.

TARTAR, (*Tartarum*, i, n. from *ταρταρος*, infernal; because it is the sediment or dregs). The concretion

which fixes to the inside of hogheads containing wine. It is alloyed with much extractive and colouring matter, from which it is purified by decoction with argillaceous earths and subsequent crystallization. By this means it becomes perfectly white, and shoots out crystals of tartar, consisting of a peculiar acid, called acid of tartar and potash. Its virtues are eccoprotic, diuretic, and refrigerant, and it is exhibited in abdominal physconia, dropsy, inflammatory and bilious fevers, dyspepsia from rancid or fat substances, bilious diarrhœa and colic, hæmorrhoids and obstipation.

TARTAR, ACID OF *Acidum tartarosum. Sal essentielle tartari. Acidum tartari essentielle.* Tartareous Acid. To obtain the pure tartareous acid, take two pounds of the crystals, and dissolve them in water, into which chalk is to be thrown by degrees till the liquid is saturated. A precipitate is formed, which is a true tartrate of lime, is tasteless, and cracks between the teeth. This tartrate is put into a cucurbit, and nine ounces of sulphuric acid, with five ounces of water, are poured on it. After twelve hours digestion, with occasional stirring the tartareous acid is set at liberty in the solution, and may be cleared of the sulphate of lime by means of cold water. The virtues of this acid are antiseptic, refrigerant, diuretic. It is used in acute fevers, scurvy, and hæmorrhage.

TARTAR, EMETIC. See *Antimonium tartarifatum*.

TARTAR, OIL OF. See *Aqua kali*.

TARTAR, REGENERATED. See *Kali acetatum*.

TARTAR, SALT OF. See *Kali preparatum*.

TARTAR, SOLUBLE. See *Kali tartarifatum*.

TARTAR, SPIRIT OF. Pyro-tartareous acid. If the crystals of tartar be distilled by a strong heat, without any additional body, they furnish an

empyreumatic acid, called the pyro-tartareous acid, or spirit of tartar, and a very fetid empyreumatic oil. In the retort there remains a coal which already contains a great deal of potash; but the ashes of this coal contain a still greater quantity of potash, scarcely any earth, and no natural salts. This mild potash, when freed from its earthy particles, is generally called salt of tartar, see *Kali preparatum*; and when liquefied in the atmosphere, it forms the *aqua kali* of the pharmacopœias.

TARTAR, VITRIOLATED. See *Kali vitriolatum*.

TARTÄRUM EMETICUM. See *Antimonium tartarifatum*.

TARTÄRUM REGENERÄTUM. See *Kali acetatum*.

TARTÄRUM SOLUBILE. See *Kali tartarifatum*.

TARTÄRUS AMMONIÆ. See *Tartris ammoniacæ*.

TARTÄRUS CHALYBÆATUS. See *Tartris potassæ acidulus ferratus*.

TARTRIS AMMŌNIACÆ, *Alkali volatile tartarifatum* of Bergman. *Sal ammoniacum tartareum*. *Tartarus ammoniac*. The virtues of the tartrite of ammoniac are diaphoretic, diuretic, and deobstruent. It is prescribed in fevers, atonic exanthemata, catarrh, arthritic and rheumatic arthrodynia, hysteric spasms, &c.

TARTRIS POTASSÆ. See *Kali tartarifatum*.

TARTRIS POTASSÆ ACIDŪLUS. See *Cremor tartari*.

TARTRIS POTASSÆ ACIDŪLUS FERRÄTUS. *Globuli martiales*. *Tartarus chalybeatus*. *Mars solubilis*. *Ferrum potabile*. Its virtues are adstringent. It is principally used externally in the form of fomentation or bath in contusions, distortions, and luxations.

TARTRIS POTASSÆ ACIDŪLUS STIBIÄTUS. See *Antimonium tartarifatum*.

TARTRIS SODÆ. *Sal polychres-*

tus Seignetti. *Sal rupellensis*. *Alkali minerale tartarifatum*. This preparation is commonly supposed to be a triple salt, though only composed of the tartareous acid and soda; and therefore called tartris sodæ in the new chemical nomenclature. In a large dose it proves cathartic, in a lesser diuretic and deobstruent; and is given against saburra of the primæ viæ, obstipation, and in the cure of agues, and abdominal physconia.

TARTRITES, (*Tartris, tis, m.*) Salts formed by the combination of the tartareous acid with various bases; as, the *acidulous tartrite of potash*, commonly called cremor tartar, &c.

TASTE. The organ of taste differs but slightly from that of touch. It appears, by certain experiments, to be seated in the tongue chiefly; for neither does sugar, applied to any other part of the mouth, excite the least sense of taste in the mind; nor any other sapid body, unless it contain something vehemently penetrating; in which case the palate, root of the tongue, uvula, and even the œsophagus, are affected by the sapid acrimony. That sensation, which is sometimes excited in the stomach, œsophagus, and fauces, by the regurgitation of the aliments, seems also to belong to the tongue, to which the sapid vapours are applied.

Only the upper surface and lateral edges of the tongue are fitted by nature to exercise the sense of taste. By the tongue we understand a muscular body, lodged in the mouth, obtuse, very broad in man, and divided in the middle by an obscure sulcus. Its posterior and lower parts are variously connected to the adjacent bones and muscles; its anterior and upper parts are moveable. In that portion which constitutes the organ of taste, the skin, continuous with that of the face and mouth, adheres to the muscular flesh, but is pulpy and soft, from the perpetual

warmth and moisture. From this skin arise innumerable nervous papillæ, of a more considerable size here than in other parts. Of these there are several kinds; the first kind consists of nine or ten at the back part of the tongue, disposed in a line on each side of the foramen cæcum. These, surrounded by a circular groove, for the most part resemble an inverted cone, and have a deep sinus in their middle; but are otherwise hard, and but indifferently adapted for tasting, although you can easily trace nerves into them. There are some other papillæ of the same kind found scattered before these upon the back of the tongue. These degenerate into the fungiform class of papillæ, which are found distributed over the upper surface of the tongue, less and slenderer than the former, always becoming more pointed as they proceed forwards, till around the edges of the tongue they are crowded together, and disposed in diverging lines. The third sort of papillæ are conical. These are by far the most numerous, are dispersed among the former, and are spread copiously over the tongue. The most anterior of them in the pex of the tongue are more inclined and fluctuate; they are most remarkably numerous in the edges of the tongue; there are even some behind the foramen cæcum. They are highly sensible, and constitute the true organ of taste; other papillæ are intermixed, partly conical, and partly filiform; and of the conical ones some are larger, and others successively smaller.

These papillæ, besides numerous vessels, are supplied with nerves, which may be traced into the larger papillæ, and with which the tongue is more largely supplied than almost any other part. For besides a nerve of the eighth pair, which, with one of its principal three branches, enters deeply

into the basis of the tongue, covered by the cerato-glossus, near the os hyoides; there is also a considerable nerve that goes to the muscles of the tongue from the ninth pair, which having inosculated with the first nerve of the neck, and with the large cervical ganglion, and having sent a branch downwards, often uniting with the eighth pair, and constantly with the second and third of the neck, and supplying the muscles arising from the sternum, and frequently communicating with the phrenic nerve, proceeds with the rest of its trunk to the tongue. This communicates in the cerato-glossus, by many branches, with the fifth pair, and is chiefly spent upon the genio-glossus. Lastly, the third branch of the fifth pair having sent upwards or received the cord of the tympanum, and given other branches to the internal pterygoid, and biventer; to the maxillary gland, forming with these a ganglion; to the sublingual gland, and crossing, with its principal trunk the cerato-glossus, where it is united with the ninth pair, comes to the tongue, in company with the deep seated artery, with which it penetrates to the tip of the tongue, where it becomes cutaneous. To this nerve, therefore, if there be any preference, the sense of taste is to be especially ascribed, which is even confirmed by morbid examples. Lastly, the papillæ of the tongue are of a hard texture; a firm, pulpy, cellular substance uniting the arteries, veins, and nerves into masses, of which many compose one large papilla.

The arterial and venous villi which run between the papillæ, are for the purposes of exhalation and inhalation, and have nothing to do with taste, farther than that they separate from the blood a liquor proper for dissolving salts, and for keeping moist the papillæ, which they pour out on the back of the tongue. On the upper

and back part of the tongue are seated many simple muciferous glands, opening by one or more outlets, and of a round shape, formed by an hemispherical membrane, and the fleshy part of the tongue. Some of these open into an obscure blind cavity, of an uncertain figure, which is placed in the middle of the largest papillæ, and commonly contains some of them.

The papillæ of the human tongue are covered only by a mucous, semipellucid membrane, which adheres closely to them, and serves them as a cuticle. But, in animals, a perforated net-work receives the papillæ, which enter into hollow cornuted sheaths.

Under the papillæ lies the muscular substance of the tongue, composed of various muscles, but in man hardly extricable. The lower part is in a great measure made up of the genio-glossus muscle extended outwards from the commissure of the chin, and distributed like rays upon the tongue. The upper and lateral parts are composed of the stylo-glossus, whose fibres run to the tip of the tongue. Its middle part, between these, is composed of the proper lingual muscle, which arising from itself before the pharynx, and from the stylo-glossus, but deeper, proceeding forwards, is terminated there, and in the genio-glossus muscle, and between that and the stylo-glossus, constitutes a considerable part of the tongue. The back part is formed by the cerato-glossus, of which the fibres ascend upwards and backwards, and which is included between the stylo-glossus, and lingualis, and, by the chondro-glossus, an entirely different muscle, which arises from the small bones of the os hyoides, and the nearest part of its basis, from whence passing outwards, covered by lateral layers of the genio-glossus, and joining the stylo-glossus, it disappears in the tongue. By the action of these muscles, the

whole tongue is moveable in all directions, and is capable of varying its own figure, becoming concave when elevated by the stylo-glossus, being again flattened by the cerato-glossus, being rendered narrow, and almost cylindrical, by the transverse fibres of the tongue; besides which there are other orders in the human tongue inextricable and intermixed with much tenacious fat.

The arteries of the tongue are numerous. The largest, which is deep seated and serpentine, comes from the external carotid, and extends along the lower part to the tip of the tongue; a smaller superficial artery, incumbent on the sublingual gland, and inosculating with the preceding, arises either from it, or from the labial. Other small posterior arteries arise either from branches of the labial, or from the tonsillaris. The veins of the tongue are variously intricated, and difficult to describe; one, lying deep, accompanies the nerve of the ninth pair; another superficial, accompanies the mental artery, and, inosculating with the former, forms the ranular vein; but all of them tend towards that large vein, which is a different branch of the internal jugular, from the cerebral one. They variously communicate with the adjacent tonsillary, thyroid, pharyngeal, and cutaneous plexuses; and on the back of the tongue, before the epiglottis, those of the right and left sides are interwoven with each other. Lymphatic vessels are found rather in the neighbourhood of the tongue, than in the tongue itself.

The papillæ of the tongue, being larger and softer than those of the skin, and perpetually moist, perform the office of touch more exquisitely than those of the skin, which are dry and small; hence the tongue suffers more acute pain: moreover, the cutaneous papillæ receive no other sensations from salts than those of

moisture or pain. But the papillæ of the tongue being erected and somewhat protuberant, to perform the office of taste, are affected in such a manner by salts dissolved in water, or saliva, and applied to their summits, that the mind distinguishes certain classes of tastes, as sour, sweet, rough, bitter, salt, urinous, spirituous, aromatic, pungent of various kinds, insipid, putrid, and others partly purely saline, and partly changed, and compounded by the admixture of subtile animal or vegetable oils. All very acrid salts excite pain instead of taste. Does the diversity of flavours arise from the different figures of the salts? Does this appear from the cubical figure of sea salt, the prismatical figure of nitre, or the particular configuration of vitriol, sugar, &c.? It does not seem probable, for even insipid crystals have their particular figures; and in salts, very different in taste and other properties, the figures are too much the same, and again are inconsistent in the same salt, as for example, in nitre, which may by art be rendered cubical. The cause of tastes seems therefore to reside in the internal structure of the elements, not perceptible by our senses.

But the nature of the covering of the papillæ, of the saliva, of the fluids, and of the aliments lodged in the stomach, have great influence on the perception of tastes; inasmuch, that the same flavours do not affect all ages alike, nor all temperatures; nor even the same person, according as he may be in health, diseased, or habituated to it. In general, whatever contains less salt than the saliva does, seems insipid.

The spirituous parts, more especially of vegetables, are received either into the papillæ themselves, or into the absorbing villi of the tongue; as appears from the speedy renovation of strength by liquors of this kind, even when they are not taken into the stomach.

Nature designed the diversity of flavours, that animals might know those things most proper for their food; for in general, there is no aliment unhealthy, that is of an agreeable taste; nor is any thing ill tasted that is fit for the food of man. We here take no notice of excess, by which the most healthy food may become prejudicial, or of minerals, which are not furnished by nature, but prepared by art. Thus nature has invited man to take the food necessary for his subsistence, both by the pain called hunger, and by the pleasure arising from taste. But animals, which do not learn from example and the instruction of others, distinguish flavours more accurately, and, admonished by that test, abstain cautiously from unhealthy food; and, therefore, herbivorous animals especially, to which a very great diversity of aliments mixed with noxious plants are offered, are furnished with such long papillæ, and so elegant a structure of the tongue, for which man has less occasion.

TAXIS. An operation, by which those parts which have quitted their natural situation are replaced by the hand without the assistance of instruments, as in reducing hernias, &c.

TEA. See *Thea*.

TEAR, (*Lachryma*, æ, f.). The limpid fluid secreted by the lachrymal glands, and flowing on the surface of the eye.

The organ which secretes this liquid is formed by the lachrymal glands one of which is situated in the external canthus of each orbit, and emits six or seven excretory ducts, which open on the internal surface of the upper eyelid above its tarsus, and pour forth the tears. The tears have mixed with them an arterious roscid vapour, which exhales from the internal surface of the eyelids, and external of the tunica conjunctiva, into the eye. Perhaps the aqueous humour also transudes through the pores

of the cornea on the surface of the eye. A certain part of this aqueous fluid is dissipated in the air; but the greatest part, after having performed its office, is propelled by the orbicular muscle, which so closely constricts the eyelid to the ball of the eye, as to leave no space between, unless in the internal angle, where the tears are collected. From this collection the tears are absorbed by the orifices of the punctæ lachrymalæ; from thence they are propelled through the lachrymal canals, into the lachrymal sac, and flow through the ductus nasalis into the cavity of the nostrils, under the inferior concha nasalis. The *lachrymal sac*, appears to be formed of longitudinal and transverse muscular fibres; and its three orifices furnished with small sphincters, as the spasmodic constriction of the punctæ lachrymalæ proves, if examined with a probe.

The tears have no smell but a saltish taste, as people who cry perceive. They are of a transparent colour and aqueous consistence.

The *quantity*, in its natural state, is just sufficient to moisten the surface of the eye and eyelids; but from sorrow, or any kind of stimulus applied to the surface of the eye, so great is the quantity of tears secreted, that the punctæ lachrymalæ are unable to absorb them. Thus the greatest part runs down from the internal angle of the eyelids, in the form of great and copious drops upon the cheeks. A great quantity also descends, through the lachrymal passages into the nostrils; hence those who cry have an increased discharge from the nose.

Properties.—Tears exposed to the atmosphere, or evaporated by a gentle heat, dry into a luteal mass, which often exhibits cubic crystals. Lime water is not rendered turbid by tears, because the soda they contain is not aerated, but caustic; and thus the syrup of violets is rendered green.

Fresh tears are perfectly dissolved in water, but dried tears are not. They are coagulated by alkohol of wine, and a culinary salt and soda is obtained by evaporation. Fresh as well as dried tears are soluble in alkaline salts. Fresh tears are not changed by the acid of vitriol, or acid of salt; but those dried are dissolved with an effervescence. They are momentarily inspissated by the oxygenated muriatic acid, as well as by the oxygen attracted from the atmosphere.

The *constituent principles* are,

1. Water, which constitutes the greatest part of tears.

2. A peculiar mucus, coagulated by alkohol of wine.

3. Culinary salt, caustic, and phosphorated soda; also phosphorated calx is obtained from the incinerated carbone.

Use of the tears.—1. They continually moisten the surface of the eye and eyelids, to prevent the pellucid cornea from drying and becoming opaque, or the eye from concreting with the eyelids. 2. They prevent that pain, which would otherwise arise from the friction of the eyelids against the bulb of the eye from continually winking. 3. They wash and clean away the dust of the atmosphere, or any thing acrid that has fallen into the eye, by the true vis medicatrix. 4. Crying unloads the head of congestions.

TEETH. *Dentes.* Small bones fixed in the alveoli of the upper and under jaw. In early infancy nature designs us for the softest aliment, so that the gums alone are then sufficient for the purpose of manducation; but as we advance in life, and require a different food, she wisely provides us with teeth. These are the hardest and whitest of our bones, and, at full maturity, we usually find thirty-two in both jaws; viz. sixteen above, and as many below. Their number varies indeed in dif-

rent subjects ; but it is seldom seen to exceed thirty-two, and it will very rarely be found to be less than twenty-eight.

Each tooth may be divided into two parts ; viz. its body or that part which appears above the gums ; and its fangs or root, which is fixed to the socket. The boundary between these two, close to the edge of the gum, where there is usually a small circular depression, is called the neck of the tooth. The teeth of each jaw are commonly divided into three classes ; but before each of these is treated of in particular, it will be right to say something of their general structure.

Every tooth is composed of its *cortex* or *enamel*, and its internal bony substance. The enamel, or as it is sometimes called, the vitreous part of the tooth, is a very hard and compact substance, of a white colour, and peculiar to the teeth. It is found only upon the body of the tooth, covering the outside of the bony or internal substance. When broken it appears fibrous or striated ; and all the fibres are directed from the circumference to the center of the tooth. This enamel is thickest on the grinding surface, and on the cutting edges and points of the teeth, becoming gradually thinner as it approaches the neck, where it terminates insensibly. It would seem to be an earth, impregnated with a portion of animal substance, as it is not reducible to quickness by fire, till it has first been dissolved in an acid. But, as yet, we are by no means able to ascertain its real nature. Some writers have described it as being vascular ; but it is certain that no injection will ever reach this substance ; that it receives no tinge from madder ; and that it affords no appearance of a circulation of fluids. The bony part of a tooth resembles other bones in its structure, but it is much harder than the most

compact part of bones in general. It composes the inner part of the body and neck, and the whole of the root of the tooth. This part of a tooth, when completely formed, does not, like the other bones, receive a tinge from madder, nor do the minutest injections penetrate into its substance, although many writers have asserted the contrary. Mr. Hunter has been therefore induced to deny its being vascular, although he is aware that the teeth, like other bones, are liable to swellings, and that they are found anchylosed with their sockets. He supposes, however, that both these may be original formations ; and, as the most convincing proof of their not being vascular, he reasons from the analogy between them and other bones. He observes, for instance, that in a young animal that has been fed with madder, the parts of the teeth which were formed before it was put on madder diet will appear of their natural colour, but that such parts as were formed while the animal was taking the madder, will be of a red colour ; whereas, in other bones, the hardest parts are susceptible of the dye, though more slowly than the parts which are growing. Again he tells us, that if you leave off feeding the animal with madder a considerable time before you kill it, you will find the above appearances still subsisting, with this addition, that all the parts of the teeth which were formed after leaving off the madder will be white. This experiment proves that a tooth once tinged does not lose its colour ; whereas other bones do (though very slowly) return again to their natural appearance ; and, as the dye in this case must be taken into the habit by absorbents, he is led to suspect that the teeth are without absorbents as well as other vessels. These arguments are very ingenious, but they are far from being satisfactory. The facts adduced

by Mr. Hunter are capable of a different explanation from that which he has given them; and when other facts are added relative to the same subject, it will appear that this bony part of a tooth has a circulation through its substance, and even lymphatics, although, from the hardness of its structure, we are unable to demonstrate its vessels. The facts which may be adduced are, 1st. We find that a tooth recently drawn and transplanted into another socket, becomes as firmly fixed after a certain time, and preserves the same colour as the rest of the set; whereas a tooth that has been long drawn before it is transplanted, will never become fixed. Mr. Hunter indeed is aware of this objection, and refers the success of the transplantation, in the first instance, to the living principle possessed by the tooth, and which he thinks may exist independent of a circulation. But however applicable such a doctrine may be to zoophytes, it is suspected that it will not hold good in man, and others of the more perfect animals; and there does not appear to be any doubt but that, in the case of a transplanted tooth, there is a real union by vessels. 2dly. The swellings of the fangs of a tooth, which in many instances are known to be the effects of disease, and which are analogous to the swelling of other bones, are a clear proof of a similarity of structure, especially as we find them invested with a periosteum. 3dly. It is a curious fact, though as yet perhaps not generally known, that, in cases of phthisis pulmonalis, the teeth become of a milky whiteness, and in some degree, transparent; does not this prove them to have absorbents?

Each tooth has an inner cavity, which, beginning by a small opening at the point of the fang, becomes larger, and terminates in the body of the tooth.

This cavity is supplied with blood vessels and nerves, which pass through the small hole in the root. In old people this hole sometimes closes, and the tooth becomes then insensible.

The teeth are invested with a periosteum, from their fangs to a little beyond their bony sockets, where it is attached to the gums. This membrane seems to be common to the tooth which it incloses, and to the sockets which it lines. The teeth are likewise secured in their sockets by a red substance, called the *gum*, which every where covers the alveolar processes, and has as many perforations as there are teeth. The gums are exceedingly vascular, and have something like a cartilaginous hardness and elasticity, but do not seem to have much sensibility. The gums of infants, which perform the office of teeth, have a hard ridge extending through their whole length, but in old people, who have lost the teeth, this ridge is wanting. The teeth are commonly divided, into three classes into which the teeth are commonly divided, are *incisores*, *canini*, and *molars* or *grinders*.

The *incisores* are the four teeth in the fore part of the jaws; they derive their name from their use in dividing and cutting the food in the manner of a wedge, and have each of them two surfaces, which meet in a sharp edge. Of these surfaces, the anterior one is convex, and the posterior or somewhat concave. In the upper jaw they are usually broader and thicker, especially the two first, than those of the under jaw, over which they generally fall by being placed a little obliquely.

The *canini* or *cuspидati* are the longest of all the teeth, deriving the name from their resemblance to dog's tusks. There is one of the teeth on each side of the incisore so that there are two in each jaw. They are the longest of all the teeth.

Their fangs differ from that of the incisores only in being much larger, and their shape may be easily described to be that of an incisor with its edge worn off, so as to end in a narrow point instead of a thin edge. The canini not being calculated for dividing like the incisores, or for grinding, seem to be intended for laying hold of substances. Mr. Hunter remarks of these teeth, that we may trace in them a similarity in shape, situation, and use, from the most imperfect carnivorous animal, which we believe to be the human species, to the lion, which is the most perfectly carnivorous.

The grinders, or *molars*, of which there are ten in each jaw, are so called, because from their size and figure they are calculated for grinding the food. The canini and incisores have only one fang, but the three last grinders in the under jaw have constantly two fangs, and the same teeth in the upper jaw three fangs. Sometimes these fangs are divided into two points near their base, and each of these points has, perhaps, been sometimes considered as a distinct fang. The grinders likewise differ from each other in their appearance. The two first on each side, which Mr. Hunter appears to have distinguished very properly by the name of *bicuspides*, seem to be of a middle nature between the incisores and grinders; they have in general only one root, and the body of the tooth terminates in two points, of which the anterior one is the highest, so that the tooth has in some measure the appearance of one of the canini. The two grinders beyond these, on each side, are much larger. Their body forms almost a square with rounded angles; and their grinding surface has commonly five points or protuberances, two of which are on the inner, and three on the outer part of the tooth. The last grinder

is shorter and smaller than the rest, and, from its coming through the gums later than the rest, and sometimes not appearing till late in life, is called *dens sapientiæ*. The variation in the number of teeth usually depends on these *dentes sapientiæ*.

Having thus described the appearance of the teeth in the adult; the manner of their formation and growth in the fœtus is next to be considered. We shall find that the alveolar process, which begins to be formed at a very early period, appears about the fourth month, only as a shallow longitudinal groove, divided by slight ridges into a number of intermediate depressions, which are to be the future alveoli or sockets. These depressions are at first filled with small pulpy substances, included in a vascular membrane; and these pulpy substances, are the rudiments of the teeth. As these advance in their growth, the alveolar processes become gradually more completely formed. The surface of the pulp first begins to harden; the ossification proceeding from one or more points, according to the kind of tooth that is to be formed. Thus, in the incisores and canini, it begins from one point; in the bicuspides, from two points, corresponding with the future shape of those teeth; and in the molares, from four or five points. As the ossification advances, the whole of the pulp is gradually covered with bone, excepting its under surface, and then the fang begins to be formed. Soon after the formation of this bony part, the tooth begins to be incruusted with its enamel; but in what manner this is deposited we are as yet unable to explain.—Perhaps the vascular membrane, which incloses the pulp, may serve to secrete it. It gradually crystallizes upon the surface of the bony part and continues to increase in thickness, especially at the points and basis of

the tooth, till some time before the tooth begins to pass through the gum; and when this happens, the enamel seems to be as hard as it is afterwards, so that the air does not appear to have the least effect in hardening it, as has been sometimes supposed.— While the enamel is thus forming, the lower part of the pulp is gradually lengthened out and ossified, so as to form the fang. In those teeth which are to have more than one fang, the ossification begins from different parts of the pulp at one and the same time. In this manner are formed the incisores, the canini, and two molares on each side, making in the whole, twenty teeth, in both jaws, which are sufficient for the purposes of manducation in early life. As the fangs of the teeth are formed, their upper part is gradually pushed upwards, till at length, about the seventh, eighth, or ninth month after birth, the incisores, which are the first formed, begin to pass through the gum. The first that appears is generally in the lower jaw. The canini and molares not being formed so soon as the incisores, do not appear till about the twentieth or twenty-fourth month. Sometimes one of the canini, but more frequently one of the molares, appears first.

The danger to which children are exposed, during the time of dentition, arises from the pressure of the teeth in the gum, so as to irritate it, and excite pain and inflammation. The effect of this irritation is, that the gum wastes, and becomes gradually thinner at this part, till at length the tooth protrudes. In such cases therefore we may, with great propriety, assist nature by cutting the gum. These twenty teeth are called the *temporary*, or *milk* teeth, because they are all shed between the age of seven and fourteen, and are supplied by others of a firmer texture, with large fangs, which remain till they become affected by disease, or

fall out in old age, and are therefore called the *permanent*, or *adult* teeth. The rudiments of these adult teeth begin to be formed at different periods. The pulp of the first adult incisor, and of the first adult grinder, may be perceived in a foetus of seven or eight months, and the ossification begins in them about six months after birth. Soon after birth the second incisor, and the canine tooth on each side, begin to be formed. About the fifth or sixth year the first bicuspid, and about the seventh the second bicuspid begins to ossify. These bicuspides are destined to replace the temporary grinders. All these permanent teeth are formed in a distinct set of alveoli; so that it is not by the growing of one tooth under another, in the same socket, that the uppermost tooth is gradually pushed out, as is commonly imagined; but the temporary teeth, and those which are to succeed them, being placed in separate alveoli, the upper sockets gradually disappear, as the under ones increase in size, till at length the teeth they contain, having no longer any support, consequently fall out. But, besides these twenty teeth, which succeed the temporary ones, there are twelve others to be added to make up the number thirty-two. These twelve are three grinders on each side in both jaws; and in order to make room for this addition, we find the jaws grow as the teeth grow, so that they appear as completely filled with twenty teeth, as they are afterwards with thirty-two. Hence, in children the face is flatter and rounder than in adults. The first adult grinder usually passes through the gum about the twelfth year; the second, which begins to be formed in the sixth or seventh year, cuts the gum about the seventeenth or eighteenth; and the third or dens sapientiae, which begins to be formed about the twelfth year, passes through the gum between the age of twenty and thirty. The

dentes sapientiæ have, in some instances, been cut at the age of forty, fifty, sixty, and even eighty years; and it sometimes happens that they do not appear at all. Sometimes likewise it happens, that a third set of teeth appear about the age of sixty or seventy. Diermebroeck tells us that he himself, at the age of fifty six, had a fresh canine tooth in the place of one he had lost several years before; M. du Fay saw two incisores and two canini cut the gum in a man aged eighty-four; Mr. Hunter has seen two fore-teeth shoot up in the lower jaw of a very old person; and an account was lately published of a man who had a complete set at the age of sixty. Other instances of the same kind are to be met with in authors. The circumstance is curious, and, from the time of life at which it takes place; and the return of the catamenia, which sometimes happens in women at the same age it has been very ingeniously supposed, that there is some effort in nature to renew the body at that period.

The teeth are subject to a variety of accidents. Sometimes the gums become so affected as to occasion them to fall out, and the teeth themselves are frequently rendered carious by causes which have not hitherto been satisfactorily explained. The disease usually begins on that side of the tooth which is not exposed to pressure, and gradually advances till an opening is made into the cavity: as soon as the cavity is exposed, the tooth becomes liable to considerable pain, from the air coming into contact with the nerve. Besides these accidental means by which the teeth are occasionally affected, old age seldom fails to bring with it sure and natural causes for their removal. The alveoli fill up, and the teeth consequently fall out. The gums then no longer meet in the fore part of the mouth, the chin projects forwards, and the

face being rendered much shorter, the whole physiognomy appears considerably altered. Having thus described the formation, structure, growth, and decay of the teeth, it remains to speak of their uses; the chief of which we know to be in mastication. And here we cannot help observing the great variety in the structure of the human teeth, which fits us for such a variety of food, and which, when compared with the teeth given to other animals, may in some measure, enable us to explain the nature of the aliment for which man is intended by nature. Thus, in ruminant animals we find incisores only in the lower jaw, for cutting the grass, and molares for grinding it; in graminivorous animals, we see molares alone; and in carnivorous animals, canine teeth for catching at their prey, and incisores and molares, for cutting and dividing it. But, as man is not designed to catch and kill his prey with his teeth, we observe that our canini are shaped differently from the fangs of beasts of prey, in whom we find them either longer than the rest of the teeth, or curved. The incisores likewise are sharper in those animals than in man. Nor are the molares in the human subject similar to the molares of carnivorous animals; they are flatter in man than in these animals; and, in the latter, we likewise find them sharper at the edges, more calculated to cut and tear the food, and by their greater strength, capable of breaking the bones of animals. From these circumstances, therefore, we may consider man as partaking of the nature of these different classes; as approaching more to the carnivorous than to the herbivorous tribe of animals; but upon the whole, formed for a mixed aliment, and fitted equally to live upon flesh and upon vegetables. Those philosophers, therefore, who would confine man wholly to a vegetable

food, do not seem to have studied nature. As the molares are the last teeth that are formed so they are usually the first that fall out; this would seem to prove, that we require the same kind of aliment in old age as in infancy. Besides the use of the teeth in mastication, they likewise serve a secondary purpose, by assisting in the articulation of the voice.

TEETHING. *Dentition.* The eruption of the teeth through the gums. See *Teeth*.

TEGULA HIBERNICA. See *Lapis hibernicus*.

TEGUMENTS COMMON. Under this term anatomists comprehend the cuticle, rete mucosum, skin, and adipose membrane as being the covering to every part of the body except the nails. See *Skin*.

TELEPHIUM. *Telephium.* See *Faba crassa*.

TELA, (*Tela, a, f.* a web of cloth). The cellular membrane is so called from its likeness to a fine web.

TELLA CELLULOSA. See *Cellular membrane*.

TEMPERAMENTUM, (*Temperamentum, i, n.* from *tempero*, to mix together). The peculiar constitution of the humours. Temperaments have been variously distinguished: the division most generally received is into the sanguineous, phlegmatic, choleric, and melancholic.

TEMPLE. The lateral and flat parts of the head above the ears.

TEMPORAL ARTERY. *Arteria temporālis.* A branch of the external carotid, which runs on the temples and give off the frontal artery.

TEMPORAL BONES. *Ossa temporalia.* *Ossa temporum.* These two bones, which are situated one on each side of the head, are of a very irregular figure. They are usually divided into two parts, one of which from the manner of its connexion with the neighbouring bones, is cal-

led *os squamosum*, and the other *os petrosum*, from its irregularity and hardness.

In both these parts there are processes and cavities to be described. Externally there are three processes; one anterior, called *zygomatic process*, which is stretched forwards to join with the *os malæ*, and thus forms the bony *jugum* under which the temporal muscle passes; one posterior, called the *mastoid* or *mamillary process*, from its resemblance to a nipple; and one inferior, called the *styloid process*, from its shape, which is said to resemble that of the ancient *stylus scriptorius*. In young subjects this process is united with the bone by an intermediate cartilage, which sometimes, even in adults, is not completely ossified. Three muscles have their origin from this process, and borrow half of their names from it, viz. *styloglossus*, *stylo-hyoideus*, and *stylo-pharyngeus*. Round the root of this process there is a particular rising of the *os petrosum*, which some writers describe as a process, and, from its appearance with the *styloid*, have named it *vaginalis*, others describe the semi-circular ridge of the *meatus auditorius externus* as a fifth process, to which they give the name of *auditory*. The depressions and cavities are, 1. a large fossa which serves for the articulation of the lower jaw; it is situated between the *zygomatic*, *auditory*, and *vaginal processes*, and is separated in its middle by a fissure into which the ligament that secures the articulation of the lower jaw with this bone is fixed. The fore part of this cavity, which receives the condyle of the jaw, is covered with cartilage; the back part only with the *periosteum*. 2. A long fossa behind the *mastoid process*, where the *digastric muscle* has its origin. 3. The *meatus auditorius externus*, the name given to a large funnel-like canal that

leads to the organ of hearing. 4. The *stylo-mastoid hole*, so called from its situation between the styloid and mastoid processes. It is likewise called the aqueduct of Fallopius, and affords a passage to the portio dura of the auditory or seventh pair of nerves. 5. Below and on the fore part of the last foramen we observe part of the jugular fossa, a thimble-like cavity, in which the beginning of the internal jugular vein is lodged. 6. Before, and a little above this fossa is the orifice of a foramen, through which pass the internal carotid artery and two filaments of the intercostal nerve. This conduit runs first upward and then forward, forming a kind of elbow, and terminates at the end of the os petrosum. 7. At this part of the ossa temporum we observe the orifice of a canal which runs outwards and backwards in an horizontal direction, till it terminates in the cavity of the ear called tympanum. This canal, which in the recent subject is continued from the ear to the mouth, is called the *Eustachian tube*. We shall speak of it more particularly hereafter. 8. A small hole behind the mastoid process, which serves for the transmission of a vein to the lateral sinus. But this, like other foramina in the skull that serve only for the transmission of vessels, is neither uniform in its situation, nor to be met with in every subject. The internal surface of these bones may easily be divided into three parts. The first, uppermost and largest, is the squamous part, which is slightly concave from the impression of the brain. Its semi-circular edges is sloping, so that the external lamella of the bone advances farther than the internal, and thus rests more securely on the parietal bones. The second and middlemost, which is the petrous part of the bone, forms a hard, craggy protuberance, nearly of a triangular shape. On its posterior side we ob-

serve a large foramen, which is the meatus auditorius internus; it receives the double nerve of the seventh pair, viz. the portio dura and portio mollis of that pair. About the middle of its anterior surface is a small foramen, which opens into the aqueduct of Fallopius, and receives a twig of the portio dura of the seventh pair of nerves. This foramen having been first described by Fallopius, and by him named *hiatus*, is sometimes called *hiatus Fallopii*. Besides these, we observe other smaller holes for the transmission of blood vessels and nerves. Below this craggy protuberance is the third part, which, from its shape and connexion with the os occipitis by means of the lambdoidal suture, may be called the lambdoidal angle of the temporal bone. It is concave, from the impression of the brain; it helps to form the posterior and inferior fossæ of the skull, and has a considerable furrow, in which is lodged part of the lateral sinus. The temporal bones differ a little in their structure from the other bones of the cranium. At their upper parts they are very thin, and almost without diploë, but below they have great strength and thickness. In the fœtus, the thin upper part, and the lower craggy part, are separated by a cartilaginous substance; there is no appearance either of the mastoid or styloid processes, and, instead of a long funnel-like meatus auditorius externus, there is only a smooth bony ring, within which the membrana tympani is fastened. Within the petrous part of these bones there are several cavities, processes, and bones, which belong altogether to the ear, do not enter into the formation of the cranium, and are described under the article ear.

The ossa temporum are connected by suture with the ossa parietalia, the

os occipitis, the ossa malarum, and the os sphenoides, and are articulated with the lower jaw.

TEMPORĀLIS, (sc. *Temporalis musculus*). This muscle, which Winslow has named the *crotaphyte*, arises fleshy from the lower, lateral, and anterior part of the parietal bone; from all the squamous portion of the temporal bone; from the lower and lateral part of the os frontis; from the posterior surface of the os malæ; from all the temporal process of the sphenoid bone; and sometimes from a ridge at the lower part of this process. This latter portion, however, is often common to this muscle and the pterygoideus externus. It is of a semi circular shape, and its radiated fibres converge, so as to form a strong middle tendon, which passes under the jugum, and is inserted into the coronoid process of the lower jaw, to which it adheres on every side, but, more particularly at its fore part, where the insertion is continued down to the body of the bone. This muscle is covered by a pretty strong fascia, which some writers have erroneously described as a part of the aponeurosis of the occipito-frontalis. This fascia adheres to the bones, round the whole circumference of the origin of the muscle, and, descending over it, is fixed below to the ridge where the zygomatic process begins, just above the meatus auditorius; to the upper edge of the zygomatic process itself, and anteriorly to the os malæ. This fascia serves as a defence to the muscle, and likewise gives origin to some of its fleshy fibres. The principal use of the temporal muscle is to draw the lower jaw upwards, as in the action of biting; and as it passes a little forwards to its insertion, it may at the same time pull the condyle a little backwards, though not so much as it would have done if its fibres had passed in a direct line from their origin

to their insertion, because the posterior and lower part of the muscle passes over the root of the zygomatic process, as over a pulley.

TENDON, (*Tendo, inis*, m. from *tendo*, to stretch). The white and glistening extremity of a muscle. See *Muscle*.

TENESMUS, (*Tenesmus, i*, m. *τενεσμός*, from *τενω*, to constrict; so called from the perception of a continual constriction or bound state of the part). A continual inclination to go to stool, without a discharge.

TENSOR PALĀTI. See *Circumflexus*.

TENSOR TYMPĀNI. A muscle of the ear, which pulls the malleus and the membrane of the tympanum towards the petrous portion of the temporal bone, by which the membrana tympani is made more concave and tense.

TENSOR VAGINÆ FEMÖRIS. *Fascialis. Musculus membranofus. Musculus aponeurosis*, vel, *fasciæ latæ* of Winslow. A muscle, situated on the outside of the thigh, which stretches the membranous fascia of the thigh, assists in the abduction of the thigh, and somewhat in its rotation inwards. It arises by a narrow, tendinous, and fleshy beginning from the external part of the anterior, superior, spinous process of the ilium, and is inserted a little below the great trochanter into the membranous fascia.

TENTORIUM, (*Tentorium, i*, n.). A process of the dura mater, separating the cerebrum from the cerebellum. It extends from the internal horizontal spine of the occipital bone, directly forwards to the sella turcica of the sphenoid bone.

TEREBINTHINA ARGENTAROTENSIS. Strasburg turpentine. This species is generally more transparent and less tenacious than either the Venice or Chio turpentines. It is of a

yellowish brown colour, and of a more agreeable smell than any of the turpentine, except the Chio. It is extracted in several parts of Germany, from the red and silver fir, by cutting out, successively narrow strips of the bark. In some places a resinous juice is collected from under the bark called *Cuchrym abregna*, and *leum abietinum*.

TEREBINTHINA CHIA, (*Terebinthina*, *æ*, f.). See *Chio turpentine*.

TEREBINTHINA COMMUNIS. See *Terebinthina vulgaris*.

TEREBINTHINA CYPRIA. See *Chio turpentine*.

TEREBINTHINA VENETA. Venice turpentine; so called because we are supplied with it from the Venetians. This species of turpentine flows spontaneously through the bark of the *Pinus larix*; *foliis fasciculatis mollibus obtusiusculis bracteis extruammas strobilorum extantibus*. Hort. Kew. Class *Monoecia*. Order *Monadelphia*. It is usually thinner than any of the other sorts; of a clear whitish or pale yellowish colour; a hot, pungent, bitterish, disagreeable taste; and a strong smell, without any thing of the aromatic flavour of the chian kind. For its virtues see *Turpentine*.

TEREBINTHINA VULGARIS. Common turpentine. This species of turpentine flows very freely from the *Pinus picea* of Linnæus. *Pinus foliis solitariis plenis emarginatis pectinatis, squamis coni obtusissimis adpressis*. Hort. Kew. Class *Monoecia*. Order *Monadelphia*. For its medicinal uses see *Turpentine*.

TERES MAJOR, (*teres* sc. *Musculus major*. *Teres* round, smooth). This muscle which is longer and thicker than the *teres minor*, is situated along the inferior costa of the scapula, and is in part covered by the *deltoides*.

It arises fleshy from the outer surface of the inferior angle of the scapula, (where it covers some part

of the *infra-spinatus* and *teres minor*, with both which its fibres intermix), and likewise from the lower and posterior half of the inferior costa of the scapula. Ascending obliquely towards the os humeri, it passes under the long head of the *triceps brachii*, and then becomes thinner and flatter to form a thin tendon of about an inch in breadth, and somewhat more in length, which runs immediately behind that of the *latissimus dorsi*, and is inserted along with it into the ridge at the inner side of the groove that lodges the long head of the *biceps*. These two tendons are included in a common capsula, besides which the tendon of this muscle adheres to the os humeri, by two other capsulae which we find placed one above the other.

This muscle assists in the rotatory motion of the arm, and likewise in drawing it downwards and backwards; so that we may consider it as the congener of the *latissimus dorsi*.

TERES MINOR. This muscle seems to have been first described by Fallopius. Riolanus, who was the first that distinguished this and the other muscles of the scapula by particular appellations, gave the name of *teres* to this and the following muscle, on account of their long and round shape. The *teres minor* is a thin fleshy muscle, situated along the inferior edge of the *infra-spinatus*, and is in part covered by the posterior part of the *deltoides*.

It arises fleshy from all the convex edge of the inferior costa of the scapula; from thence it ascends obliquely upwards and forwards, and terminates in a flat tendon, which adheres to the lower and posterior part of the capsular ligament of the joint, and is inserted into the lower part of the great tuberosity of the os humeri, a little below the termination of the *infra-spinatus*.

The tendinous membrane, which,

is continued from the infra-spinatus, and spread over the teres minor, likewise forms a thin septum between the two muscles. In some subjects, however, they are so closely united, as to be with difficulty separated from each other. Some of the fibres of the teres minor are intermixed with those of the teres major and subscapularis.

The uses of this muscle are similar to those of the infra-spinatus.

TERMINTHUS, (*Terminthus*, i, m. from *τερπινθος*, the turpentine tree). Black and ardent pustules, mostly attacking the legs of females; so called from their resemblance to the fruit of the turpentine tree.

TERRA CATĒCHU. See *Catechu*.

TERRA FOLIATA TARTĀRI. See *Kali acetatum*.

TERRA JAPONICA. The inspissated juice of a species of *mimosa*, which grows in great abundance in the kingdom of Bahar. It is prepared from a decoction of the inner part of the wood. From the negligent method in which it is dried in little kilns dug for that purpose, it acquires the earthy appearance it in general has, from which circumstance it takes its name. In the kingdom of Bahar, besides being much used in medicine, it is employed for many purposes in arts, particularly for painting the beams of houses to defend them from vermin. See *Catechu*.

TERRA MERITA. The turmeric root is sometimes so called. See *Curcuma*.

TERRA PONDEROSA SALITA. See *Murias baryta*.

TERRA SIGILLATA. See *Bole*.

TERRÆ OLĒUM. See *Petroleum*.

TERTIAN AGUE. See *Febris intermittens*.

TERTIANARIA, (*Tertianaria*, *a*, f. from *tertiana*, a species of intermittent fever which is said to be cured by this plant). The plant which is

thus called in some pharmacopœas is the *scutellaria galericulata foliis cordato-lanceolatis, crenatis; floribus axillaribus* of Linnæus, which is common in the hedges and ditches of this country. It has a bitter taste and a garlic smell, and is said to be serviceable against that species of ague which attacks the patient every third day.

TESTES CEREBRI. See *Tubercula quadrigemina*.

TESTICLE, (*Testis*,). Two small oval bodies situated within the scrotum, and covered by a strong, white and dense coat, called tunica albuginea testis. Each testicle is composed of small vessels, bent in a serpentine direction, arising from the spermatic artery, and convoluted into little heaps, separated from one another by cellular partitions. In each partition there is a duct receiving semen from the small vessels; and all the ducts constitute a net which is attached to the tunica albuginea. From this net-work twenty or more vessels arise, all of which are variously contorted, and, being reflected, ascend to the posterior margin of the testis, where they unite into one common duct, bent into serpentine windings, and forming a hard body called the *epididymis*. The spermatic arteries are branches of the aorta. The spermatic veins empty themselves into the vena cava and emulgent vein. The nerves of the testicle are branches of the lumbar and great intercostal nerve. The use of the testicle is to secrete the semen.

TESTICLE SWELLED. See *Orchitis*.

TESTICULUS, (*Testiculus*, dim. of *testis*). A small testicle.

TESTICULUS CANINUS. See *Satyrium*.

TESTIS, (*Testis*, *is*, c. g. a witness, the testes being the witnesses of our manhood). Two prominences of the brain are called testes from

their supposed resemblance. See *Testicle*.

TETĀNUS, (*Tetanus*, i, m. τετα-
νος; from τε-νω, to stretch). Spasm
with rigidity. A genus of disease
in the class *neuroses* and order *spasmi*
of Cullen; characterized by a spas-
modic rigidity of almost the whole
body. The varieties of tetanus are:

1. *Opisthotonos*, where the body is
thrown back by spasmodic contrac-
tions of the muscles: 2. *Emprostho-*
tonos, the body being bent forwards:
3. *Trismus*, the locked jaw. Tetanus is often symptomatic of syphilis and worms.

TETTERS. See *Herpes*.

TEUCRĪUM, (*Teucrium*, i, n. τευκρίς, from *Teucer* who invented it). The herb speedwell.

TEUCRĪUM CAPITĀTUM. The systematic name of the poley mountain of Montpellier. See *Polium montanum*.

TEUCRĪUM CHAMÆDRYS. The systematic name of the common germander. See *Chamædrys*.

TEUCRĪUM CHAMÆPITYS. The systematic name of the ground pine. See *Chamæpitys*.

TEUCRĪUM CRETĪCUM. The systematic name of the poley mountain of Candy. See *Polium creticum*.

TEUCRĪUM MARUM. The systematic name of the Syrian herb mastich. See *Marum syriacum*.

TEUCRĪUM MONTĀNUM. The systematic name of the common poley mountain. See *Polium montanum*.

TEUCRĪUM POLĪUM. The systematic name of the golden poley mountain. See *Polium montanum*.

TEUCRĪUM SCORDĪUM. The systematic name of the water germander. See *Scordium*.

**THALĀMI NERVŌRUM OPTICŌ-
RUM**, (θαλαμος, a bed). Two bodies, which form in part the optic nerve, placed near to each other, in

appearance white, protruding at the base of the lateral ventricles, and running in their direction inwards, a little downwards, and upwards.

THALICTRUM, (*Thalictrum*, i, n. θαλικτρον, from θαλλα, to flourish). *Rhabarbarum pauperum*. The root of this plant, *Thalictrum flavum* of Linnaeus, is said to be aperient and stomachic, and to come very near in its virtues to rhubarb. It is a common plant in this country, but seldom used medicinally.

THALICTRUM FLAVUM. The systematic name of the poor man's rhubarb. See *Thalictrum*.

THEA GERMANICA. See *Verronica*.

THECA VERTEBRĀLIS, (*Theca*, a, f. θηκη, from τεθημι; to place). The vertebral canal.

THENAR, (*Thenar*, sc. *musculus*). See *Flexor brevis pollicis manus*.

THEQBŌMA CACAO. The systematic name of the tree which affords cocoa and chocolate. See *Cocoa nut*.

THERAPEUTICS, (*Therapeutica*, from θεραπευω, to cure). *Therapia. Methodis medendi*. Therapeutics, or the methodus medendi, may be defined, to be that branch of medicine which treats of the operation of the different means employed for obviating diseases, and of the application of these means. Taken in this sense, it may be considered as delivering the general doctrines of cure, or first principles of practice. It is indeed intimately connected with the practice of medicine strictly so called, and with the materia medica. But it differs from the former, in as far as its object is not the treatment of particular diseases; and from the latter, as it does not comprehend the natural or medical history of particular substances.

Having thus defined this branch of medicine, it is unnecessary to observe, that it must be considered as of the highest importance. A know-

ledge of the operation of medicines is as it were, the intermediate link between theoretical reasonings and practical conclusions. By this alone a connection can be traced between the facts of the empyric, and the rules of the dogmatist. Upon this all rational practice must be founded. While, therefore, the *methodus mendi* is of great utility in the exercise of the profession, it cannot, at the same time, fail to afford high entertainment to the philosophic inquirer.

From these inducements to the study of this subject, it might naturally be imagined, that it would have been as much improved as any other branch of medicine. Notwithstanding its importance, however, it may be affirmed, that it has hitherto been much neglected, and still remains involved in great obscurity and error. This assertion may seem extraordinary, as being in some degree in contradiction to the common course of nature. In order to its being admitted, therefore, it may be necessary to offer some proof of its being well founded, and to endeavour to point out the causes from which it has arisen.

The imperfection of therapeutics is sufficiently evident from the diversity of opinions which are entertained with regard to the operation of almost every medicine. This may, no doubt, in some degree, be ascribed to the difficulty of the subject. But it is also probable, that it is in a great measure owing to its not being sufficiently cultivated. It cannot, indeed, be alledged, that the consideration of this branch of medicine has been entirely neglected. It has often been a subject of inquiry in medical writings, both treated of separately, and as conjoined with other branches. Notwithstanding this, however, it will appear, that it still affords a particular opening for farther consider-

ation. The branches with which it has been conjoined, are, the account of particular diseases, or what are strictly called practical writings, and the account of the properties of different substances, or the *materia medica*. Before taking notice of the writings professedly upon this subject itself, it may be necessary, in the first place, to consider how far a knowledge of it may be acquired from either of these branches.

In writings on the practice of physic, particular diseases are the subject of investigation. After the history and causes of a disease have there been considered, the indications are pointed out by which it may be removed. To each indication is subjoined an account of the different means by which it may be fulfilled, and of the proper method of applying these means. Thus, in dropsy, it is a very general indication of cure to evacuate the water. This evacuation may be produced both by manual operation, and by the use of different internal medicines. For this purpose emetics, purgatives, diuretics, and other similar evacuants, are every day employed. Hence some observations upon these are inseparably connected with the account to be given of the disease. But, in this place, to have attempted the investigation, even of the method in which they produce the evacuation of water, would have been entirely foreign to the subject. Much less would it have been proper here to have introduced any account of the other effects of these remedies. Thus, it appears, that under the treatment of a particular disease, a full account of the operation of these remedies, by which it may be removed, is not to be expected. The effects which medicines have upon the system, and means by which they produce these effects, are, by writers on the practice of physic, universally supposed previously known

and studied. When, therefore, as a necessary preliminary to the proper and safe use of any mode of cure, we are desirous of being fully acquainted with its effects upon the system, and with the manner in which it produces these; it is evident that some farther knowledge of this subject is necessary, than can be derived from writings strictly practical.

Another branch of medicine with which therapeutics are intimately conjoined, is the *Materia Medica*. It may be imagined that the partial view of the subject to be obtained from practical authors will be fully supplied by the writings on this branch. These, however, are not more than the former, fitted for affording a complete knowledge of the *methodus medendi*. To illustrate this, it will only be necessary to survey the present state of the *Materia Medica*.

Were a judgment to be formed of the proficiency made in this subject, from the number of writings which every age has produced concerning it, the conclusion would be, that it had arrived at very great perfection. Could reliance be placed upon the accounts given by almost every author who has treated of any particular medicine, this conclusion would be still farther confirmed. But, on the contrary, if any one, in the least conversant in practice, would form an opinion of this matter from what daily observation must teach him, he would not hesitate to affirm, that the dependence which can be had upon these accounts is but slight. Many properties have been ascribed to almost every article of the *Materia Medica*, from inattention, credulity, or cunning; when, in reality, there was no foundation for such supposed virtues. See *Materia Medica*.

Besides these, there are other sources of error on this subject, which, although they cannot be de-

tested with equal ease, are, however, not less apt to misguide. Among these, conclusions improperly deduced from observation, even well founded, may be justly enumerated, and are, perhaps, not the least considerable. When there occurs any undoubted example of the efficacy of any remedy in a particular case, it is but natural to suppose that it will have an effect equally advantageous in others apparently similar. But, from the variety in constitutions, and the material difference in cases seemingly the same, it is by no means surprising that general conclusions deduced from particular observations should, in many cases, be found repugnant to truth. Hence it is that, even by the most accurate writers on this subject, every remedy has been celebrated for properties much more considerable than it really possesses. Thus, to use the language of a celebrated author, the *Materia Medica*, like the Augean stable, could not be cleared from its present errors without the labours of a second Hercules. If this be the case, it may be considered as, at least, one objection against an entire reliance on the authors on this subject, for an accurate knowledge of therapeutics.

But, another and more valid objection may be drawn from the method in which this subject has, in general, been considered. The various articles are here, for the most part treated of in an alphabetic, or some other similar artificial order. But, a history of the *Materia Medica*, executed upon such plans as these, labours under many inconveniences when used as the means for obtaining an acquaintance with therapeutics.

Many substances, employed for the purposes of medicine produce upon the body effects very much similar. Hence they have been formed into assemblages, and denominat-

ed by general terms, from their mode of action on the body. Examples of such assemblages occur in the classes of emetics, cathartics, and many others of a like nature. From this similitude in effects, it may reasonably be concluded, that the different remedies comprehended under these associations should be fitted to remove the same morbid conditions in the body. But, although any particular indication may be answered by the use of several remedies, it is not from thence to be imagined, that equal benefit will be obtained from the promiscuous employment of any one of them, as tending to produce a radical cure. On the contrary, it will very universally hold, that particular advantage may be derived from a judicious choice. The circumstances, however, from which alone any judgment can be formed concerning the causes of preference, are only to be learned from a comparison instituted betwixt the articles thus possessed of the same general mode of operation. But it is difficult to do this, when these articles, though naturally conjoined, are, from an artificial arrangement, separated in such a manner, that, between them, attention must be paid to a variety of substances fitted for very different purposes. The difficulty, then, with which the general doctrines of cure can be learned from the history of particular articles, given by writers on the *Materia Medica*, when these articles are arranged in any artificial order, is too obvious to require any additional proof.

But, besides these objections against histories of the *Materia Medica*, as a foundation for studying the general doctrines of cure, it may be farther alledged, that, in this respect, they are highly deficient. Many medicines, as has already been observed, operate upon the same general principles. Hence many observations,

applicable to one of them, may, with equal propriety, be made concerning others. Thus a proper view of the general principles of operation which apply to a whole class of medicines will entirely supersede the necessity of repetitions under every particular article. On this account, writers on the *Materia Medica* esteem it sufficient to inform their readers of the qualities of any particular substance, whether it be emetic, purgative, diaphoretic, or the like; and of the degree in which possesses these qualities. But, to have endeavoured, under each article, to point out in what manner vomiting, purging, or sweating, are produced, would have been an attempt highly absurd. Hence they have altogether waved such general inquiries.

It must, however be allowed, that although the consideration of these operations on the system could not, with propriety, enter into the history of the particular articles; yet many writers on the *Materia Medica* have supplied this deficiency, by previously delivering an account of these general doctrines. But, what they have said in this way, may be esteemed professedly therapeutical, and in this view, will afterwards come under consideration. This, therefore, cannot be employed as an argument to invalidate what was formerly advanced to prove the insufficiency of the writings on the *Materia Medica* as a means of studying the general doctrines of cure.

Thus, it appears that many objections may be adduced against the writings on the *Materia Medica* as a means of acquiring the necessary knowledge of therapeutics. On these writings, in general, it may be observed, that, as abounding with errors, as separating the consideration of medicines by nature connected, and as not attempting to explain the general principles of op-

ration, they must be altogether insufficient for this purpose. Hence it appears, that a proper acquaintance with the *methodus medendi* is not to be acquired from even the most complete consideration of those branches of medicine with which it is most immediately conjoined.

After those observations on the branches of medicine in which therapeutics have been treated of in a secondary way, it now only remains to consider the writings professedly upon this subject. From these a proper knowledge of it may most reasonably be expected. In their present state, however, they seem to be as inadequate for this purpose as those already mentioned.

The number of authors who have written of this branch of medicine cannot indeed, be said to be inconsiderable. At the same time, when the writings on this subject are compared with those on the other branches of medicine, their number will scarce seem proportioned to its utility. It is indeed true, that few authors on the general subject of institutions have left this branch entirely untouched. When, however, in their writings it obtains a separate consideration, it is, for the most part, put posterior to the extended and intricate subjects of physiology and pathology. From this circumstance, it is usually passed over with less attention than its importance merits.

Many of the first writings on this subject, although not exceptionable upon account of their brevity, are, however, liable to objection on another account. Those which were prior to the discovery of the circulation, and of the general laws of the nervous system, from which the operation of medicines must, in a great measure be accounted for, can be consulted with but little advantage. It is now necessary to reject opinions which, from the ignorance or mis-

taken notions of those who proposed them, with regard to the leading principles in the œconomy, will without a very minute examination, appear ill founded. What is to be expected, therefore, from writings on this subject, must be derived from those of a modern date.

It cannot indeed be affirmed, that the *methodus medendi* has, of late, been entirely neglected. But, the most esteemed authors on this subject who have written since the laws of the system were better known, have either belonged to the Stahlian sect, or have implicitly adopted the mechanical philosophy. To enter into any particular detail of what may be esteemed exceptionable in their doctrines would be entirely foreign to our present purpose. It may, however, without hesitation, be affirmed, that the opinions of neither are, by any means to be universally admitted. Upon the justice, however, of their particular theories, the truth of what they have delivered concerning the operation of medicines, must totally depend. Hence their writings will, in many particulars, be disregarded by all who are not implicit followers of their tenets. Thus the modern writings upon this subject are, in many respects, not less exceptionable than those of a more ancient date. From all that has been said then, it appears that what has expressly been written upon the subject of therapeutics, must be considered as an insufficient foundation for obtaining such a knowledge of this branch of medicine as is necessary for the cure of diseases, when meant to be followed out upon consistent or rational principles.

If what has been advanced, then, be well founded, it follows, that the writings professedly therapeutical are to be esteemed imperfect and defective. And, it may farther be concluded, that these deficiencies and im-

perfections can neither be supplied by the writings on the *Materia Medica*, nor on the practice of medicine; the only sources from which it could be expected. There will remain then little difficulty in assenting to the proposition formerly laid down, that this branch of medicine, notwithstanding its utility and intimate connection with the grand purpose of the healing art, is still involved in great obscurity and error. Hence the imperfect state of this subject, as well as its importance, may be considered as powerful inducements to attempts towards farther improvement.

The practice of all ages has afforded numberless observations concerning the effects resulting from almost every article employed in the cure of diseases. Many experiments have been made with a view of ascertaining the properties of particular medicines. From these sources, it may readily be imagined sufficient data are afforded for carrying the theory of the action of remedies to as great a degree of perfection as any other branch of the medical art. For improvement on this subject, therefore, what is principally required, is not so much the addition of new facts, as a judicious selection of such as will admit of undeniable proof, and a proper application of them to the formation of general rules. Hence the first step to improvement will consist in the formation of a proper plan for generalizing facts.

In attempts for this purpose, authors have, for the most part, aimed at general systematic arrangement. With this intention, the subject is usually introduced with a *clavis classium*, exhibiting a general view of the whole. When such views can be obtained in perfection in any branch of science, they are unquestionably of very great utility. Even in their most imperfect state, they are never

without some advantages. In this condition, they will often serve to give a more clear and connected view of the subject than could otherwise be obtained. But it must at the same time, be observed, that every systematic arrangement, in any degree imperfect, is attended likewise with disadvantages. Hence, before it can with propriety be admitted, while in this condition, it is necessary to consider which of these preponderate. And if, from examination, it be found, that the disadvantages are superior, it must certainly be considered as inadmissible. This indeed cannot be deemed any sufficient reason for discontinuing attempts to improvement; but it will afford a conclusive argument against adopting any scheme in such a state of imperfection, as to give erroneous ideas of the subject which it is intended to illustrate.

This assertion, with regard to methodic arrangement in general, will not be questioned. If then it shall appear, that even the best general views hitherto given of this branch, are in such a state of imperfection; the conclusion against adopting them will be sufficiently obvious. To determine this, therefore, it becomes necessary to examine to what conclusions the best arrangements on the *methodus medendi* naturally lead. It may perhaps seem extraordinary to affirm, that the most accurate views hitherto given of this subject, are not only inadequate for the purpose proposed by them, but tend also to give an erroneous idea of the operation of medicines. Upon attentive examination, however, it will appear that this assertion is by no means without foundation,

General systematic arrangement supposes that the subject to be treated of can be fully comprehended under a few separate and distinct heads. These are to be branched out by sub-

divisions till they arrive at individuals. In forming these subdivisions, it is necessary that every inferior association should be a proper constituent part of the more general head to which it belongs. It must, at the same time, remain separate and distinct from every division on a level with it, and from every superior division from which it is not directly deduced. While this precision can be obtained, the end proposed by methodic arrangement will be fully answered. But when articles, which should be separate and distinct, come to be confused and blended with each other, the intention of system is entirely frustrated. These observations are sufficiently illustrated and confirmed from the use which has been made of systematic arrangement by botanical writers.

If accurate and precise distinctions between different members of a division be necessary for obtaining the advantages of general system, little benefit can be expected from it in the *methodus medendi*. The nature of this subject will by no means admit of division with these conditions. This will appear sufficiently evident from the examination of any systematic arrangement hitherto attempted.

In the least exceptionable arrangements the general division commonly instituted is, that medicines act either upon the solids, or upon the fluids. It is indeed true, that every medicine may be reduced to one or other of these heads. But where there subsists a connexion so intimate as that betwixt the solids and fluids of the human body, it is almost impossible to conceive that the smallest change can be produced upon the one which will not, in some degree, affect the other also. If this be the case, every medicine may, with propriety, be referred to both heads. Thus, the best grounds for distinc-

tion of which the nature of the subject will admit, even in the first steps toward method, must be entirely rested upon the vague and uncertain footing of a superior degree of action. This however can never be granted to be a solid foundation for precise division.

From what has been said, then, it appears, that the nature of the *methodus medendi* does not admit of any certain characteristics by which particulars comprehended under one branch, may be distinguished from those referred to another. It must be allowed that arrangement, without these, in any branch of science, if not apt to mislead and retard its progress to a more perfect state, has at least, no tendency to forward its improvement. But it appears that even the foundation of methodic arrangement on the subject of therapeutics, is liable to objection. Although, therefore, it should be allowed that a systematic view of the subject, thus defective, will be attended with no bad effects; yet it may with confidence be affirmed, that it can be productive of no advantage.

But the mere want of utility is not the only objection which may be urged against a systematic view of this subject when prosecuted to inferior divisions. Were any reliance to be put upon this arrangement when carried down into the classes into which medicines are usually divided, in place of being attended with any good effect, it would be apt to mislead in enquiry, and to misguide in practice. This may be proved by considering the conclusions which would be formed concerning any class of medicines, even from the best systematic arrangements yet extant. A striking example occurs in the class of epispastics. These remedies, in the first place, have been referred to the general division of medicines acting upon the fluids, in opposition to

those acting upon the solids. They have next been limited to the tribe of evacuantia in opposition to the alterantia. And, lastly, they are referred to the subdivision of medicines evacuating serum, in opposition to those evacuating saliva, urine, perspirable matter, or other secreted fluids. From this method, then of arranging epispastics, we would undoubtedly be led to conclude, that they are a set of remedies which affect the body only; that there they act upon the fluids alone: that the sole change they produce upon these is a diminution of their quantity, and that this diminution proceeds entirely from a discharge of serosity. Even the slightest observation, however, will be sufficient to convince us, that the greatest part, if not the whole, of these conclusions are entirely without foundation.

The action of blisters, from this view of the matter, is merely corporeal. But daily experience affords sufficient proof that they act upon the mind as well as upon the body. The power which they possess of exciting pain, is neither less certain, nor perhaps less useful, as the means of obviating morbid affections of the system, than that of evacuating serum. With an intention to excite pain, they are frequently indicated, and often employed.

Besides this, the changes which blisters produce upon the body are by no means confined to the fluids alone. The solids of the body, from their action, are manifestly and variously affected. Even the evacuation of fluids which they occasion, can be considered as nothing else but the consequence of an increased action in the solids. Every sensation has some effect upon the solids. This particularly holds with regard to painful sensations. It cannot, therefore, be imagined, that one so considerable as arises from the use of blisters will take place without their being remarkably

affected. Whether, then, a judgment be formed from the nature of blisters, or from their effects, it must appear an undeniable fact, that they act upon the solids of the body, as well as upon the fluids.

Farther the change which blisters produce upon the fluids does not merely consist in a diminution of quantity. They may, with great justice, be reckoned to alter the state of the fluids, as well as to evacuate. They do not discharge a portion of fluids from the body in that state in which they circulate in the larger vessels. The abstraction, which here occurs from the general mass, consists entirely of a particular part of the fluids. It is, however, an established fact, that if, from any heterogeneous fluid, there happens a diminution of one component part only, the nature of the remaining mass must be changed. Hence, they are improperly set in opposition to those medicines termed the alterantia.

Lastly, viewed as evacuants, they can by no means be considered as a set of medicines merely discharging serum. In many cases, the discharge produced by epispastics, especially if kept up for any considerable time, becomes manifestly purulent. There can be no question that, when this is the case, something more than serosity is discharged by them. There is a presumption that it is not serum only which is evacuated, even when the discharge is, to appearance, most serous. It is a difficult matter to deprive the serosity of every mixture of the saline parts, and of the coagulable lymph; and, in the ordinary cases of blisters; that the serum discharged, contains a proportion of these, is not to be doubted.

Thus, it appears, even from the most superficial view of the nature of blisters, that their action is much extended over the whole system. Their employment in diseases, there-

ore, from a persuasion that they act merely as evacuants of serum, would be a practice, not only unsuccessful, but rash, and perhaps even dangerous.

Hence the consequences which result from systematic arrangement in a state of such imperfection, when applied to the *methodus medendi*, are sufficiently manifest. The opinion which would be formed of classifiers, or indeed of any other class of medicines, from conclusions deduced from thence, would be erroneous in almost every particular.

If an erroneous idea only can be obtained from methodic arrangement when applied to the investigation of the nature of medicines, it is needless to observe, that reliance upon it could serve no other purpose but to misguide in practice. Methodic arrangement indeed, upon the supposition that the nature of this subject would admit of a system less exceptionable, might be of the greatest utility in giving a clear and connected view of the means of cure in general. But, in the present situation, it is evident that no general system could be followed which would be useful, or even not prejudicial. Without attempting the difficult work of correction, it may be proper to consider how far this subject may with advantage be treated on a different footing.

It has already been observed, that many remedies have in their nature, a great deal in common with each other. These, although their effects be not in every particular the same, operate very much upon the same general principles. Hence they are, in a great measure, fitted for the same general intentions of cure. The different individuals, thus agreeing in their nature, and on that account assembled into a class, may be considered with greater advantages when taken together, than disjointed. By

this means, the labour which would otherwise attend the investigation of the properties of remedies will be greatly shortened; and repetitions, which, were every article to be considered separately, would be almost endless, will be in a great measure avoided. It will naturally occur then, as a first requisite in treating this subject, that the different articles be distributed into proper associations.

But while, on the one hand, it would be tedious and improper to treat of the operation of every mode of cure by itself; so, on the other, there would be an equal error in the formation of very general or extensive classes. By this means, indeed, the labour of enquiry might be greatly shortened: but the general doctrines which should be delivered concerning an extensive class of medicines would be by no means applicable to all the individuals comprehended under it. Hence the distribution of the different articles into such general associations is liable to objection, as being an imperfect method of explaining the action of particular remedies.

Objections indeed also occur to a distribution into very limited associations. To these it may be objected, that, in this manner, no proper distribution can be obtained. When, for example, emetics, cathartics, diaphoretics, or such similar classes, are taken as the highest associations, it may be alledged that there are many individuals which, with equal propriety, fall under several of these classes. From this circumstance, a degree of confusion will not only arise, but the opinion delivered of the operation of these articles will, in the first instance, at least, be defective and imperfect.

To this, however, it may be answered, that, although there may be individuals, with propriety, referable

to several classes, yet the powers which they possess, as operating in one particular way, are so very considerable, as greatly to outweigh their other properties. Where this is not the case, the difference of effects resulting from them, in consequence of which they have a title to be referred to more than one class, is produced, either from the quantity employed, the mode of administration, particular management, or some other evident cause. But, where a diversity of effects results from such causes as these, the remedies used may, in fact, be considered as different. In this point of view, there can be no impropriety in their being referred to more than one class.

Instances of individuals belonging to a plurality of classes, where the seeming inconvenience thence resulting cannot be obviated in one or other of these ways, are but few. When they do occur, the difficulties thence arising are but of small account, if compared to what would have been the consequence of more general associations. In the formation of associations then such medicines only are to be reduced to the same class, as answer to a precise and limited definition, as operate upon the same general principles, and as are fitted for the same general purposes, in the cure of diseases. Classes formed with these conditions will indeed be limited in their nature. But, it must be remembered, that when medicines are applied to use, if they be employed with any rational intention at all, they are given with a view of operating as belonging to classes not more general. Thus, in every day's practice, nothing is more common than to aim at fulfilling particular indications by emetics, cathartics, or similar classes.

Many are the particular articles employed as remedies. From reflecting upon the number of them,

it may be imagined, that association formed with the conditions above mentioned, would be both numerous and unequal. They will be numerous, because, from the great diversity of individuals, there must be considerable varieties in the general mode of operation. They will be unequal, because, on the one hand many individuals are often possessed of the same common properties; and on the other, a few not unfrequently operate in a manner peculiar to themselves. But from the latter of these circumstances no inconvenience will result; and, without the former truth cannot be investigated. An objection, therefore, which can be adduced from these sources, against a division into limited classes, may be very inconsiderable; and, even in this state, it may be considered as unavoidably connected with the nature of the subject.

Besides the objections already adduced against the general plan now proposed, another still remains to be obviated. This system is perhaps less exceptionable from the number and inequality of classes which will fall to be considered, than from the difficulty which will attend the formation of proper associations. From the want of a proper knowledge of individuals, the associations which can be formed, will, in many instances, be deficient, wanting articles, which with propriety should be referred to them. In others, there will be redundant, comprehending individuals which do not properly belong to them. But the inconveniences resulting from thence are common to this species of arrangement with every other. They cannot therefore be considered as an objection against it in particular. Difficulties and imperfections will attend arrangement in every branch of science. It would therefore be ridiculous to imagine that they should

be wanting in this more than in others.

From what has been said it appears that the best method of considering this subject is, by reducing the different articles employed as remedies into precise and limited associations. These associations are to be formed from a general sameness in properties. They may be considered as in some degree analogous to the natural orders in botany, as being founded more upon the general character, than upon any striking or artificial mark. By a proper consideration of the independent associations thus formed, treating of each separately, and as unconnected with every other, the inconveniencies, on the one hand, resulting from a particular investigation of the properties of every article by itself, and, on the other, from general systematic arrangement, will be equally avoided. This method will neither tend to convey any erroneous idea of the operation of medicines, as occurs from the latter, nor will it lead to prolixity and repetition, by disjoining the consideration of articles naturally connected, as is the consequence of the former. Although, therefore, it cannot be supposed to be entirely free from objections; yet it appears to be the mode of arrangement best fitted for delivering the general doctrines applicable to the different remedies employed in the cure of diseases.

The great improvers in medicine, as well as in the other branches of science, seem universally to have been desirous of associating together things which, in their nature, appear to have an obvious connexion. No branch of science affords a more manifest foundation for associations than that which treats of the different articles employed for the cure of diseases. To this probably it is owing, that a distribution of medicines into classes is at least as ancient as the

first medical writings now extant, perhaps as the art of medicine itself. From the prevailing passion for novelty, as well as from attempts to improvement, it may readily be imagined that, during a period so extensive as that in which medicine has been practised, many different distributions would be formed, and, of course, a variety of general terms introduced for expressing these. The associations thus formed have very universally been attempts towards natural orders. They are, therefore, an obvious foundation from whence may be selected those classes under which it has been alledged the consideration of therapeutics may be conducted with greatest advantage.

It has already been observed, that the associations formed by different writers, and the terms used to express them, are numerous. Many of these divisions are intended merely as improvements upon former ones. All the classes, therefore, which have been introduced by different authors, are by no means to be promiscuously adopted. It would, however, be no less tedious than disagreeable, to assign particular objections against every association not afterwards to be admitted. But it is not from thence to be imagined, that there are no reasons directing to a proper choice. It will by no means be sufficient, out of the numerous associations which have been formed, to adopt a few at random. To point out the foundation upon which a choice has here been made, it may be necessary briefly to mention what is principally required in the associations, and to assign such general reasons for rejection, as will most readily apply to particular cases. By this means a foundation will be laid for determining with what propriety some classes are here admitted, and others rejected.

For answering the end proposed by distributing the methodus medendi

into independent associations, it is necessary that every class adopted be a natural one. By this it is to be understood that the articles comprehended under it produce the same effects, and that their operation is to be accounted for upon the same general principles. The most easy method of obtaining associations with this condition would be by admitting a great number, each comprehending only a few articles. But, by having recourse to this expedient, if carried to any great extent, the intention of forming associations would be entirely frustrated. Hence it becomes a second requisite, that every association should be as general as is compatible with its being natural. For this purpose, it is particularly necessary to avoid the substitution of what should only be esteemed proper subdivisions of classes for classes themselves. Under a few classes, with these conditions, many individuals will be comprehended. But, that a complete view may, in this manner, be had of the subject, a third condition is requisite. It is necessary that all the classes taken together, should comprehend every individual, with propriety, referable to the *methodus medendi*.

From the different requisites mentioned above, the foundation upon which the selection of classes must proceed, is manifest. These conditions may be obtained, as far as the nature of the subject will admit, from adopting the following twenty-four classes:

1. Emetics.
2. Cathartics.
3. Diaphoretics.
4. Epispastics.
5. Diuretics.
6. Expectorants.
7. Errhines.
8. Sialagogues.
9. Blood-letting.

10. Emmenagogues.
11. Anthelmintics.
12. Lithontriptics.
13. Antacids.
14. Antalkalines.
15. Attenuants.
16. Inspissants.
17. Antiseptics.
18. Astringents.
19. Emollients.
20. Corrosives.
21. Demulcents.
22. Stimulants.
23. Sedatives.
24. Antispasmodics.

That these classes may fulfil the conditions formerly pointed out, it is necessary that they should constitute what may be esteemed natural orders of medicines; and that they should comprehend all the particular remedies employed for the cure of diseases. How far these purposes will be answered by the classes here selected, can only be determined by considering the account given of each: and by comparing a list of the means of cure now employed, with the particulars which may be comprehended under them.

After adopting these general associations, it naturally follows, that some reasons should be assigned why many others have been set aside. Without attempting to descend to particulars, the causes of rejection may be determined from one or other of the following general objections.

What may be mentioned as the first, and will perhaps apply as the most extensive cause of rejection, is the impropriety of many assemblages. Not a few general terms are employed by medical writers for denominating classes of medicines where in reality there is no foundation for associating together the different articles comprehended under them. All these classes, indeed, have been formed upon a supposition that the

individuals which they comprehend possess some common property. Frequently, however, the proof of such a property is rested merely upon supposition. But supposition, it will readily be allowed, is by no means a proper basis for the former associations. There can be no question then with regard to the justice of rejecting classes of medicines established upon so uncertain a foundation.

But, besides the classes founded upon supposed effects, there are others also, which are exceptionable upon the score of impropriety. Classes of medicines founded upon a single effect, although it may be established and certain, are equally liable to objection. A single effect may be produced in very different ways, and even upon perfectly opposite principles. Upon such a foundation as this, therefore, medicines will often be connected, which in reality should be disjoined. A single effect can by no means be considered as a sufficient basis for a natural association, where all the articles must operate upon the same general principles. Hence, upon the plan now proposed, classes of this nature necessarily fall to be rejected.

Another cause of rejection arises from the extent of classes. Many associations, in other respects sufficiently proper, have been set aside, as being more general than the plan here adopted will admit of; others, as being too limited. After what has been said with regard to the requisites of classes, when the *methodus medendi* is to be considered upon the plan here proposed, any farther illustration of these grounds of exclusion would be unnecessary. Of the former, an example occurs in the class of medicines termed *deobstruents*, and of the latter, in that of *carminatives*.

The last ground of rejection to be mentioned, and one which is sufficiently obvious, arises from the diver-

sity of terms employed to express associations. Many general terms used by different authors are set aside, as being synonymous with others here adopted, and in reality already admitted. Examples where this is the case will occur from the most superficial view of the list which has been given. To point out any particular instances, therefore, would be altogether unnecessary. From these general reasons, it will be no difficult matter to determine why the classes here employed have been admitted in preference to others.

Having thus attempted to point out the grounds for selecting the associations here adopted, it may next be expected that some reason should be assigned for arranging them in the order in which they have been placed. At least, it may occur as a question, whether this order be merely accidental or intentional. From what has already been said with regard to the general plan here proposed to be followed, it may be concluded that this circumstance is very immaterial. Each class is to be considered as independent and separate from every other. The order, therefore, in which they follow each other would scarce seem to merit attention. Notwithstanding this, however, there are reasons why one order is in some degree preferable to another.

From the objections which were formerly adduced against general systematic arrangement, it appeared that, in its present state, it could not be admitted in this subject without manifest prejudice. But, it must be allowed, that the same advantages may, in some measure, be obtained from considering, immediately after each other, classes in their nature somewhat similar, as from subjoining to each other, the account of particular articles belonging to the same class.

Besides this, one order is better

fitted to facilitate the explanation of classes than another. In the animal machine, indeed, there subsists what may be stiled a circle of causes. Yet, the consideration of some classes will readily afford data upon which subsequent ones may be explained. The reasons, therefore, why one order in placing the classes is preferable to another, are sufficiently manifest. The primary effects of medicines, as directly exerted upon the solids, the fluids, or the sentient nerves, are the general principles which, although not strictly or implicitly followed, have chiefly regulated the formation of the list here given.

THERIACA, (*Theriaca*, *α*; *Theriace*, *es*, f. *Ἰνγίαννα*; from *Ἰνγ*, a viper, or venomous wild beast). Treacle, melasses also a medicine appropriated to the cure of the bites of venomous animals, or to resist poisons.

THERIACA RUSTICORUM. The roots of the common garlic were so called. See *Allium*.

THERMÆ, (*Thermæ*, *arum*, f. pl.). Warm baths or springs. See *Medicinal waters*.

THIRST, (*Sitis*). The sensation by which we experience a desire to drink. The seat of this sensation appears to be either in the fauces or the stomach.

THISTLE, CARLINE. See *Chamaeleon album*.

THISTLE, HOLY. See *Carduus benedictus*.

THISTLE, PINE. See *Carlina gummifera*.

THLASPI, (*Thlaspi*, n. ind. *θλασι*; from *θρασ*, to break, because its seed appears as if it were broken or bruised). The herb penny cress. Two species of thlaspi are directed in some pharmacopœias for medicinal uses;—the *Thlaspi arvense* of Linnæus or treacle mustard, and the *Thlaspi campestre* of Linnæus, or mithridate mustard. The seeds of both have an acrid bit-

ing taste approaching to that of common mustard, with which they agree nearly in their pharmaceutic qualities. They have also an unpleasant flavour, somewhat of the garlic or onion kind.

THLASPI ARVENSE. The systematic name of the treacle mustard. See *Thlaspi*.

THLASPI CAMPESTRE. The systematic name of the mithridate mustard. See *Thlaspi*.

THORACIC DUCT, *Ductus thoracicus*, *Ductus Pecquetii*. The trunk of the absorbents; of a serpentine form, and about the diameter of a crow-quill. It lies upon the dorsal vertebræ, between the aorta and vena azygos, and extends from the posterior opening of the diaphragm to the angle formed by the union of the subclavian and jugular veins, into which it opens and evacuates its contents. In this course the thoracic duct receives the absorbent vessels from every part of the body.

THORAX, (*Thorax*, *âcis*, m. *θώραξ*, from *θωρεω*, to leap, because in it the heart leaps). The chest. That part of the body situated between the neck and the abdomen. The external parts of the thorax are, the common integuments, the breasts, various muscles, and the bones of the thorax. (See *Bones* and *Respiration*). The parts within the cavity of the thorax are, the pleura and its productions, the lungs, heart, thymus gland, œsophagus, thoracic duct, arch of the aorta, part of the vena cava, vena azygos, the eighth pair of nerves, and part of the great intercostal nerve.

THORN, EGYPTIAN. The *Mimosa nilotica* of Linnæus, from which we obtain gum arabic. See *Arabic gum*.

THORN APPLE. See *Stramonium*.

THORN, BLACK. See *Prunus sylvestris*.

THROMBUS, (*Thrombus*, *i*, *m.* *θρομβος*; from *θροω*, to disturb). A small tumour which sometimes arises after bleeding, from the blood escaping from the vein into the cellular structure surrounding it.

THURIS CORTEX. The cascarilla and eleuthera barks, were so called. See *Cascarilla*.

THUS, (*Thus*, *uris*, *n.* *θυσ*; from *θυω*, to sacrifice). See *Olibanum*.

THUS JUDÆORUM. See *Thymiana*.

THUS MASCULUM. See *Olibanum*.

THUYA OCCIDENTĀLIS. The systematic name of the tree of life. See *Arbor vitæ*.

THYMBRA, (*Thymbra*, *æ*, *f.* *θυμβρα*; from *θυμ*, thyme; so named because it smells like thyme). See *Satureja*.

THYMBRA HISPANICA. The name given by Tournefort to the common herb mastich. See *Marum vulgare*.

THYME, LEMON. See *Serpyllum citratum*.

THYME, MOTHER OF. See *Serpyllum*.

THYMELEA, (*Thymelæa*, *æ*, *f.* from *θυμα* an odour because of its smell). Sponge flax. Flax-leaved daphne. This plant, *Daphne gnidium*; *panicula terminali foliis linearilanceolatis acuminateis* of Linnæus affords the *garou bark*, which very much resembles that of our meze-reum. Garou bark is to be immersed in vinegar for about an hour before it is wanted, a small piece, the size of a sixpence thus steeped is applied to the arm or any other part, and renewed once a day in winter and twice in summer. It produces a ferous exudation from the skin without irritating or blistering. It is recommended, and is in frequent use in France and Russia against some diseases of the eyes.

THYMIAMA, (*Thymiama*, *atis*, *n.* *θυμιαμα*; from *θυμα*, an odour, so called from its odoriferous smell). Muskwood. *Thus judæorum*. A bark in small brownish gray pieces, intermixed with bits of leaves, seeming as if the bark and leaves had been bruised and pressed together, brought from Syria, Cicilia, &c. and supposed to be the produce of the liquid storax tree. This bark has an agreeable balsamic smell, approaching to that of liquid storax, and a sub-acrid bitterish taste accompanied with some slight astringency.

THYMUS, (*Thymus*, *i*, *m.* *απο τε θυμ*, because it was used in faintings; or from *θυμα*, an odour, because of its fragrant smell). Thyme. This herb, the *Thymus vulgaris* of Linnæus, (*Thymus erectus foliis revolutis ovatis, floribus verticillato spicatis*. Class. *Didynamia*. Order. *Gymnospermia*.), has an agreeable aromatic smell, and a warm pungent taste. Its virtues are said to be resolvent, emmenagogue, tonic, and stomachic; yet there is no disease mentioned in which its use is particularly recommended by any writer on the materia medica.

THYMUS CITRATUS. See *Serpyllum citratum*.

THYMUS CRETICUS. The plant which bears this name in some pharmacopæias is the *Satureja capitata* of Linnæus which possesses similar virtues to our thyme but in a stronger degree.

THYMUS GLAND, (*Thymus*, *i*, *m.* from *θυμα*, an odour; because of its fragrant smell). A gland of considerable size in the fœtus, situated in the anterior duplicature or space of the mediastinum, under the superior part of the sternum. An excretory duct has not yet been detected, but lymphatic vessels have been seen going from it to the thoracic duct, Its use is unknown.

THYMUS MASTICHINA. The systematic name of the common herb mastich. See *Marum vulgare*.

THYMUS SERPYLLUM. The systematic name of the mother of thyme. See *Serpyllum*.

THYMUS VULGARIS. The systematic name of the common thyme. See *Thymus*.

THYREO-PHARYNGEUS, See *Constrictor pharyngis inferior*.

THYRO. Names compounded with this word belong to muscles which are attached to the thyroid cartilage; as,

THYRO-ARYTENOIDÆUS, (*Musculus thyro-arytenoideus*). A muscle situated about the glottis, which pulls the arytenoid cartilage forwards nearer to the middle of the thyroid, and consequently shortens and relaxes the ligament of the larynx.

THYRO-HYOIDEUS, (*Musculus thyro-hyoideus*). A muscle, situated between the os hyoides and trunk, which pulls the os hyoides downwards, and the thyroid cartilage upwards.

THYRO-PHARYNGO-STAPHILINUS. See *Palato-pharyngeus*.

THYRO-STAPHILINUS. See *Palato-pharyngeus*.

THYROID CARTILAGE, (*Cartilago thyroidea*, from *θυρεος*, a shield, and *ειδος*, resemblance; from its supposed resemblance to a shield). Scutiform cartilage. The cartilage which is placed perpendicular to the cricoid cartilages of the larynx, constituting the anterior, superior, and largest part of the larynx. It is harder and more prominent in men than in women, in whom it forms the *pomum adami*.

THYROID GLAND, (*Glandula thyroidea*). A large gland situated upon the cricoid cartilage, trachea, and horns of the thyroid cartilage. It is uncertain whether it be conglobate or conglomerate. Its excretory duct has never been detected, and its use is not yet known.

TIBIA, (*Tibia*, *α*, f. qu. *tubia*, from *tuba*, a tube; so called from its pipe-like shape. The largest bone of the leg. It is of a long, thick and triangular shape, and is situated on the internal part of the leg. Its upper extremity is large, and flattened at its summit, where we observe two articulating surfaces, a little concave, and separated from each other by an intermediate irregular protuberance. Of these two cavities, the internal one is deepest, and of an oblong shape, while the external one is rounded, and more superficial. Each of these, in the recent subject, is covered by a cartilage, which extends to the intermediate protuberance, where it terminates. These two little cavities receive the condyles of the os femoris, and the eminence between them is admitted into the cavity which is seen between the two condyles of that bone; so that this articulation affords a specimen of the complete ginglymus. Behind the intermediate protuberance, or tubercle, is a pretty deep depression, which serves for the attachment of a ligament, and likewise to separate the two cavities from each other. Under the edge of the external cavity is a circular, flat surface, covered with cartilage, which serves for the articulation of the fibula; and at the fore part of the bone is a considerable tuberosity, of an inch and a half in length, to which the strong ligament of the rotula is fixed.

The body of the tibia is smaller than its extremities, and, being of a triangular shape, affords three surfaces. Of these, the external one is broad, and slightly hollowed by muscles above and below; the internal surface is broad and flat, and the posterior surface is narrower than the other two, and nearly cylindrical. This last has a slight ridge running obliquely across it, from the outer

side of the upper end of the bone to about one third of its length downwards. A little below this we observe a passage for the medullary vessels, which is pretty considerable, and slants obliquely downwards. Of the three angles which separate these surfaces, the anterior one, from its sharpness, is called the *spine*, or *spin*. This ridge is not straight, but describes a figure like an Italic *s*, turning first inwards, then outwards, and lastly inwards again. The external angle is more rounded, and serves for the attachment of the interosseous ligament; and the internal one is more rounded still by the pressure of muscles.

The tibia enlarges again a little at its lower extremity, and terminates in a pretty deep cavity, by which it is articulated with the uppermost bone of the foot. This cavity, in the recent subject, is lined with cartilage. Its internal side is formed into a considerable process, called *malleolus internus*, which, in its situation, resembles the styloid process of the radius. This process is broad, and of considerable thickness, and from it ligaments are extended to the foot. At its back part we find a groove, lined with a thin layer of cartilage, in which slide the tendons of the flexor digitorum longus, and of the tibialis posterior; and a little behind this is a smaller groove, for the tendon of the flexor longus pollicis. On the side opposite to the malleolus internus, the cavity is interrupted, and immediately above it is a rough triangular depression, which is furnished with cartilage, and receives the lower end of the fibula.

The whole of this lower extremity of the bone seems to be turned somewhat outwards, so that the malleolus internus is situated more forwards than the inner border of the upper extremity of the bone.

In the fœtus both ends of the tibia are cartilaginous, and become afterwards epiphyses.

TIBIAL ARTERIES, *Arteriae tibiales*. The two principal branches of the popliteal artery: the one proceeds forwards, and is called the anterior tibial; the other backwards, and is called the posterior tibial; of which the external tibial, the fibular, the external and internal plantar, and the plantal arch, are branches.

TIBIALIS ANTICUS, (*Musculus tibialis anticus*). A flexor muscle of the foot, situated on the leg, which bends the foot by drawing it upwards and at the same time turns the toes inwards.

TIBIALIS GRACILIS. See *Plantaris*.

TIBIALIS POSTICUS, (*Musculus tibialis posticus*). A flexor muscle of the foot, situated on the leg, which extends the foot, and turns the toes inwards.

TIC DOLOREUX. A singular disease of the nerves Dr. Haughton of Guy's Hospital, gives the following interesting account of it, which is by much the best that has hitherto appeared in this country, and which from its novelty and the success attending the method of cure, we have judged expedient to insert here.

Mrs. H—— of Stockwell, Surry, aged seventy-four, a mother of children, of a spare habit, placid disposition, and for her age much disposed to activity, was about thirteen years ago, for the first time, seized with pain of the face. This pain at its commencement was very moderate, but in its progress became violent; at length it acquired a degree of acuteness which neither words can describe, nor the imagination easily conceive. The seat of this extreme pain was somewhat limited, being confined to the ala nasi and a small

portion of the upper lip, on the right side. The pain was not of the continued obtuse kind, like that of chronic rheumatism, but on the contrary, rather transient, exceedingly acute and lancinating during its attack. The periods of its recurrence were indefinite, and in the intervals of which she was generally in a state of perfect ease. There was a striking uniformity both in the origin and direction of the pain: it always began in the ala nasi and upper lip, and darted upwards towards the orbit; but when the attack was more commonly violent, then indeed it extended to other parts, and a sensation of a similar kind, though much less in degree, was frequently perceived in the cheek towards the ear; the same sensation was also observed on the fleshy and bony palate, on the gums and teeth of the upper jaw, and sometimes on the fauces. She seemed particularly disposed to this pain in severe or windy weather. Yet she was not altogether free from it in the milder season. It was most frequently excited by the more obvious occasional causes, such as speaking, coughing, taking food, blowing the nose, &c. Though sometimes it would return from causes less apparent. The duration of each pain seldom exceeded half a minute; but more frequently it was somewhat less. Sometimes she had not more than five or six of these pains in space of a day, at others nearly twice that number in an hour. They varied sensibly in their degree of violence; sometimes so moderate as only to suspend the movement of the upper lip, but more commonly so pungent as to extort screams expressive of intense agony. Besides the suspension of the motion of the lips, a very opposite effect frequently took place, viz. a tremulous movement, during which it was sometimes drawn a little upward. Notwithstanding there were such extreme pains, neither

swelling nor discolouration could be perceived, except such as were occasioned from time to time by external applications. These were the general symptoms. The patient was in the north of England when she was first attacked with this complaint; and having availed herself of such assistance as was at hand without relief, she consulted Dr. Haighton by letter. As the case was drawn up by herself though not without some appearance of accuracy, yet he did not conceive her statement of facts sufficiently perspicuous whereon to found an opinion. He therefore desired the case might be written out by some practitioner; but imagining herself capable of describing her own feelings as any other, she sent another account somewhat more correct than the former. From this statement Dr. Haighton began to suspect the complaint to be of the nervous kind; but at the same time considered it only in the vague sense in which we are too apt to use that term. That practitioner must have been either very fortunate, or his practice very circumscribed who has not, in various instances, experienced the inefficacy of medicine in this class of diseases. However, the extreme agony in the present case made it highly expedient to attempt something for relief; and despairing to obtain a permanent advantage from the use of any thing which then occurred to him, Dr. Haighton recommended for the present, an attention only to the urgency of symptoms by the application of the Lini-mentum ammoniæ, of such a strength and such frequency of repetition as might produce the ordinary effects of rubifacient medicines, or on the inefficacy of this, the exhibition of tincture of opium both internally and externally: likewise electricity in such form as the patient could best bear. In case the above plan

had moderated the violence of the attack, he added in reserve to recommend a free use of bark and chalybeates, and aided by wine, and a more nutritive diet than she had been accustomed to, with a view of strengthening the system, and, if possible, to defend it against future attacks; but unfortunately he had to deal with a patient somewhat unmanageable in this respect, being very averse to good living. Some time after this he was informed there had been an evident amendment in a way that seemed to imply a spontaneous termination of the disease, rather than an abatement of symptoms from the power of medicine; he was told that the advantage obtained from the local applications was so very equivocal that the amendment was attributed more to the mild turn the season took at that time, than to the medical treatment which had been adopted. He heard very little more of this case for the space of two years, at the expiration of which she came to reside in the vicinity of London. From her account, it seems that she had several returns of her complaint, but none so violent as the first attack. A few months after her arrival she had a slight return. She was placed upon an insulated chair, and several very strong electrical sparks were drawn from the part by means of a very powerful machine. It produced a redness, together with a slight vesication, and moderated the pain for several days. After that time it was frequently restrained by the same means: but at length it returned with a degree of violence unknown in any former attack, and upon trying electricity in the form of sparks, as before, it was so far from procuring a remission of symptoms, that it seemed to aggravate rather than appease. Under such extreme irritation Dr. Haighton ceased to draw sparks; but considering

that some little advantage had been gained by electricity on a former trial, he used it in a milder form, viz. in what has been called the aura, which differs from the former mode in being drawn off silently, by means of a pointed conductor, but no visible effect ensued.

It was only at this period that he began to form a just idea of the disease. The following circumstance gave rise to it.

While she was endeavouring to describe her feelings, which she attempted in a very inarticulate manner, she stopped suddenly and upon looking at the part affected, Dr. Haighton perceived a tremulous motion of the upper lip, by which it was drawn upwards precisely at that part where the *musculus levator labii superioris proprius* is inserted, and from recollecting a well known fact, that a nerve under irritation from stimulating causes, produces motion in the muscular parts to which it is distributed, it immediately occurred to him that the suborbital branches of the fifth pair of nerves, which are known to supply these parts, must be the seat of the present disease.

In order therefore, to reduce (as far as possible) to a certainty, what hitherto was only matter of surmise, he waited for the next exacerbation, which took place in a few minutes, and by making, at this time, rather a forcible pressure upon the integuments covering the suborbital foramen, the pain instantly abated. He repeated this several times, and uniformly with the same effect. As the conjecture relative to the seat of this disease seemed to gain considerable support from this experiment, it was thought essential to take a more minute survey of the symptoms, particularly as being seated in those parts which seemed affected in a secondary or sympathetic way.

Now it appears from the history

of this case, that the extreme pain was seated in the ala nasi and upper lip, on the right side; but when it darted with more than common violence, it affected other parts, as the ear, by extending itself along the course of the cheek, by means of communicating branches belonging to the portia dura of the seventh pair, which pair begin to spread on the side of the face as soon as it emerges from behind the condyles of the lower jaw. It attacked also the palate, gums, and teeth of the upper jaw, but no part of the lower; sometimes the fauces; but the part which seemed affected next in degree to the original seat, was immediately behind the dentes incisivi.

From comparing this assemblage of symptoms with the distribution of the second or superior maxillary portion of the fifth pair of nerves, he was struck with the coincidence, and at the same time was persuaded, as has been already hinted, that the original disease was in those branches of the nerve transmitted by the suborbital foramen, and distributed to the ala nasi and upper lip; and that the darting pains extending to the teeth, inside of the gums, and palate, arose from communicating filaments between the suborbital and palatine branches. These communications not only complicated the case, but also placed the prospect of a cure at a great distance, from the various channels by which the pain could be conveyed from the part primarily affected to the sensorium. But as a temporary advantage had been frequently gained by pressure of the suborbital nerves against the bone, the entire division of them seemed eligible; and it was proposed to the patient as an ultimate expedient. The proposal, however, carried with it some difficulties. It was new to her. It could not ensure success, and in this distraction of circumstan-

ces, the mind of the patient might have remained suspended in doubt, had not the insupportable urgency of pain compelled her to assent.

Having permission to operate, Dr. Haighton began to consider the circumstances of this nerve more attentively, and as the intention was to effect a complete division of its filaments, by an incision of a moderate length, the means conducive to that end became important subjects of regard. It was essential therefore to acquire a knowledge concerning the precise seat of the distribution of this branch of the fifth pair of nerves, the mode of its transition, and exit from the suborbital foramen, together with a clear and correct idea respecting the seat of the foramen itself. Besides which, it was not altogether extraneous to attend to such contiguous parts as might, either from necessity or accident, be wounded in the operation.

This nerve is transmitted by the suborbital foramen, in a way very different from that which the common form of expression on this occasion would lead us to imagine. We usually speak of it as one branch, under the name of suborbital; but in reality it ought to be considered as a series of branches, for it divides before its exit, and is afterwards distributed in a radiated manner to the circumjacent parts, viz. the levator labii superioris proprius, the inferior part of the obicularis palpebrarum, to the muscles and integuments of the nose and upper lip.

From this radiated distribution, it must necessarily happen that the branches of this nerve are spread over an extensive surface at their termination, though contracted into a small compass at their exit from the foramen. It was therefore considered a matter of importance to fix upon a proper part for the operation, in order that its branches, by lying in a

small space, might be more conveniently divided.

In its passage through the suborbital foramen, it is accompanied by a branch of the internal maxillary artery, which from its contiguity must necessarily be divided. These are covered by the levator labii superioris proprius, and the common integuments.

As the branches of this nerve lie close to each other at the orifice of the foramen, that part seems the most convenient for their division, because an incision of a moderate length will generally include them all.

The next consideration was to determine the exact situation of the foramen.

This at first seems very easy, but in reality is not so, because in different skulls the distance of it from the orbit differs considerably, and there does not appear any mode of determining this more probable than by attempting to form a standard from the measurement of a considerable number of skulls.

The space between the inferior edge of the orbit and the superior part of the foramen in thirty skulls, was therefore measured, and the distance found to be as follows.

In two skulls, $\frac{3}{16}$ of an inch.			
In 16	-	-	$\frac{1}{4}$
In 8	-	-	$\frac{5}{16}$
In 3	-	-	$\frac{3}{16}$
In 1	-	-	$\frac{1}{2}$

As the distance in sixteen skulls out of thirty, was $\frac{1}{4}$ of an inch, that is, considered as the medium distance from the superior part of the foramen; and if we allow $\frac{1}{8}$ below its inferior part, we consider $\frac{1}{2}$ of an inch from the lower edge of the orbit a proper place for performing the operation.

Having endeavoured to establish a rule for determining its distance from

the orbit, it may be proper to ascertain its situation with respect to a line drawn from the inferior part of the internal angular process of the os frontis, obliquely across the orbit, to the centre of the os malæ.

The measurement of this line in thirty skulls did not vary more than an $\frac{1}{8}$ of an inch, and it was found that a line drawn downward, perpendicular to this oblique line, at the distance of $\frac{7}{8}$ of an inch from the internal angle of the eye, passed across from the suborbital foramen. By this rule Dr. Haighton was able to form a standard of the situation of this foramen in a living subject.

These preliminary circumstances being settled, the operation becomes exceedingly simple, and consists in an incision of $\frac{3}{4}$ of an inch in length, carried obliquely downwards, the center of which must correspond with the foramen, only $\frac{1}{4}$ of an inch below it. The incision must be made down to the bone, otherwise we cannot be certain of dividing the nerves, as they are situated very deep. And as there are some irregularities on the surface of the maxillary bone at this part from muscular attachment, as well as a furrow which is sometimes continued from the foramen downwards, a small pointed knife will be preferable to any other, as it will enable the operator to divide with more certainty such nervous filaments as may be seated in these depressions.

The facial vein frequently passes over the foramen, and conceals it; from which it is liable to be divided in the operation. If this really happens, or if any of the suborbital branches of the internal maxillary artery should bleed with freedom, a compress may be made with advantage, as they are seated near the bone.

The wound being dressed super-

ficially, will probably heal by the first intention. In the manner just described Dr. Haighton performed the operation, and the event has justly satisfied its propriety; it immediately put an end to the pain, and the incision healed in a few days.

The patient, who has now lived nine years since the operation, contemplates that event with the highest satisfaction.

It is worthy of remark, that the sensation and action of that side of the lip, though evidently diminished, were not altogether lost, as might have been predicted.

The inconvenience was only temporary: we may therefore suppose a reunion of the nerves had taken place but with this fortunate effect, that no disposition to the return of the disease through the new formed part has yet appeared.

The complaint just described is not in the number of those which assail the human body with the greatest frequency, as there are physicians of considerable practice who have never met with it, and many who have not seen it more than once or twice. Very few of those to whom it has occurred have published their observations.

In the writings of the ancients scarcely any traces of it can be collected, and those so very obscure, that, like the ambiguous language of the oracles, they impress us with no definite meaning.

The first account we have of it, in which an intelligible description is given, is in a production of moderate date, and forms a part of a treatise on the diseases of the urethra, by Monsieur André, surgeon of Versailles, published in the year 1756. In this he has given some practical observations on this subject, under the name of tic douloureux. In 1768 an inaugural dissertation was written

on this disease, by Monsieur Vieillard, in which he mentions having seen this complaint several times at Paris. One object in his dissertation is to investigate the following question, viz. *Uterum in pertinacibus capitis, facieque doloribus. aliquid prodesse sectionis nervorum quinti paris?* But the author denies that the operation can be performed with advantage. His conclusion, however, has not been well supported by the observations of others; for in the anatomical treatise of Monsieur Sabatier, it is asserted that this operation has been performed with success. The instances he quotes are, one from Dr. de Haen, which is mentioned in his *ratio medendi*, as the doctor's own proposal.

Another by Mr. Rich, a Polish surgeon of high respectability. A third case occurred at Paris, some years before the publication of his anatomical work, in which the success was only temporary.

In 1776, the late Dr. Fothergill published a very minute description of this complaint in the fifth volume of the Medical observations and enquiries, and has stated the symptoms with a considerable degree of precision, so that any one who has read his account may very easily recognize the disease. Since the publication of Dr. Fothergill's paper, two memoirs on this subject have appeared in the transactions of the Society of Medicine of Paris; one of which is written by Monsieur Thouret, the other by Monsieur Pujol. In these, several cases are collected and stated with great minuteness. By these writers it has been considered a nervous complaint, and in one case they made use of magnetism, but with very equivocal success. From the symptoms by which this complaint is distinguished, it is not difficult to decide concerning its nature. The kind of pain is very pe-

cular, and the course of it corresponds exactly with that of the nerves. The second branch of the fifth pair is perhaps more frequently affected than either the first or the third. But the portio dura of the seventh pair, which is distributed very extensively upon the face, under the name of *Pes anserinus*, is more frequently the seat of this complaint, than any of the branches of the fifth pair are; and this is a matter of considerable regret, because in such cases, neither the operation proposed in this paper, nor any other hitherto had recourse to can avail. If, indeed, an operator, minutely versed in the situation of these different nervous filaments, were by an effort of skill and address to succeed in the undertaking, there is the highest probability that the patient would be relieved: but by reason of the manner in which this nerve spreads its branches, even where it is piercing the parotid gland, as well as the hazard of wounding contiguous parts, most prudent practitioners would decline the operation. Thus we see with how much more facility the mind can project, than the hand can execute.

When the seventh pair is affected, we can be at no loss to know; for the patient complains of a pain which begins in the fore part of the cheek, sometimes as high as the forehead, and extends itself in the direction of the ear. In a case of this kind, no relief whatever can be obtained by dividing the second branch of the fifth, as such division cannot possibly give any interruption to the communication between the sensorium and the seat of irritation.

TICUNAS. An Indian poison, the activity of which is greatly similar to another poison, called *lama*. Mr. Fontana observes, from the experiments he has tried, that the

fume of this poison, whether inhaled or smelled to, is very innocent. That it was perfectly soluble in water, even cold, and in mineral acids, as well as vegetable. That it did not effervesce with alkalies, nor acids, nor caused any change in milk. That it neither turned the acid of raddishes red nor green. That this poison had no more effect when applied to the eye, than if it were bathed in water. That if taken internally it proves deleterious, but that a considerable quantity is required to kill even a small animal. By passing threads impregnated with the poison, and then dried, through the skins of rabbits and guinea pigs, and other animals, they died in a short time. If applied to the skin lightly scratched in birds and quadrupeds, it proves for the most part mortal, although not always.

A hundredth part of a grain will kill a small animal; but that the poison must be dissolved, either to occasion death, or any disorder of the animal œconomy. Where there is fewer blood-vessels, the poison is the least efficacious. If the poison be applied, being previously dissolved in the mineral acids, its effects seem to be destroyed. Rum and vinegar seem not to extinguish its effects; and even the acids seem useless and dangerous when applied to the muscles of an animal. It requires a more considerable time to act than the venom of the viper. The effects of both poisons may be remedied by a ligature round the limb, or by amputation, if done in time.

Mr. Fontana likewise observes that this poison does not act on animals of cold blood. This poison hinders likewise the coagulation of the blood from those killed by it; but if introduced into the blood by the jugular vein, it produces death: and that it does not act on the nerves, but only on the blood.

TIGLIA GRANA. *Grana tilli.* *Grana tiglii.* The grana tilia are seeds of a dark grey colour, the produce of *Troton tylium* of Linnæus, in shape very like the seed of the *ricinus communis*. They abound with an oil which is far more acrid and purgative than castor oil.

TILIA, (*Tilia*, α , f. $\pi\iota\lambda\epsilon\alpha$, ulmus, the elm tree). The lime or linden tree. *Tilia Europea* of Linnæus. The flowers of this tree are supposed to possess anodyne and antispasmodic virtues. They have a moderately strong smell, in which their virtue seems to consist, and abound with a strong mucilage. They are in high esteem in France.

TILIA EUROPEA. The systematic name of the lime tree. See *Tilia*.

TILLI GRANA. See *Tiglia Grana*.

TIMAC. The name of a root imported from the East Indies, which is said to possess diuretic virtues, and therefore exhibited in dropsies. It is not known from what plant it is obtained.

TIN. *Stannum.* *Jupiter* of the alchemists. An imperfect metal of a whiter colour than lead, but not quite so white as silver, obtained in great quantities from the mines in Cornwall. It is a metal well known for culinary purposes; and, although in general use, it is affirmed, that ragouts in which tin spoons have been left, as well as sugar contained in a vessel of this metal, have poisoned many persons: but this must have arisen from the tin containing a larger proportion of arsenic than usual, or from its admixture with lead, as the tin employed in this country is, of all metals, the most innocent for culinary purposes. Tin filings *limatura stanni*, are exhibited by many physicians for the cure of worms.

TINCÆ OS, (*Tinca*, α , f. a tench).

The mouth of the uterus is so called by some writers, from its resemblance to a tenche's mouth.

TINCAL. See *Borax*.

TINCTURA, (*Tinctura*, α , f. from *tingo* to dye a tincture. A solution of any substance in spirit of wine is so termed. Rectified spirit of wine is the direct menstruum of the resins, and essential oils of vegetables, and totally extracts these active principles from sundry vegetable matters, which yield them to water not at all, or only in part. It dissolves likewise the sweet saccharine matter of vegetables, and generally those parts of animal bodies in which their peculiar smell and taste reside.

The virtues of many vegetables are extracted almost equally by water and rectified spirit; but in the watery and spirituous tinctures of them there is this difference, that the active parts in the watery extractions are blended with a large proportion of inert gummy matter, on which their solubility in this menstruum in a great measure depends, while rectified spirit extracts them almost pure from gum. Hence, when the spirituous tinctures are mixed with watery liquors, a part of what the spirit has taken up from the subject generally separates and subsides, on account of its having been freed from that matter, which, being blended with it in the original vegetable, made it so soluble in water. This, however, is not universal, for active parts of some vegetables when extracted by rectified spirits, are not precipitated by water, being almost equally soluble in both menstrea.

Rectified spirit may be tinged by vegetables of all colours, except blue the leaves of plants, in general, will give out little of their natural colour to watery liquors, communicating to spirit the whole of their green tin-

ere, which for the most part proves elegant, though not very durable.

Fixed alkaline salts deepen the colour of spirituous tinctures; and hence they have been supposed to promote the dissolving power of the menstruum, though this does not appear from experience; in the trials which have been made to terminate this affair, no more was found to be taken up in the deep-coloured tinctures than in the paler ones, and often not so much; if the alkali be added after the extraction of the tincture, it will heighten the colour as much as when mixed with the ingredients at first. The addition of these salts in making tinctures is not only needless but prejudicial, as they generally injure the flavour of aromatics, and superadd a quality sometimes contrary to the intention of the medicine.

Volatile alkaline salts, in many cases, promote the action of the spirits. Acids generally weaken it; unless when the acid has been previously combined with the vinous spirit into a compound of new qualities, called dulcified spirit,

TINCTŪRA ALŌĒS. This preparation possesses stomachic and purgative qualities, but should never be given where there is a tendency to hæmorrhoids. In choleric cases and menorrhæa it is preferred to other purges.

TINCTŪRA ALŌĒS COMPOSITA. A more stimulating compound than the former. It is a useful application to old indolent ulcers.

TINCTŪRA ALŌĒS VITRIOLĀTA. With the bitter infusion a drachm or two of this elegant tincture is extremely serviceable against gouty and rheumatic affections of the stomach and bowels, and also in the weaknesses of those organs which frequently attend old age.

TINCTŪRA ASSÆFÆTIDÆ. Diluted with water, this is mostly given

en in all kinds of fits, by the vulgar. It is a useful preparation as an antispasmodic, especially in conjunction with vitriolated zinc.

TINC-ŪRA BALSĀMI PERUVIANI. A stimulating tincture with all the virtues of the Peruvian balsam.

TINCTŪRA BENZŌĒS COMPOSITA. This tincture is more generally applied externally to ulcers and wounds, than given internally, though possessing expectorant, antispasmodic, and stimulating powers. Against coughs, spasmodic affections of the stomach and bowels, and diarrhæa, produced by ulcerations of those parts, it is a very excellent medicine.

TINCTŪRA CANTHARIDIS. A very acrid, diuretic, and stimulating preparation, which should always be administered with great caution from its known action on the parts of generation. In chronic eruptions on the skin, and dropical diseases of the aged, it is often very useful when other medicines have been inert.

TINCTŪRA CARDAMŌMI. A powerful stimulating carminative. In spasm of the stomach, an ounce with some other diluted stimulant is given with advantage.

TINCTŪRA CARDAMŌMI COMPOSITA. A useful and elegant carminative and cordial.

TINCTŪRA CASCARILLÆ. A stimulating aromatic tonic, that may be exhibited in debility of the bowels and stomach, and in those cases of fever in which the Peruvian bark proves purgative.

TINCTŪRA CASTŌRÆI. An antispasmodic tincture.

TINCTŪRA CASTŌRÆI COMPOSITA. A very powerful stimulant and antispasmodic, mostly exhibited in hysterical affections in a dilute form.

TINCTŪRA CATĒCHU. An aromatic astringent, mostly given to

check diarrhæas, and very useful in debilities of the stomach and bowels producing borborygma and acidities.

TINCTŪRA CINCHONÆ. This possesses all the virtues of the bark and proof spirit.

TINCTŪRA CINCHONÆ AMMONIATA. The virtues of the spiritus ammoniæ compositus and the Peruvian bark are here combined.

TINCTŪRA CINCHONÆ COMPOSITA. A very excellent tonic and stomachic stimulant.

TINCTŪRA CINNAMŌMI. Stimulant and stomachic.

TINCTŪRA CINNAMŌMI COMPOSITA. A very powerful stimulating carminative, given in spasmodic affections of the stomach and bowels, and those cases of vomiting which arise from a morbid irritability of the stomach.

TINCTŪRA COLOMBÆ. A tonic and stomachic tincture, calculated to repair the tone of the stomach and bowels, when impaired by bilious vomiting and purgings after removing the causes.

TINCTŪRA CORTICIS AURANTII. This is seldom given alone, but in conjunction with other tonics and stomachics to which it imparts a pleasant flavour.

TINCTŪRA CROCI. A much esteemed tincture for imparting a beautiful colour to other liquid medicines, and possessing the virtues of the saffron.

TINCTŪRA FERRI AMMONIACALIS. An excellent tonic and adstringent. See *Ferrum ammoniacale*.

TINCTŪRA FERRI MURIATI. Tonic and adstringent virtues are attributed to this compound. In relaxations of the kidneys and spasmodic affections of the urinary passages it is particularly serviceable.

TINCTŪRA GALBANI. The virtues of the galbanum are completely extracted in this tincture. See *Galbanum*.

TINCTŪRA GENTIANÆ COMPO-

SITA. A very excellent bitter tonic and stomachic.

TINCTŪRA GUAÏACI. This is in very general use against chronic rheumatic affections, in which complaint it is particularly serviceable. It possesses stimulating and diaphoretic powers.

TINCTŪRA GUAÏACI AMMONIATA. A more powerful stimulant than the above.

TINCTŪRA HELLĒBŌRI NIGRI. This preparation is seldom used but in obstinate cases of amenorrhæa from the known action of hellebore on the uterus.

TINCTŪRA JALAPÏ. A stimulating cathartic.

TINCTŪRA KINO. A mild astringent.

TINCTŪRA MOSCHI. Mostly administered in conjunction with other antispasmodics in hysterical, nervous and spasmodic affections.

TINCTŪRA MYRRHÆ. A warm stimulating stomachic and corroborant; it is also in common use as a detergent to ulcerated throats, mixed and diluted in the form of gargle.

TINCTŪRA OPÏ. For its virtues see *Opium*.

TINCTŪRA OPÏ CAMPHORATA. An excellent diaphoretic and carminative anodyne.

TINCTŪRA RHABABARI. A stomachic aperient and purgative.

TINCTŪRA RHABARBARI COMPOSITA. An agreeable stomachic purgative.

TINCTŪRA RHÆI AMARA. Tonic stomachic and aperient.

TINCTŪRA RHÆI CUM ALOE. A more stimulating tincture than either of the former.

TINCTŪRA RHÆI DULCIS. A more pleasant tincture than the tinctura rhabarbari.

TINCTŪRA SABINÆ COMPOSITA. A useful emmenagogue, possessing stimulating and antispasmodic virtues, and extremely serviceable in

the hysterical epilepsy of young women, which arises from irregularity of the menstrual discharge.

TINCTŪRA SCILLÆ. The virtues of the squill reside in this compound.

TINCTŪRA SENNÆ. A carminative aperient and purgative.

TINCTŪRA SERPENTARIÆ. This tincture possesses in addition to the virtues of the spirit, those of the serpentaria.

TINCTŪRA VALERIANÆ. A useful antispasmodic in conjunction with others.

TINCTŪRA VALERIANÆ AMMO-ATA. A strong antispasmodic and mulating tincture.

TINCTŪRA VERĀTRI. A very active alterative, recommended in the cure of epilepsy and cutaneous eruptions. Its administration requires great caution; the white hellebore being a powerful poison.

TINCTŪRA ZINGĪBERIS. A stimulating carminative.

TINEA CAPITIS, (*Tinea*, *æ*, f. m *teneo*, to hold). The scald-head. A genus of disease in the class *locales* and order *dialyses* of Cullen; characterized by small ulcers at the root of the hairs of the head, which produce a variable white crust.

TIN GLASS. See *Bismuth*.

TINNĪTUS AURIUM. See *Paralios*.

TITHYMALUS, (*Tithymalus*, *i*, m. *τιθυμᾶλος*, a dog from *τιθεις*, and *μᾶλος* order; so called from its smooth leaves and milky juice). Spurge. Two plants are directed for medicinal purposes by this name. See *Tithymalus paralios* and *Efula minor*.

TITHYMALUS CYPARISSIUS. See *Efula minor*.

TITHYMALUS PARALIOS. See Spurge. Every part of this plant, *Asphorbia paralios* of Linnæus, is violently cathartic and irritating, inflaming the mouth and fauces. It is never employed in the practice of

this country; but where it is used vinegar is recommended to correct its irritating power.

TOAD-FLAX. See *Linaria*.

TOBACCO. See *Tabacum*.

TOBACCO ANGLICUM. See *Nicotiana minor*.

TOBACCO, ENGLISH. See *Nicotiana minor*.

TOBACCO, VIRGINIAN. See *Nicotiana*.

TOES. *Digiti pedis.* They consist of three distinct bones disposed in rows called phalanges, or ranks of the toes. The great toe has but two phalanges; the others have three ranks of bones, which have nothing particular, only the joints are made round and free, formed by a round head on one bone, and by a pretty deep hollow for receiving it, in the one above it.

TOLU BALSAM. See *Balsamum toltutanum*.

TOLUIFĒRA BALSĀMUM. The systematic name of the tree which affords the tolu balsam. See *Balsamum toltutanum*.

TOLUTANUM BALSĀMUM. See *Balsamum toltutanum*.

TOMENTUM CĒRĒBRI, (*Tomentum*, *i*, n. a flock of wool). The small vessels that penetrate the cortical substance of the brain, from the pia mater which, when separated from the brain, and adhering to the pia mater, give it a flocky appearance.

TONICS. (*Medicamenta tonica*, from *τονεω*, to strengthen). Medicines which increase the tone of the muscular fibre; such as stimulants, adstringents, &c.

TONIC SPASM, (*Spasmus tonicus*. *Τονικος*, from *τεινω*, to pull or draw). *Contractura a spasmo.* A rigid contraction of the muscles, without relaxation, as in trismus, tetanus, &c.

TONGUE, (*Lingua*, *æ*, f.). A soft fleshy viscus, very moveable in every direction, situated inferiorly in the cavity of the mouth, and constituting

the organ of taste. It is divided into a base, body, and back, an inferior surface, and two lateral parts. It is composed of muscular fibres, covered by a nervous membrane, on which are a great number of nervous papillæ, particularly at the apex and lateral parts; the rete mucosum, and epidermis. The arteries of the tongue are branches of the ranine and labial. The veins empty themselves into the great lingual, which proceed to the external jugular. The nerves come from the eighth, ninth, and fifth pair. The use of this organ is for chewing, swallowing, sucking, and tasting. See also *Taste*.

TONSILS, *Tonfillæ. Amygdalæ.* Two oblong, suboval glands, situated one on each side of the fauces, and opening into the cavity of the mouth by twelve or more large excretory ducts.

TOOTH. See *Teeth*.

TOOTH-ACH. See *Odontalgia*.

TOPHUS, (*Tophus, i, m. Heb.*). A small swelling of a bone.

TORCULAR HEROPHILI, (*Torcular, aris, n. from torqueo, to twist*). The press of Herophilus. That place where the four sinusses of the dura mater meet together, first accurately described by Herophilus, the anatomist.

TORDYLUM OFFICINALE. The systematic name of the officinal *Seseli creticum*. See *Seseli creticum*.

TORMENTIL. See *Tormentilla*.

TORMENTILLA, (*Tormentilla, æ, f. from tormentum, pain; because it was supposed to relieve pain in the teeth*). *Heptaphyllum*. Common tormentil, or upright septfoil. *Tormentilla erecta* of Linnæus. *Tormentilla caule erectiusculo, foliis sessilibus*. Class *Icosandria*. Order *Polyginia*. The root is the only part of the plant which is used medicinally: it has a strong styptic taste, but imparts no peculiar sapid flavour: it has been long held in estimation as a powerful adstringent;

and, as a proof of its efficacy in this way, it has been substituted for oak bark in the tanning of skin for leather. Tormentil is ordered the *pulvis e creta compositus* of the London pharmacopœia.

TORMENTILLA ERECTA. The systematic name of the upright septfoil. See *Tormentilla*.

TORMINA, (*Tormina, um, pl. n.*) Gripes. Pains in the bowels.

TORPOR, (*Torpor, oris, m.*). numbness, or deficient sensation.

TOTA BONA. See *Bonus henrici*.

TOUCH. *Tactus.* The sensation by which we perceive any thing that is applied to the skin. The organ of touch is formed by the nervous papillæ, which are situated all over the skin, but more especially at the points of the fingers.

Touch is understood in a twofold manner. For, by this term, in general, we call every change of the nerves arising from heat, cold, roughness, smoothness, weight, moisture or dryness in external bodies, in whatever part of the body that change may arise. In this acceptation, touch is ascribed to almost all parts of the human body, in a greater or less degree; as in different places of the body the nerves are more numerous, bare, or covered with thinner membranes; and in the sense pain, pleasure, hunger, thirst, anxiety, itching, and the other sensations, belong to the sense of touch.

But, in a somewhat different and more proper acceptation, the sense of touch is said to be the change in external bodies which is produced on the skin, more especially at the ends of the fingers, and is represented to the mind. For, by the fingers, we most accurately distinguish the sensible qualities of bodies.

Indeed, in the skin we do not easily distinguish any particle which we cannot feel. But since the touch is commonly ascribed in a peculiar manner to the papillæ, the structure of

he skin must be described. What is strictly called the skin, is composed of a dense web of very compact cellular substance, whose fibres are intermixed and interwoven, which renders highly extensible, contractile, and elastic. Its strata which are exposed to the air, and next to the epidermis, are more closely compacted; as they approach the fat, they are gradually relaxed, and resolved into softer cellular texture. It is more tender in some places, and in others firmer. It is pervaded by many small arteries, which come from the subcutaneous ones: they are neither large nor long, but are numerous in some parts where the skin is red, as on the cheeks; in other parts they are fewer in number. The veins arise in great numbers from the subcutaneous reticulations: the nerves likewise in the skin are very numerous; but they vanish so suddenly, that it is very difficult to trace their ultimate extremities. Betwixt the skin and muscles, there is cellular substance, into which the skin insensibly resolved, degenerates, in most parts replenished with fat, of which the little eminences form pits in the skin; but in some parts, as the penis, and part of the lips, &c. it is destitute of fat. There are very few parts in the human body where muscular fibres are immediately contiguous to the skin, without any separation by it; for the dartos is only cellular substance, and has no muscular fibres. There are some places where tendinous fibres are inserted into the skin; as in the palms of the hands, and the soles of the feet.

Throughout the skin in general, most parts of the body of man or the larger animals, on removing the epidermis, scarcely an unevenness is perceptible, unless very minute elevations, raised hardly any visible height, and obtuse. But in the ends of the fingers, papillæ, somewhat

larger, but still very difficult of demonstration to the sight, are seated in cavities of the cuticle, and receive nerves scarcely visible; they are minute projections, formed of vessels with one or more small nerves, wrapped up in cellular substance. In the lip, after maceration, they appear long and villous; in the penis they are flaky; and in the tongue they are most evident, from the fabric of which we conclude, by analogy, with respect to the other cutaneous papillæ.

The skin is surrounded by another covering, which resists completely the action of the air, and which coheres with the skin by an infinite number of small vessels, and by hairs passing through it. The outer surface of this covering, of a corneous nature, dry, insensible, not subject to putrefaction, destitute of vessels and nerves, wrinkled in a particular manner, and reticular towards the skin, is called the epidermis. It is perforated by an infinite number of pores, of which the larger ones are perspirative, and the smaller vaporiferous, and is connected with the skin by numerous minute vessels resembling down. By pressure or burning, the cuticle grows thicker, by the addition of new plates, formed between it and the skin; and is then said to be callous. But even without disease, in negroes the two plates are distinct.

The inner surface of the cuticle, more soft, pulpy, half fluid, resembling concremented mucus, is separated with difficulty in Europeans, but easily in the African negro, in whom it is truly membranaceous, solid, and separable; and in the palate of brutes. It is incumbent on the skin, of which it receives the papillæ into soft pits. It is called the rete Malpighianum, although it be certain that it is not perforated in a conspicuous manner, as a sieve.

That this reticular body is com-

posed by the concretion of some fluid transuding from the skin, seems very probable. The fabric of the cuticle is still uncertain; for since it is destitute of vessels, is regenerated, and is insensible, it does not seem to belong to the organical parts of the body. Is it the outer part of the Malpighian mucus, coagulated and condensed by the air and by pressure, which is perforated in many places by exhaling and inhaling ducts, the mouths of which are cemented together by the interposed condensed glue? Is this opinion supported by the mucous expansion upon the membrane of the tympanum? by its dissolution in water, as observed by eminent anatomists, though by others denied, in the cuticle of negroes? See *Skin*.

Moreover, to the history of the skin belong the simple glands, which are seated in very many places under the skin in the cellular substance, and perforate it by their excretory ducts, and pour out upon the cuticle, in the hairy scalp, and in the convex surface of the ear, a fat soft half fluid liniment. Other sebaceous glands, partly simple and partly compound, generate in the face, though more slowly, a dry white liniment, but in the groins and arm-pits one more oily, with which the skin being anointed, shines, and is defended both from the air and from friction. They are found in all parts of the human body that are under the necessity of being more immediately exposed to the air, as in the face, where there are a great number of the compound sort; or wherever the skin is liable to great friction, as in the breasts, arm-pits, groins, glans, penis, nymphæ anus, and hams. They frequently send out hairs. Are follicles of this kind seated in all parts of the skin? Although anatomy does not demonstrate them, yet it seems probable that they are present every where, as appears from the *sordes* collected

about the whole surface of the body seemingly of the sebaceous kind. But another sort of oily ointment is poured out upon the skin, through its pores, from the fat itself, without the intervention of glands, especially where the skin is clothed with hair.

The hair and nails are also appendages to the skin. The former are scattered over almost the whole surface of the body, the palms of the hands and soles of the feet excepted. In most parts short and soft; but longer upon the skin of the head, cheek, chin, and breast in men; also upon the forepart of the limbs, in the arm-pits, groins, and pubis. They arise from the subcutaneous cellular substance, originating from a little bulb, which is membranous strong, vascular, of an oval shape, and more lax towards the cellular texture at which part it is also furnished with vessels; in which little bulb another bulb lies hid, roundish at its beginning, but afterwards cylindrical, and surrounded with blood. In this second bulb lies the hair, covered with a fatty humour. The hair, with both its cylindrical sheaths, arrive at a cutaneous pore, goes out through it, and forces the epidermis into a similar sheath; whence the very great stability of the hair; after this the sheath cannot be any longer separated from the cortex; the filaments, and spongy and cellular matter, are continued throughout the whole length of the hair. The hairs grow naturally in the subcutaneous cellular substance; but, by disease, they are sometimes formed in other situation within the fat. They grow continually; and, when cut, are renewed by the protrusion of their medullary substance from the skin outwardly, and by the prolongation of the cuticle. In old age, the hairs, destitute of this medulla, dry up, split, and fall off. Their colour is from the juice, which fills the internal ce-

lular texture. They seem to exhale through their extremities, and possibly throughout their whole surface, as we may conclude from the constant protrusion of their medulla, which ought to have an end, from the *plica polonica*, and from the luminous rays that come out from the hairs of an animal electrified. The subcutaneous fat follows the course of the hairs, and is exhaled.

The nails are of the nature and fabric of the cuticle, and fall off along with it, being in like manner insensible, and capable of reproduction. They are found upon the ends of the fingers and toes, occupying their upper and back part, and correspond to the tactile papillary apex, which they support, and retain applied to the object felt. They arise from a square root, between an internal stratum of the skin, mixed with periosteum, and another external stratum, a little beyond the last articulation: they go out by a lunar cleft in the external plate of the skin, where the cuticle partly returns back towards the root of the nail, to which it adheres, and is partly laid over the outside of the nail, and extended forward with it, forming its outer covering. The nail itself is soft when it is first produced, and in the part covered by the skin; but, by age, and contact with the air, it becomes harder, corneous, solid, and elastic, composed of long fibres cemented by gluten, separated by sulci, fissile, and of many layers. The nail thus formed, extends itself to the extremity of the finger; and, through its whole extent, its internal striated surface is lined by furrowed skin, blended with periosteum, of which the filaments are first short, afterwards longer, and those which adhere near the point of the nail are the longest of all. These are most intimately connected with the root of the nail. Beyond the adhering part of the nail, the skin again becomes free and unconnected with

the nail, and has its own epidermis. A furrowed net-work is interposed betwixt the skin and nail, which is separable and soft, for the protection of the papillæ; where the furrows are, it becomes gradually harder, so that at last it can scarcely be distinguished from the nail. The tendons do not reach so far as the nail.

The subcutaneous cellular substance in very few places is without fat, on account of the necessary motion of the skin. Where it is replenished with fat, it defends the warmth of the internal parts from the air; it renders the skin moveable upon the muscles; it fills up the cavities between the muscles themselves; and contributes to the whiteness and beauty of the body. The skin, Malpighian mucus, and cuticle, not only cover the external surface of the body every where, but likewise, where they seem to be perforated; returning inwards they gradually change their appearance. For the cuticle is manifest in the anus, urethra, vagina, cornea of the eye, auditory passage, mouth, and tongue; nor is it wanting even in the stomach itself and intestines; although, by the perpetual emolliation, its fabric be altered, and relaxed into their villous coat. Thus the true skin, being continuous with the internal fabric of the palate, tongue, pharynx, nostrils, vagina, &c. changes every where into the white, thick, pulpy, commonly called nervous, coat of those parts.

What has been hitherto advanced is sufficient to enable us to understand the nature of touch. The papillæ at the ends of the fingers, somewhat larger in the inside, beautifully disposed in spiral folds, probably somewhat erected by the attention of the mind, as appears from shiverings, from the nipples of women, from the prolapsus of an intestine, from the handling of tangible objects, and from gentle friction, receive the im-

pression of the object on their nervous fabric, and transmit it to the trunks of the nerves, and to the brain. This is the sense of touch. It enables us to distinguish chiefly the roughness of objects; and has been possessed to so exquisite a degree by some persons, that they have been known to distinguish coloured surfaces by the touch alone. We perceive heat, when external bodies are warmer than our fingers; and weight likewise, when they gravitate more in comparison with their bulk than usual. Humidity we judge of by the presence of adhering water; softness, by the yielding of the object; hardness, by the yielding of the finger; figure, by the hard limits circumscribing them; distance, by an inaccurate calculation derived from experience, to which the length of the arm serves as a measure, &c. Touch corrects the errors of our other senses, although it sometimes errs itself, and though other senses, independent of touch, furnish animals with just perceptions.

The mucous body of Malpighius moderates the action of the object touched, and preserves the integrity and softness of the papillæ. The cuticle excludes the air from the destructible skin; moderates the impressions of bodies, so that they may be only sufficient to effect the touch without causing pain: and, therefore when thickened by use, the sense of feeling is lost; but, if it be too soft, the touch becomes painful. The hairs defend the cuticle from friction, generate and preserve the heat, conceal some parts, and render the membranes of others irritable, which require to be defended against the entrance of insects; and perhaps they excrete something excrementitious, and afford a passage to the exhaled oil. The nails are subservient to the touch, by resisting the object touched so as to prevent the papillæ from yielding, and being bent back; they

increase the power of apprehension, and assist in the handling of minute objects. In most animals, they serve as weapons of offence; and would be of the same use to man, if they were not cut.

These are not all the uses of the skin. For a most important office of that covering is to exhale from the body a large quantity of humours, and to absorb others from the air. Accordingly, the whole surface of the skin, by an infinite number of small arteries, both prolonged into the papillæ, and seated in the skin itself, exhales a vapour which exudes through corresponding pores of the cuticle: but when the position of the vessels is changed, it is effused between the cuticle and skin. These arteries are easily demonstrated by injecting water or isinglas into the arteries; for then, from all parts of the skin, an infinite number of small drops exude, which being effused under the cuticle, rendered impervious by death, raise it up in blisters.

During life, this exhalation is demonstrated in many ways. A bright mirror, when held near the warm and naked skin, is quickly obscured by a moist vapour. In subterraneous caverns, where the air is denser, it most evidently escapes in the air, from the whole surface of the body, in the form of visible and thick clouds.

In man, and in some, though not in all animals, whenever the motion of the blood is increased, while at the same time the skin is hot and relaxed, from the small cutaneous pores, instead of an invisible vapour, sweat exudes in the form of minute, but visible drops, which, with others of the same kind, run together into larger drops. The hottest parts are most subject to sweat, as the head, breast, and folds of the body. The experiment before mentioned, together with the simplicity of nature, the visible density of the cutaneous and pulmonary exhalation, persuades

us, that sweat is discharged through the same vessels which are the organs of perspiration, and that it differs only in its quantity and celerity, and by the admixture of the liquor of the sebaceous glands, and the subcutaneous oil, which being diluted by the more plentifully secreted arterial fluid, exude of an oily and yellow consistence, and chiefly cause the smell and colour of the sweat. Hence, it is more fetid and yellower in the armpits and groins, where those glands are most numerous. Both blood and small sand have escaped from the skin along with the sweat.

The nature of perspiration must be investigated by experiments, and by its analogy with the pulmonary exhalation, which, in like manner, but more frequently, becomes visible in a cold air. That this exhalation is chiefly water, has been proved by experiments, in which the breath, being received into large vessels, has condensed into watery drops. This is confirmed by the tenuity of the cloud on the mirror, and its volatility and by the familiar change of the perspired matter, when obstructed, into a diuresis or diarrhoea, and from the easy determination of warm liquors to assume the form of perspiration by heat, or of urine by cold. This water is derived from our drink, which furnishes a great part of the perspiration, and from inhalation. Frequently, even the odours of our aliments may be plainly perceived in the perspiration; there is also an admixture of the electrical matter in every person, and in some it is evidently lucid.

That it also contains some volatile particles of an alkaline nature, is evident, both from the nature of our blood, and from the considerable evils which succeed the retention of the perspiration, most conspicuously in acute diseases, when, by being repelled inward, it renders the urine

pale, and from the corruption of the air by respiration. This volatile alkaline matter arises from the particles of the blood, attenuated by perpetual heat and trituration, and changed into an acrimonious nature. Dogs trace these odours, and could not know their masters unless something of a particular nature were perspired from each person.

The quantity of matter perspired is very large, whether we consider the extent of the organ secreting it, the quantity of vapour exhaled by the lungs alone, or the experiments of Sanctoia, by which it would seem, that of eight pounds of food and drink, five pounds, or, according to other experiments in a colder country, from fifty-six to thirty ounces are perspired; which neither add to the weight of the body, nor escape by any visible excretion except the saliva, sweat, and mucus of the nose. But the cutaneous exhalation is even much larger than this; since it not only throws off such a proportion of the alimentary matters, but likewise redischarges what the blood requires by inhalation. In this, however, the different states of the air, and of the body, have great influence. In warm countries, in the summer months, and in young active persons, more goes off by perspiration, and less by the urine. But in cold climates, during the temperate and winter seasons, in aged or inactive persons, more goes off by the urine than by the insensible perspiration. In temperate countries, making a computation throughout the whole year, something more is perspired than what passes off by urine; and, by collating all the experiments made in different countries, both excretions are almost alike. It is also somewhat affected by the difference of time after eating; and the law which seems to obtain, is, that the perspiration is most copious

at that time when the alimentary matters, being mostly digested, and received into the blood, are fitted for exhalation. It is naturally diminished during sleep, even in the warmer climates; but it is increased by the heat of the bed-clothes.

In general, a plentiful and equable perspiration, at the same time that the body is strong, are good signs of health; for excessive perspiration, when conjoined with debility, is observed to do more mischief than its entire suppression, if what has been written on this subject is sufficiently to be depended on. It is a sign of health, because it denotes the perviousness of the vessels dispersed throughout the whole body, and the complete digestion of the aliments, of which a great part is resolved into halitus. When it is diminished, it indicates constriction of the skin, weakness of the heart, and imperfect digestion. When excessive, it perhaps wastes the nervous spirits. This discharge is, by moderate exercise, increased to six times that of a person at rest, to the extent of a pound in an hour, or even in half an hour. It is farther increased, if aided by strong and open vessels, by warm, watery, and cordial drinks, by food of easy digestion, by a dense and temperate atmosphere, and by cheerfulness. It is diminished or suppressed by the contrary causes; as a dense skin, a moist, or a cold and dry atmosphere, rest, an increased flow of urine, the supervention of a diarrhoea; and lastly, nervous agitation, from a disagreeable affection of the mind. However, the continuance of life does not depend so intimately on this discharge which is so easily, and without bad consequences, increased or diminished by slight causes; and is so inconsiderable, in many nations, anointing their skins with oil, and in many animals. When by being suppressed, it produces such bad effects in fevers

of a bad kind, it hurts chiefly by the putrescent particles, which are retained by the perspiration being suppressed.

The sweat is evidently of a saline nature; as appears both from its taste and from the crystals which form upon the clothes of glass-blowers; and by distillation, which demonstrates its alkaline nature. Hence, by this discharge, the miasmata of the most pestilential diseases are frequently expelled. But, in reality, sweat is always a preternatural discharge, and ought never to exist in a healthy person, unless by violent bodily exercise, he have induced a temporary disease. It also is frequently injurious in acute diseases; by wasting the water of the blood, so that the rest becomes thicker, and the salts more acrimonious. By violent exercise, or the heat of the climate, the sweat is extremely fetid; and even sanguineous: being electrical, it sometimes is lucid.

The uses of perspiration are, to free the blood of its redundant water, of its alkaline impurities, rendered more acrid by repeated circulations; and of an extremely volatile oil, probably prepared from the same blood. The same perspiration likewise qualifies and softens the cuticle, and preserves the necessary softness of the papillæ.

But the same skin, which has vessels exhaling into the air, is likewise replenished with vessels, which absorb thin vapours from the air, either perpetually, or at least in a moderate degree of cold; in a moist atmosphere; in the night-time, when the body is at rest, the mind depressed, and under circumstances, contrary to those mentioned above, which increase perspiration. These veins are demonstrated by anatomical injections, which, if thin or watery, exude through them in the same manner as through the arteries: moreover, by

the manifest operations of medicines, diffused in the air, or applied to the skin: of vapours, mercury, turpentine, saffron; of baths, mercurial plasters, tobacco, coloquintida, opium, cantharides, arsenic; by the fatal effects of poisons, absorbed by the skin; as the venereal poison; by the living of animals, without drink, in hot but humid islands; by the perspiration and urine being sufficiently copious in such situations, without much drink; and lastly, by extraordinary morbid cases, in which the quantity of urine discharged has far exceeded the drink taken in; in which it is probable, that the inhaling pores were more open; for that new ones were generated, is not credible. It is difficult to ascertain its quantity; that it is very great in plants in the night-time, is proved by certain experiments.

Both the exhaling and inhaling vessels, may be contracted and relaxed by the nervous power. This appears from the effects of the passions of the mind; which, if lively and exhilarating, relax the exhaling vessels, by increasing the impulse of the influx of blood; and by the remission of the nerves; hence redness, moisture, and turgescence of the skin. Those passions, which are languid and depressing, contract the exhaling vessels; as appears from the dryness of the skin, produced by them; from the goose-skin, by terror; and from diarrhoea, caused by fear. They also seem to dilate the inhaling vessels, whence fear facilitates the action of the small-pox and the plague.

TOUCH ME NOT. See *Noli me tangere*.

TOUCHWOOD. See *Agaricus*.

TOXICARIA MACASARIENSIS. An Indian poison, obtained from a tree hitherto undescribed by any medical botanist, known by the name of Boas-upas; it is a native of South America. Concerning this

plant various and almost incredible particulars have been related, both in ancient and modern times; some of them true, others probably founded on superstition. Rumphius testifies that he had not met with any other more dreadful produced from any vegetable. And he adds, that this poison, of which the Indians boast, was much more terrible to the Dutch than any warlike instrument. He likewise says, it is his opinion, that it is of the same natural order if not of the same genus as the cestrum.

The Dutch inhabitants of India call it Giftboom, or Spatenboom. By Rumphius it is called Arbor toxicaria, and among the Malay inhabitants of Malacca, Java, and Sumatra, it has the names of Ipo, Cajo-upas, Boa-upas, and Lupo matta ju. There are two species of it mentioned by Rumphius, a male and female; but the flowers and the fruit are unknown. The tree is represented as having a thick trunk, spreading branches, ash coloured bark; the wood is solid, of a yellowish white colour, variegated with black spots.

This tree grows in several of the warmer parts of India, principally in the islands of Java, Sumatra, Borneo, Bali, Macasser, and Celebes. It is found for the most part in very desert places, and on bare mountains. It is easily distinguished at a distance, as no other tree will grow near it; the ground on which it stands, is barren and parched up.

The juice of this tree, in which the whole deleterious power resides, is of a dark brown colour, and being dried, appears like a resin. That obtained from the male tree, is said to be the hardest and best, resembling pitch; being friable by the fire.

Those who collect this juice must be extremely cautious, that they may not be endangered. They should be covered with linen, that they may

not be incommoded by the vapours which it emits. Long bamboos are therefore employed, pointed like a spear at the extremity, as no one dare remove the juice with their hands. These canes are pushed obliquely into the bark of the trunk, that the juice may gradually drop into the hollow of the cane, where it condenses into a substance, and of the colour as above mentioned. The nearer the root that the juice is obtained the more efficacious the poison. Upwards of twenty reeds are left in the tree for three or four days, that the juice may collect and harden in their cavities. The upper joint of the reed being thus filled, is cut off from the remaining part. This juice while yet recent, is formed into small globules, put into the hollow cavities of reeds, and then kept in a dry place, covered with seven or eight folds of linen, but it must every week be taken out and cleaned, lest it should become mouldy. By exhalation it loses its activity which is much diminished in the space of one year; and in a few years is entirely gone.

The poisonous quality of this tree is very dreadful. From the mere halitus which it emits, the limbs are as it were congealed, and at the same time affected with spasms. If any one stand under it with his head bare, a loss of hair is the consequence; and if a drop from the tree falls on any part, an excessive swelling arises. Even the air about this tree is so infected, that birds, when sitting on its branches, in a short time fall down dead; they can even with difficulty fly over it; and the ground is barren for near a stone cast around it.

The poison of the female tree, however, is said to be much weaker, and from that reason it is employed in catching wild beasts. It is not used for poisoning weapons, unless mixed with the stronger kind; but

by this the power of both is supposed to be increased. When any person is wounded with a dart, upon which this poison has been rubbed, it very quickly diffuses itself through every part, exciting a violent sense of heat and vertigo, to which death soon succeeds. The poisoned weapons in general preserve their power for two years; but in some instances only two or three months. It is for the most part fatal, from immediate admission into the blood; and accordingly Rumphius asserts, that the inhabitants of Celebes sometimes venture to employ it as a remedy internally.

The strength of this poison is determined as follows. A quantity of of the expressed juice of the root of the Lamprijang or *Amomum zerumbet*, having a portion of water mixed with it, is strained through linen, and to this a small portion of the poison is added. Upon this mixture a sudden ebullition takes place, by which the strength of the poison is determined, according to the violence of the boiling. This operation is said not to be dangerous as the operation feels only a sudden increase of heat.

The deleterious poison in general proves fatal, in the space of half an hour, sometimes in a quarter of an hour; so that antidotes can be very rarely employed. The Macasserian kings, with the view of exploring the deleterious power of the poison, have directed experiments to be performed on criminals. But even when a finger or thumb be wounded and amputated it cannot be saved.

It is not entirely of a gummy nature, as it may be dissolved in arrack. The Indians employ this poison to punish criminals, and likewise to rub on the weapons they use. But nevertheless in its crude state it is employed as an antidote against other poisons, both internally and

externally. It is chiefly used in the form of plaster, against the bite of poisonous insects. It is said to allay pain quickly, and extract the poison sooner than any other remedy. A pill formed by the mixing it with the pulp of some fruits, is successfully employed in cases of obstinate ulcers, and cutaneous eruptions. When weakened, it is used in killing deer, and the flesh thus killed is by no means obnoxious.

TOXICOLOGY, (*Toxicologia*, *a*, *f*. τοξικολογια, from τοξον, an arrow or bow; because the darts of the ancients were usually besmeared with some poisonous substance; and λογος, a discourse). A dissertation on poisons. See *Poison*.

TRABECULÆ, (*Trabecula*, *a*, *f*. a small beam). This word is mostly applied by anatomists to the small medullary fibres of the brain, which constitute the commissures.

TRACHEA, (*Trachea*, *a*, *f*. τραχεια; so called from its roughness; from τραχος, rough). The wind-pipe. The trachea is a cartilaginous and membranous canal, through which the air passes into the lungs. Its upper part which is called the larynx, is composed of five cartilages. The uppermost and smallest of these cartilages, is placed over the glottis or mouth of the larynx, and is called epiglottis, as closing the passage to the lungs in the act of swallowing. The sides of the larynx are composed of the two arytenoid cartilages, which are of a very complex figure, not easy to be described. The anterior and larger part of the larynx is made up of two cartilages, one of which is called thyroides or scutiformis, from its being shaped like a buckler: and the other cricoides or annularis, from its resembling a ring. Both these cartilages may be felt immediately under the skin, at the fore part of the thorax; and the thyroides, by its

convexity, forms an eminence called the pomum adami, which is usually more considerable in the male than in the female subject.

All these cartilages are united to each other by means of very elastic ligamentous fibres; and are enabled by the assistance of their several muscles, to dilate or contract the passage of the larynx, and to perform that variety of motion which seems to point out the larynx, as the principal organ of the voice; for when the air passes out through a wound in the trachea, it produces no sound.

These cartilages are moistened by a mucus, which seems to be secreted by minute glands situated near them. The upper part of the trachea, and the cricoid and thyroid cartilages, are in some measure covered anteriorly by a considerable body, which is supposed to be of a glandular structure, and from its situation is called the thyroid gland, though its excretory duct has not yet been discovered, or its real use ascertained. The glottis is entirely covered by a very fine membrane, which is moistened by a constant supply of a watery fluid. From the larynx the canal begins to take the name of trachea or aspera arteria, and extends from thence as far down as the fourth or fifth vertebræ of the back, where it divides into two branches, which are the right and left bronchial tube. Each of these bronchia ramifies through the substance of that lobe of the lungs, to which it is distributed, by an infinite number of branches, which are formed of cartilages separated from each other like those of the trachea, by an intervening membranous and ligamentary substance. Each of these cartilages is of an angular figure; and as they become gradually less and less in their diameter, the lower ones are in some measure received into those above

them, when the lungs after being inflated, gradually collapse by the air being pushed out from them in expiration. As the branches of the bronchiæ become more minute, their cartilages become more and more angular and membranous, till at length they become perfectly membranous, and at last become invisible. The trachea is furnished with fleshy or muscular fibres, some of which pass through its whole extent longitudinally, while the others are carried round it in a circular direction, so that by the contraction or relaxation of these fibres, it is enabled to shorten or lengthen itself, and likewise to dilate or contract the diameter of its passage. The trachea and its branches, in all their ramifications, are furnished with a great number of small glands which are lodged in their cellular substance, and discharge a mucous fluid on the inner surface of these tubes.

The cartilages of the trachea, by keeping it constantly open, afford a free passage to the air which we are obliged to be incessantly respiring; and its membranous part, by being capable of contraction or dilatation, enables us to receive and expel the air in a greater or less quantity, and with more or less velocity, as may be required in singing and declamation. This membranous structure of the trachea posteriorly, seems likewise to assist in the descent of the food, by preventing that impediment to its passage down the œsophagus, which might be expected, if the cartilages be complete rings. The trachea receives its arteries from the carotid and subclavian arteries, and its veins pass into the jugulars. Its nerves arise from the recurrent branch of the eighth pair, and from the cervical plexus.

TRACHĒLO, (from τραχῆλος, the neck). Names compounded of this

word belong to muscles which are attached to the neck; as the

TRACHĒLO-MASTOIDĒUS, (*Musculus trachelo mastoideus*). A muscle situated on the neck, which assists the complexus, but pulls the head more to one side.

TRACHEOTOMY, (*Tracheotomia*, *α, f. τραχειοτομία*, from τραχὺς, rough, and τέμνω, to cut). A synonym of bronchotomy. See *Bronchotomy*.

TRACHŌMA, (*Trachoma*, *αἰς. n. πρᾶγμα*; from τραχὺς, rough). An asperity in the internal superficies of the eyelid. The effects are a violent ophthalmia, and a severe pain, as often as the eyelid moves. The species are, 1. *Trachoma sabulosum*, from sand falling between the eye and the eyelid of persons travelling, blown by a high wind; this happens chiefly in fabulous situations, and may be prevented by spectacles for the purpose, or by guarding against the flights of sand by covering the eyes. 2. *Trachoma carunculiform*, which arises from caruncles, or fleshy verucæ, growing in the internal superficies of the eyelid. This species of the trachoma is called morum palpebræ internæ, because the tuberculous internal superficies appears of a livid red like a mulberry. Others call these carunculæ pladorotes. 3. *Trachoma herpeticum*, which are hard pustules in the internal superficies of the eyelids. This is also called sycofis, seu palpebra ficosa, from its resemblance to granulated substances in cut fig. With the Greeks it is nominated atomablepharon, or proptoris; by the Latins, prolapsus palpebræ superioris.

TRAGACANTHA, (*Tragacantha*, *α, f. τραγανθα*, from τραγός, a goat, and ακανθα, a thorn; so called from its pods resembling the goat's beard). Goat's-thorn. Milk-vetch. *Astragalus tragacantha caudice arborecente, petiolis spinescens* of Linnæus. Class

Diadelphia. Order *Decandria*. Gum tragacanth, or gum dragant (which is forced from this plant by the intensity of the solar rays about Mount Ida, where it is concreted into irregular lumps or vermicular pieces, bent into a variety of shapes, and larger or smaller proportions, according to the size of the wound from which it issues), differs from all other known gums in imparting to a very large quantity of water a thick and glutinous consistence. The demulcent qualities of this gum are to be considered as similar to those of gum arabic. (See *Arabic gum*). It is seldom given alone, but frequently in combination with more powerful medicines, especially in the form of troches, for which it is peculiarly well adapted: it gives name to an officinal powder, and is an ingredient in the compound powder of cerufs.

TRAGACANTH GUM. See *Tragacantha*.

TRAGICUS, (*Musculus tragicus*). A proper muscle of the ear, which pulls the point of the tragus a little forward.

TRAGOPŌGON, (*Tragopogon*, i, n. *τραγοπωγον*, from *τραγος*, a goat, and *πωγων*, a beard; so called because its downy seed while enclosed in the calyx resembles a goat's beard). Goat's beard. The young stems of this plant, *Tragopogon pratense* of Linnæus, are eaten like asparagus, and are a pleasant and wholesome food. The root is also excellent, and was formerly used medicinally as a diuretic.

TRAGOPŌGON PRATENSE. The systematic name of the common goat's beard. See *Tragopogon*.

TRAGOSELĪNUM, (*Tragoselinum*, i, n. *τραγοσελινον*, from *τραγος*, a goat, and *σελινον*, parsley; named from its hairy coat like the beard of a goat). The burnet saxifrage was so called. See *Rapinella*.

TRAGUS, (*Tragus*, i, m. *τραγος*, a

goat; so called from its having numerous little hairs, or from its being hairy like the goat). A small cartilaginous eminence of the auricula or external ear, placed anteriorly, and connected to the anterior extremity of the helix. It is beset with numerous little hairs, defending in some measure the entrance of the external auditory passage.

TRANSPIRATION, (*Transpiratio*, from *trans*, through, and *spiro*, to breathe). A synonym of perspiration. See *Perspiration*.

TRANSVERSĀLIS ABDOMINIS, (*Musculus transversalis*). A muscle, situated on the anterior part of the abdomen, which supports and compresses the abdominal viscera.

TRANSVERSĀLIS ANTICUS PRIMUS. See *Rectus capitis lateralis*.

TRANSVERSĀLIS CERVICIS. See *Longissimus dorsi*.

TRANSVERSĀLIS COLLI, A muscle, situated on the posterior part of the neck, which turns the neck obliquely backwards, and a little to one side.

TRANSVERSĀLIS DORSI. See *Multifidus spinæ*.

TRANSVERSĀLIS MAJOR COLLI. See *Longissimus dorsi*.

TRANSVERSĀLIS PEDIS, (*Musculus transversalis pedis*). A muscle of the foot, which it contracts by bringing the great toe and the two outermost toes nearer each other.

TRANSVERSE SUTURE, (*Sutura transversalis*). This suture runs across the face, and sinks down into the orbits, joins the bones of the skull to the bones of the face; but with so many irregularities and interruptions, that the student will scarcely recognize it as a suture.

TRANSVERSO - SPINALES. See *Multifidus spinæ*.

TRANSVERSUS AURIS, (*Musculus transversus auris*). A muscle of the external ear, which draws the upper part of the concha towards the helix.

TRANSVERSUS PERINÆI, (*Musculus transversus perinæi*). A muscle of the organs of generation, which sustains and keeps the perinæum in its proper place.

TRANSVERSUS PERINÆI ALTER. *Inferior prostate* of Winslow. A small muscle occasionally found accompanying the former.

TRAPA NATANS. The systematic name of the plant which affords the *nux aquatica*. See *Tribulus aquaticus*.

TRAPEZIUM OS, (*Trapezium*, *i*, *n.* *τετραγων*, a four-sided figure; so called from its shape). The first bone of the second row of the carpus.

TRAPEZIUS, (*Musculus trapezius*, from *τετραγων*, four-square; so named from its shape). *Cucullaris*. A muscle situated immediately under the integuments of the posterior part of the neck and back. It arises, by a thick, round, and short tendon, from the lower part of a protuberance in the middle of the occipital bone backwards, and from the rough line that is extended from thence towards the mastoid process of the os temporis, and by a thin membranous tendon, which covers part of the complexus and splenius. It then runs downwards along the nape of the neck, and rises tendinous from the spinous processes of the two lowermost vertebræ of the neck, and from the spinous processes of all the vertebræ of the back, being inseparably united to its fellow, the whole length of its origin, by tendinous fibres, which, in the nape of the neck, form what is called *ligamentum colli*, or the cervical ligament. It is inserted fleshy into the broad and posterior half of the clavicle, tendinous and fleshy into one half of the acromion, and into almost all the spine of the scapula.

This muscle serves to move the scapula in different directions. Its upper descending fibres pull it ob-

liquely upwards; its middle transverse ones pull it directly backwards; its inferior fibres, which ascend obliquely upwards, draw it obliquely downwards and backwards.

The upper part of the muscle act upon the neck and head, the latter of which it draws backwards, and turns upon its axis. It likewise concurs with other muscles in counteracting the flexion of the head forwards.

TRAPEZOIDES OS. The second bone of the second row of the carpus so called from its resemblance to the *trapezium* or quadrilateral geometrical figure.

TRAUMATIC, (*Medicamenta traumatica*, from *τραυμα*, a wound). Anything relating to a wound.

TRAVELLERS JOY. See *Vitalba*.

TREACLE. See *Theriaca*.

TREACLE, MUSTARD. See *Thlaspi*.

TREFOIL, MARSH. See *Trifolium paludosum*.

TREMOR, (*Tremor, oris, m.*). An involuntary trembling of parts.

TREPAN. An instrument used by surgeons to remove a portion of bone from the calvaria.

TRIANGULARIS. See *Sternocostalis*.

TRIANGULARIS. See *Depressor anguli oris*.

TRIBULUS AQUATICUS, (*Tribulus*, *i*, *m.* *τεριστοδός*, from *τερι* to vex, an instrument of war to be thrown in the way to annoy the enemy's horse: hence the name of an herb from its resemblance to this instrument). *Nux aquatica*. The fruit of the *Trapa nata* of Linnæus, of a quadrangular and somewhat oval shape, including a nut of a sweet farinaceous flavour, somewhat like that of the chestnut which is apt to constipate the bowels, and produce disease; a poultice of these nuts is said to be efficacious in resolving hard and indolent tumours.

TRICEPS ADDUCTOR FEMORIS

Triceps, from *tres*, three, and *caput*, a head; having three heads). Under this appellation are comprehended three distinct muscles. See *Adductor brevis*, *longus*, and *magnus femoris*.

TRICEPS EXTENSOR CUBITI. This muscle, which occupies all the posterior part of the os humeri, is described as two distinct muscles by Douglas, and as three by Winslow. The upper part of its long head is covered by the deltoides; the rest of the muscle is situated immediately under the integuments.

It arises, as its name indicates, by three heads. The first, or long head, the long head of the biceps externus, of Douglas; anconeus major, of Winslow, as it is called), springs, by a flat tendon of an inch in breadth, from the anterior extremity of the inferior costa of the scapula, near its neck, and below the origin of the teres minor. The second head, (the short head of the biceps externus of Douglas; anconeus externus, of Winslow), arises by an acute tendinous and fleshy beginning, from the upper and outer part of the os humeri, at the bottom of its great tuberosity. The third head, (brachialis externus, of Douglas; anconeus internus, of Winslow), which is the shortest of the three, originates from an acute fleshy beginning, from the back part of the os humeri, behind the flat tendon of the latissimus muscle. These three portions unite about the middle of the arm, so as to form one thick and powerful muscle, which adheres to the os humeri to within an inch of the elbow, where it begins to form a broad tendon which, after adhering to the capsular ligament of the elbow, is inserted into the upper and outer part of the coronoid process, and sends off a great number of fibres, which help to form the flexor digitorum on the outer part of the forearm.

The use of this muscle is to extend the fore-arm.

TRICHIASIS, (*Trichiasis*, is, f. *τριχιασμις*, from *τριξ*, a hair). *Trichiasis*. A disease of the eye-lashes, in which they are turned inwards, towards the bulb of the eye.

TRICHOMA, (*Trichoma*, *ātis*, n. *τριχωμα*, from, *τριχος*, the hair). The plaited hair, See *Plica polonica*.

TRICHOMANĒS, (*Trichomanes*, is, m. *τριχομανης*, from *τριχος*, hair, and *μανος*, thin, lax; so called because it resembles fine hair). Common maiden hair, or spleen wort. *Asplenium trichomanes* of Linnæus. *Asplenium frondibus pinnatis, pinnis subrotundis crenatis*. Class *Cryptogamia*. Order *Filices*. This plant is admitted into the Edinburgh pharmacopœia: the leaves have a mucilaginous, sweetish, subadstringent taste, without any particular flavour: they are esteemed useful in disorders of the breast, being supposed to promote the expectoration of tough phlegm, and to open obstructions of the viscera.

TRICHURIS, (*Trichuris*, *idis*, f. *τριχουρις*, from *τριξ*, a hair). The long hair-worm. See *Worms*.

TRICUSPID VALVES, (*Valvula tricuspidēs*, from *tres*, three, and *cuspis*, a point; so called from their being three-pointed). The name of the three valves situated at the origin of the aorta and pulmonary artery.

TRIFOIL, WATER. See *Trifolium paludosum*.

TRIFOLIUM ACETOSUM. The wood sorrel was so called. See *Luzula*.

TRIFOLIUM AQUATICUM. See *Trifolium paludosum*.

TRIFOLIUM FIBRINUM. See *Trifolium paludosum*.

TRIFOLIUM HEPATICUM. See *Hepatica nobilis*.

TRIFOLIUM MILILOTUS OFFICINALIS. The systematic name of the officinal melilot. See *Melilotus*.

TRIFOLIUM ODORATUM. See *Melilotus*.

TRIFOLIUM PALUDOSUM, (*Trifolium*, *i*, *n*. from *tres*, three, and *folium*, a leaf; so called because it has three leaves on each stalk). *Trifolium aquaticum*. *Trifolium fibrinum*. *Menyanthes*. Water trefoil, or buckbean. *Menyanthes trifoliata* of Linnaeus. *Menyanthes foliis ternatis*. Class *Pentandria*. Order *Monogynia*. The whole plant is so extremely bitter, that in some countries it is used as a substitute for hops, in the preparation of malt liquor. It is sometimes employed in country places as an active eccoprotic bitter in hydropic and rheumatic affections. Cases are related of its good effects in some cutaneous diseases of the herpetic and seemingly cancerous kind.

TRIGEMINI, (*Trigeminus*, from *tres*, three, and *geminus*, double; three times double). The fifth pair of nerves, which arise from the crura of the cerebellum, and are divided within the cavity of the cranium into three branches, viz. the *orbital*, *superior*, and *inferior maxillary*. The orbital branch is divided into the frontal, lachrymal, and nasal nerves; the superior maxillary into the sphæno-palatine, posterior alveolar, and infra-orbital nerves; and the inferior maxillary into two branches, the internal lingual, and one more properly called the inferior maxillary.

TRIGONELLA FENUM GRÆCUM. The systematic name of the fœnugrek. See *Fœnum græcum*.

TRINITATIS HERBA. See *Hepatica nobilis*.

TRINITY HERB. See *Hepatica nobilis*.

TRIQUËTRA OSSICULA, (*Triquetrus*, from *tres*, three). *Ossicula Wormiana*. The triangular-shaped bones, which are found mostly in the course of the lambdoidal suture.

TRISMUS, (*Trismus*, *i*, *m*. τροσμος,

from τροσω, to gnash). Locked jaw. See *Tetanns*.

TRISSAGO, (*Trissago*, *inis*, *f*. quasi *tristago*, from *tristis*, sad; because it dispels sadness). The common germander is sometimes so called. See *Chamædrys*.

TRISSAGO PALUSTRIS. The water germander was so called. See *Scordium*.

TRITICUM, (*Triticum*, *i*, *n*. from *tero*, to thresh from the husk). See *Wheat*.

TROCAR, (corrupted from *trois quart*, French). The name of an instrument used in tapping for the dropfy.

TROCHANTERS, (*Trochanter*, *i*, *m*. τροχαντης, from τροχω, to run; because the muscles inserted into them perform the office of running). Two processes of the thigh-bone, which are distinguished into the greater and lesser. See *Femur*.

TROCHISCI AMÏLI. Starch lozenges are used in tickling coughs and acidities of the stomach and bowels.

TROCHISCI CRETÆ. These are exhibited in cardialgia, acidities of the primæ viæ and diarrhæa.

TROCHISCI GLYCYRRIZÆ. A pectoral and demulcent lozenge.

TROCHISCI GLYCYRRIZÆ CUM OPIO. This lozenge possesses pectoral and anodyne qualities, but requires that the quantity be regulated one grain being contained in a drachm.

TROCHISCI MAGNESIÆ. Extremely serviceable in pyrosis and flatulent colic.

TROCHISCI NITRI. An attenuating diaphoretic, calculated to remove viscid phlegm arising from inflammatory angina.

TROCHISCI SULPHÛRIS. Aperient and antiscorbutic.

TROCHISCUS, (*Trochiscus*, *i*, *m*. τροχισκος, dim. of τροχος, a wheel). A troch or round tablet. Troche

and lozenges are composed of powders made up with glutinous substances into little cakes, and afterwards dried. This form is principally used for the more commodious exhibition of certain medicines, by fitting them to dissolve slowly in the mouth, so as to pass by degrees into the stomach; and hence these preparations have generally a considerable portion of sugar or other materials grateful to the palate. Some powders have likewise been reduced into troches, with a view to their preparation, though possibly for no very good reasons: for the moistening them and afterwards drying them in the air, must on this account be of greater injury, than any advantage accruing from this form can counterbalance.

General rules for making troches.

1. If the mass prove so glutinous as to stick to the fingers in making up, the hands may be anointed with any sweet or aromatic oil; or else sprinkled with powder or starch, or of liquorice, or with flour.

2. In order to thoroughly dry the troches, put them on an inverted sieve, in a shady airy place, and frequently turn them.

3. Troches are to be kept in glass vessels, or in earthen ones well glazed.

TROCHLEA, (*Trochlea*, *α*, *f.* τροχlea, a pulley, from τροχεω to run). A kind of cartilaginous pulley, through which the tendon of one of the muscles of the eye passes.

TROCHLEARIS, (*Trochlearis* *sc.* musculus. See *Obliquus superior oculi*).

TROCHLEATORES, (*Trochleator*, *is*, *m.*). The fourth pair of nerves are so called, because they are inserted into the musculus trochlearis of the eye). See *Pathetici*.

TROCHOIDES, (*Trochoides*, *is*, *f.* τροχοειδης, a wheel, and οειδης, resem-

blance). A species of diarthrosis, or moveable connexion of bones, in which one bone rotates upon another; as the first cervical vertebræ upon the odontoid process of the second.

TROPEOLUM MAJUS. The systematic name of the Indian cress. See *Nasturtium indicum*.

TRUFFLE. *Lycoperdon tuber* of Linnæus. A solid fungus of a globular figure, which grows under the surface of the ground, so as to be totally hidden. It has a rough blackish coat, and is destitute of fibres. Cooks are well acquainted with its use and qualities. It is found in woods and pastures in some parts of Kent, but is not very common in England. In France and Spain truffles are very frequent, and grow to a much larger size than they do here. In these places the peasants find it worth their while to search for them, and they train up dogs and swine for this purpose, who after they have been inured to their smell by their masters frequently placing them in their way, will readily scrape them up as they ramble the fields and woods.

TUBA EUSTACHIANA, (*Tuba*, *α*, *f.*). The Eustachian tube; so called because it was first described by Eustachius. The auditory tube. This tube arises in each ear from the anterior extremity of the tympanum by means of a bony semi-canal; runs forwards and inwards, at the same time becoming gradually smaller; and after perforating the petrous portion of the temporal bone terminates in a passage, partly cartilaginous and partly membranous, narrow at the beginning, but becoming gradually larger, and ending in a pouch behind the soft palate. It is through this orifice that the pituitary membrane of the nose enters the tympanum. It is always open, and affords

a free passage for the air into the tympanum; hence persons hear better with their mouth open.

TUBA FALLOPIANA. The Fallopian tube, first described by Fallopius. The uterine tube. A canal included in two laminæ of the peritonæum, which arises at each side of the fundus of the uterus, passes transversely, and ends with its extremity turned downwards at the ovarium. Its use is to grasp the ovum, and convey the prolific vapour to it, and to conduct the fertilized ovum into the cavity of the uterus.

TUBERCLE, (*Tuberculum, i, n.*). A hard superficial tumour, circumscribed and permanent; or proceeding very slowly to suppuration.

TUBERCULA QUADRIGEMINA, *Corpora quadrigemina. Eminentie quadrigeminae.* Four white oval tubercles of the brain, two of which are situated on each side over the posterior orifice of the third ventricle and the aqueduct of Sylvius. The ancients called them nates and testes, from their supposed resemblance.

TUBERCULUM LOWERI. An eminence in the right auricle of the heart where the two venæ cavæ meet; so called from Lower, who first described it.

TUMORES, (*Tumor, oris, m.* from *tumeo*, to swell). Tumours. An order in the class *locales* of Cullen's nosology, comprehending partial swellings without inflammation.

TUNBRIDGE WATER. A chalybeate water, the analysis of which shows it to be a very pure water, as to the quantity of solid matter; and the saline contents (the iron excepted) are such as may be found in almost any water that is used as common drink. It is only as a chalybeate, and in the quantity of carbonic acid, that it differs from common water. Of this acid it contains 1-22d

bulk. The general operation of this chalybeate water is to increase the power of the secretory system in a gradual, uniform manner, and to impart tone and strength to all the functions. It is recommended in a variety of complaints incident to the female sex, in menorrhagia, fluor albus, chlorosis, &c.

TUNGSTEN, (*Tungsten, Swed.* ponderous stone). A mineral of peculiar gravity.

TUNGSTIC ACID. Tungsten is a true earthy salt, composed of calcareous earth and a peculiar acid, called acid of tungsten.

TUNIC, (*Tunica, æ, f. a tuendo corpore*, because it defends the body). A membrane or covering, as the coats of the eye, &c.

TUNICA, (*Tunica, æ, f. a tuendo corpore*, because it defends the body). See *Tunic*.

TUNICA ALBUGINÆA OCULI. See *Conjunctive membrane*.

TUNICA ALBUGINÆA TESTIS. See *Albuginea testis*.

TUNICA ARACHNOIDÆA. See *Arachnoid membrane*.

TUNICA CHOROIDÆA. See *Choroid membrane*.

TUNICA CONJUNCTIVA. See *Conjunctive membrane*.

TUNICA CORNÆA. See *Cornea*.

TUNICA RETINA. See *Retina*.

TUNICA VAGINALIS TESTIS. A continuation of the peritonæum through the inguinal ring, which loosely invests the testicle and spermatic cord.

TUNSTATS, (*Tunstas, atis, m.*). Salts formed by the combination of the tungstic acid with different bases, as *tunstat of ammonia*.

TURBETH MINERAL. See *Hydrargyrus vitriolatus*.

TURBETH ROOT. See *Turpethum*.

TURBINATED BONES, (*Ossa turbinata*, from *turbino*, to sharpen at the top, shaped like a sugar-leaf). The superior spongy portion of the ethmoid bone, and the inferior spongy bones, are so called by some writers.

TURMERIC. See *Curcuma*.

TURNHOOF. A vulgar name of the ground-ivy. See *Hedera terebinthis*.

TURNIP. See *Rapa*.

TURNIP, FRENCH. See *Rapus*.

TURPETH MINERAL. See *Hydrargyrus vitriolatus*.

TURPETHUM, (*Turpethum*, *i*, *n.* from *turpeth*, *Ind.*). Turbeth. The cortical part of the root of a species of convolvulus, the *Convolvulus turpethum* of Linnæus, brought from the East Indies, in oblong pieces, of a brown or ash colour on the outside and whitish within: the best is ponderous, not wrinkled, easy to break, and discovers to the eye a large quantity of resinous matter. When chewed, it at first imparts a sweetish taste, which is followed by a nauseous acrimony. It is considered as a purgative, liable to much irregularity of action.

TURPETHUM MINERALE. See *Hydrargyrus vitriolatus*.

TURPENTINE, (*Terebinthina*, *a*, *f.*). The different turpentine employed medicinally are, the Chian or Cyprus turpentine, (see *Terebinthus vulgaris*), the common turpentine, (see *Terebinthina communis*), and the Venice turpentine, (see *Terebinthina veneta*). All these have been considered as hot, stimulating corroborants and detergents; qualities which they possess in common. They stimulate the primæ viæ, and prove laxative; when carried into the blood-vessels they excite the whole system, and thus prove serviceable in chronic rheumatism and paralysis. Turpentine readily passes off by urine, which it imbues with a peculiar odour; also by perspiration and by exhalation

from the lungs: and to these respective effects are ascribed the virtues it possesses in gravelly complaints, scurvy, and pulmonic disorders. Turpentine is much used in gleet and fluor albus, and in general with much success. The essential oil, in which the virtues of turpentine reside, is not only preferred for external use as a rubefacient, but also internally as a diuretic and styptic; the latter of which qualities it possesses in a very high degree. Formerly turpentine was much used as a digestive application to ulcers, &c. but in the modern practice of surgery it is almost wholly exploded.

TUSSILĀGO, (*Tussilago*, *inis*, *f.* from *tussis*, a cough; because it relieves coughs). *Farfara*. *Tussilago vulgaris*. *Farfara bechiam*. *Ungula caballina*. Coltsfoot. *Tussilago farfara scapo unifloro imbricato, foliis subcordatis angulatis denticulatis* of Linnæus. Class *Syngenesia*. Order *Polygamia superflua*. The sensible qualities of this plant are very inconsiderable; it has a rough mucilaginous taste, but no remarkable smell. The leaves have always been esteemed as possessing demulcent and pectoral virtues, and hence they have been exhibited in pulmonary consumptions, coughs, asthmas, and catarrhal affections. It is used as tea, or given in the way of infusion with liquorice-root or honey.

TUSSILĀGO FARFĀRA, (*Farfara*, *a*, *f.* from *farfara*, the white poplar; so called because its leaves resemble those of the white poplar). The systematic name of the coltsfoot. See *Tussilago*.

TUSSILĀGO PETASĪTES, (*Petasites*, *a*, *n.* *πετασίτης*, from *πετασος*, a hat; so named because its leaves are shaped like a hat). The systematic name of the butter-bur. See *Petasites*.

TUSSIS, (*Tussis*, *is*, *f.*). A cough. A sonorous concussion of the breast,

produced by the violent, and, for the most part, involuntary motion of the muscles of respiration. It is symptomatic of many diseases.

TUSSIS CONVULSIVA. See *Pertussis*.

TUSSIS EXANTHEMATICA. A cough attendant on an eruption.

TUSSIS FERINA. See *Pertussis*.

TUTIA, (Tutia, æ, f. Persian). *Pompholyx. Cadmia.* Tutty. A grey oxyd of zinc, it is generally formed by fusing lead or mixed with blende, when it is incruited in the chimneys of the furnace. Mixed with any common cerate, it is applied to the eye, in debilitated states of the conjunctive membrane.

TUTIA PREPARATA. Prepared tutty is often put into collyria, to which it imparts an adstringent virtue.

TUTTY, (Tutia, æ, f.). An oxyd of zinc. See *Tutia*.

TYLŌSIS, (Tylosis, is, f. τυλωσις, from τυλος, a callous). An induration or callous of the margin of the eye-lids.

TYMPANI MEMBRANA. See *Membrana tympani*.

TYMPANITES, (Tympānites, æ, m. τυμπανιτης, from τυμπανον, a drum; so called because the belly is distended with wind, and sounds like a drum when struck.). Tympany. An elastic distention of the abdomen not readily yielding to pressure, and sounding like a drum, with costiveness and atrophy, but no fluctuation. Species: 1. *Tympanites intestinalis*, a lodgment of wind in the intestines, known by the discharge of wind giving relief: 2. *Tympanites abdominalis*, when the wind is in the cavity of the abdomen.

TYMPANUM, (Tympanum, i, n. τυμπανον). The drum or barrel of the ear. The hollow part of the ear in which are lodged the bones of the ear. It begins behind the membrane of the tympanum, which terminates

the external auditory passage, and is surrounded by the petrous portion of the temporal bone. It terminates at the cochlea of the labyrinth, and has opening into it four foramina, viz. the orifice of the Eustachian tube and mastoid sinus, the fenestra ovalis, and rotunda. It contains the four ossicula auditus.

TYPHUS, (Typhus, i, m. from τυφος, stupor). A species of continued fever. See *Febris continua*.

TYPHUS PUTRIDUS. This fever takes its name from the malignancy of its nature, and the evident symptoms of putrefaction which are to be observed when it has been of any continuance. It is to be readily distinguished from the inflammatory, by the smallness of the pulse, and the sudden and great debility which ensues on its first attack; and, in its more advanced stage, by the petechiæ, or purple spots, which come out on various parts of the body, and the fetid stools which are discharged; and it may be distinguished from a nervous fever, by the great violence of all the symptoms on its first coming on.

The most general cause that gives rise to this disease, is contagion, applied either immediately from the body of a person labouring under it, or conveyed in clothes or merchandise, &c. but it may be occasioned by the effluvia arising from either animal or vegetable substances in a decayed or putrid state; and hence it is, that in low and marshy countries it is apt to be prevalent when intense and sultry heat quickly succeeds any great inundation. A want of proper cleanliness, and confined air, are likewise causes of this fever; hence it prevails in hospitals, gaols, camps, and on board of ships, especially when such places are much crowded, and the strictest attention is not paid to a free ventilation and due cleanliness. A close state of the atmosphere, with

amp weather, is likewise apt to give rise to putrid fever. Those of lax fibres, and who have been weakened by any previous debilitating cause, such as poor diet, long fasting, hard labour, continued want of sleep, &c. are most liable to it.

On the first coming on of the disease, the person is seized with languor; dejection of spirits; amazing depression and loss of muscular strength; universal weariness and soreness; pains in the head, back, and extremities, and rigors; the eyes appear full, heavy, yellowish, and often a little inflamed; the temporal arteries throb violently; the tongue is dry and parched; respiration is commonly laborious, and interrupted with deep sighing; the breath is hot and offensive; the urine is crude and pale; the body is costive; and the pulse is usually quick, small, and hard, and now and then fluttering and unequal. Sometimes a great heat, load, and pain are felt at the pit of the stomach, and a vomiting of bilious matter ensues.

As the disease advances, the pulse increases in frequency, (beating often from 100 to 130 in a minute); there is vast debility; great heat and dryness in the skin; oppression at the breast, with anxiety, sighing, and moaning; the thirst is greatly increased; the tongue, mouth, lips, and teeth are covered over with a brown or black tenaceous fur; the speech is inarticulate, and scarcely intelligible; the patient mutters much, and delirium ensues. The fever continuing to increase still more in violence, symptoms of putrefaction shew themselves; the breath becomes highly offensive; the urine deposits a black and fetid sediment; the stools are dark, offensive, and pass off insensibly;

hæmorrhages issue from the gums, nostrils, mouth, and other parts of the body; livid spots or petechiæ appear on its surface; the pulse intermits and sinks; the extremities grow cold; hiccups ensue; and death at last closes the tragic scene.

When this fever does not terminate fatally, it generally begins in cold climates to diminish about the commencement of the third week, and goes off gradually towards the end of the fourth, without any very evident crisis; but in warm climates it seldom continues above a week or ten days, if so long.

Our opinion, as to the event, is to be formed by the degree of violence in the symptoms, particularly after the appearance of petechiæ, although in some instances, recoveries have been effected under the most unpromising appearances. An abatement of febrile heat and thirst, a gentle moisture diffused equally over the whole surface of the body; loose stools, turbid urine, rising of the pulse, and the absence of delirium and stupor, may be regarded in a favorable light. On the contrary, petechiæ, with dark, offensive, and involuntary discharges by urine and stool, fetid sweats, hæmorrhages, and hiccups, denote the almost certain dissolution of the patient.

The appearances usually perceived on dissection, are inflammations of the brain and viscera, but more particularly of the stomach and intestines, which are now and then found in a gangrenous state. In the muscular fibres, there seems likewise a strong tendency to gangrene.

TYRIASIS, (*Tyriasis*, is, f. *τυρίασις*). A species of leprosy in which the skin may be easily withdrawn from the flesh.

U.

ULCER, (*Ulcus, eris*, n. from *ελκος*, a sore). A purulent solution of continuity of the soft parts of an animal body. Ulcers may arise from a variety of causes, as all those which produce inflammation, from wounds, specific irritations of the absorbents, from scurvy, cancer, the venereal or scrofulous virus, &c. The proximate or immediate cause is an increased action of the absorbents, and a specific action of the arteries, by which a fluid is separated from the blood upon the ulcerated surface. They are variously denominated: the following is the most frequent division: 1. *The simple ulcer*, which takes place generally from a superficial wound. 2. *The sinuous*, which runs under the integuments, and whose orifice is narrow, but not callous. 3. *The fistulous ulcer*, or *fistula*, a deep ulcer, whose orifice is narrow and callous. 4. *The fungous ulcer*, whose surface is covered with fungous flesh. 5. *The gangrenous*, which is livid, fetid, and gangrenous. 6. *The scorbutic*, which depends on a scorbutic acrimony. 7. *The venereal*, arising from the venereal disease. 8. *The cancerous ulcer*, or open cancer, (see *Cancer*). 9. *The carious ulcer*, depending upon a carious bone. 10. *The inveterate ulcer*, which is of long continuance, and resists the ordinary applications. 11. *The scrofulous ulcer*, known by its having arisen from indolent tumours, its discharging a viscid, glary matter, and its indolent nature.

ULCERATED SORE THROAT.
See *Cynanche*.

ULMARIA, (*Ulmaria, æ*, f. from *ulmus*; the elm so named because it has leaves like the elm). *Regina prati*. *Barba capræ*. Meadow sweet, Queen

of the meadows. This beautiful and fragrant plant is the *Spiræa ulmaria* of Linnæus. The leaves are recommended as mild adstringents. The flowers have a strong smell resembling that of May: they are supposed to possess antispasmodic and diaphoretic virtues, and as they are very rarely used in medicine, Linnæus suspects that the neglect of them has arisen from the plant being supposed to be possessed of some noxious qualities, which it seemed to betray by its being left untouched by cattle. It may be observed however that the cattle also refuse the Angelica and other herbs, whose innocence is apparent from daily experience.

ULMUS, (*Ulmus, i, f.*). Common elm. *Ulmus campestris foliis duplicato-ferratis, basi inæqualibus* of Linnæus. Class *Pentandria*. Order *Digynia*. The inner tough bark of this tree, which is directed for use by the pharmacopœias, has no remarkable smell, but a bitterish taste, and abounds with a slimy juice, which has been recommended in nephritic cases, and externally as a useful application to burns. It is also highly recommended in some cutaneous affections allied to herpes and lepra. It is mostly exhibited in the form of decoction, by boiling four ounces in four pints of water, to two pints; of which from four to eight ounces are given two or three times a day.

ULMUS CAMPESTRIS. The systematic name of the common elm. See *Ulmus*.

ULNA, (*Ulna, æ, f.* from *ωλενη*, the ulna or cubit). *Cubitus*. The ulna is smaller and shorter than the os humeri, and becomes gradually smaller as it descends to the wrist. We may divide it into its upper and lower

extremities, and its body or middle part. At its upper extremity are two considerable processes, of which the posterior one and largest is named *olecranon*, and the smaller and anterior one, the *coronoid* process. Between these two processes, the extremity of the bone is formed into a deep articulating cavity, which, from its semi-circular shape, is called the *greater sigmoid cavity*, to distinguish it from another, which has been named the *lesser sigmoid cavity*. The olecranon begins by a considerable tuberosity, which is rough, and serves for the insertion of muscles, and terminates in a kind of hook, the concave surface of which moves upon the pulley of the os humeri. This process forms the point of the elbow. The coronoid process is sharper at its extremity than the olecranon, but is much smaller, and does not reach so high. In bending the arm it is received into the fossa at the fore part of the pulley. At the external side of the coronoid process is the lesser sigmoid cavity, which is a small, semi-lunar, articulating surface, lined with cartilage, on which the round head of the radius plays. At the fore part of the coronoid process we observe a small tuberosity, into which the tendon of the brachialis internus is inserted. The greater sigmoid cavity, the situation of which we just now mentioned, is divided into four surfaces by a prominent line which is intersected by a small sinuosity that serves for the lodgment of mucilaginous glands. The whole of this cavity is covered with cartilage. The body, or middle part of the ulna, is of a prismatic or triangular shape, so as to afford three surfaces and as many angles. The external and internal surfaces are flat and broad, especially the external one, and are separated by a sharp angle, which, from its situation, may be termed the internal angle. This internal angle,

which is turned towards the radius, serves for the attachment of the ligament that connects the two bones, and which is therefore called the *interosseus* ligament. The posterior surface is convex, and corresponds with the olecranon. The borders, or angles, which separate it from the other two surfaces, are somewhat rounded. At about a third of the length of this bone from the top, in its fore part, we observe a channel for the passage of vessels. The lower extremity is smaller as it descends, nearly cylindrical, and slightly curved forwards and outwards. Just before it terminates it contracts, so as to form a neck to the small head with which it ends. On the outside of this little head, answering to the olecranon, a small process, called the *styloid* process, stands out, from which a strong ligament is stretched to the wrist. The head has a rounded articulating surface, on its internal side, which is covered with cartilage, and received into a small semi-lunar cavity formed at the lower end of the radius. Between it and the os cuneiforme, a moveable cartilage is interposed, which is continued from the cartilage that covers the lower end of the radius, and is connected by ligamentous fibres to the styloid process of the ulna. The ulna is articulated above with the lower end of the os humeri. This articulation is of the species called *ginglimus*. it is articulated also both above and below to the radius, and to the carpus at its lowest extremity. Its chief use seems to be to support and regulate the motions of the radius. In children, both extremities of this bone are first cartilaginous, and afterwards epiphyses, before they are completely united to the rest of the bone.

ULNAR ARTERY. *Arteria ulnaris*.
See *Cubital artery*.

ULNAR NERVE. *Nervus ulnaris*.
See *Cubital nerve*.

ULNARIS EXTERNUS. See *Extensor carpi ulnaris*.

ULNARIS INTERNUS. See *Flexor carpi ulnaris*.

UMBILICAL CORD. *Funis umbilicalis*. *Funiculus umbilicalis*. The navel-string. A cord-like substance, of an intestinal form, about half a yard in length, that proceeds from the navel of the foetus to the centre of the placenta. It is composed of a cutaneous sheath, cellular substance, one umbilical vein, and two umbilical arteries; the former conveys the blood to the child from the placenta, and the latter return it from the child to the placenta.

UMBILICAL HERNIA. *Hernia umbilicalis*. A protrusion of part of any of the abdominal viscera at the navel. See *Hernia*.

UMBILICAL REGION. *Regio umbilicalis*. The part of the abdominal parietes about two inches all round the navel.

UMBILICUS MARINUS; *Cotyledon marina*. *Androsace*. *Acetabulum marinum*. *Androsace mathioli*. *Fungus petraeus marinus*. A submarine production found on rocks and the shells of fishes, about the coast of Montpellier, &c. It is said to be in the form of powder a useful antihelmetic and diuretic.

UNCIFORM BONE, (*Os unciniforme*, from *uncus*, a hook, and *forma*, a likeness). The last bone of the second row of the carpus or wrist; so named from its hook-like process, which projects towards the palm of the hand, and gives origin to the great ligament by which the tendons of the wrist are bound down.

UNGUENTUM, (*Unguentum*, *i*, n. from *ungō*, to anoint). An ointment.

UNGUENTUM ADIPIS SNILLÆ. The most simple ointment in use, to which a variety of substances may be

added; it is mostly employed to chapped hands, &c.

UNGUENTUM ÆRUGINIS. A stimulating and corrosive compound, employed to deterge foul ulcers.

UNGUENTUM CALCIS HYDRARGYRI ALBÆ. A useful ointment to destroy vermin in the head, and to assist in the removal of scald head, venereal ulcers of children, and cutaneous eruptions.

UNGUENTUM CANTHARIDIS. Where a constant discharge from a blister is wanted, this ointment is mostly applied daily.

UNGUENTUM CĒRÆ. Excoriated surfaces, irritable and inflamed sores are mostly covered with this, which is also applied where simply an emollient is wanted.

UNGUENTUM CERŪSSÆ. A sedative ointment, mostly applied to the intertrigo of youths.

UNGUENTUM CERŪSSÆ ACETATÆ. A cooling and diffusive ointment when fresh, but a violently stimulating one when rancid.

UNGUENTUM ELĒMI COMPOSITUM. Indolent ulcers, chilblains, chronic ulcers after burns, and indolent tumours are often removed by this ointment.

UNGUENTUM HYDRARGYRI FORTIUS. In very general use for mercurial frictions. It may be employed in almost all cases where mercury is indicated.

UNGUENTUM HYDRARGYRI MITIUS. Weaker than the former.

UNGUENTUM HYDRARGYRI NITRATI. A stimulating and detergent ointment. Tinea capitis, prophthalmia, indolent tumours on the margin of the eye-lid, and ulcers in the urethra, are cured by its application.

UNGUENTUM HYDRARGYRI NITRATI MITIUS. Weaker only than the former.

UNGUENTUM PICIS. The smell

of this ointment prevents its more general use; in cutaneous eruptions and ulcerations about the hair, it is very useful.

UNGUENTUM RESINÆ FLAVÆ. Yellow basilicon is in general use as a stimulant and deterfive; it is an elegant and useful form of applying the resin.

UNGUENTUM SAMBŪCI. A cooling and emollient preparation.

UNGUENTUM SIMPLEX. An emollient.

UNGUENTUM SPERMATISCETI. A simple emollient.

UNGUENTUM SULPHŪRIS. The most effectual preparation to destroy the itch. It is also serviceable in the cure of other cutaneous eruptions.

UNGUENTUM TUTIÆ. Mildly astringent.

UNGUENTUM ZINCI. A very useful application to chronic ophthalmia and relaxed ulcers.

UNGUIS, (*Unguis, is, m. from onē, a hook*). The nail. The nails are horny laminæ situated at the extremities of the fingers and toes.

UNGUIS, (*Unguis, is, m. from its resemblance to the lunated portion of the nail of the finger*). *Onyx*. An abscess or collection of pus between the lamellæ of the cornea transparens of the eye.

UNGUIS OS. The lachrymal bone is so named, from its resemblance to a nail of the finger. See *Lachrymal bone*.

UNGŪLA CABALLĪNA. See *Tus-silago*.

UNIONES, (*Unio, onis, m. pl. uniones, from unus, one; so called because there is never more than one found in the same shell, or according to others, for that many being found in one shell not any one of them is like the other*). See *Margarita*.

URĀCHUS, (*Urachus, i, m. from uror, urine, and exo, to contain*). The ligamentous cord that arises from the basis of the urinary bladder, which it runs along and terminates in the

umbilical cord. In the fœtuses of brute animals, which the ancients mostly dissected, it is a hollow tube and conveys the urine to the allantoid membrane.

UREDŌ, (*Uredo, inis, f. from uro, to burn*). An itching or burning sensation of the skin, which accompanies many diseases. The nettle rash is also so called.

URĒTER, (*Ureter, ōris, m. from ur, from uror, urine*). The membranous canal which conveys the urine from the kidney to the urinary bladder; at its superior part it is considerably the largest, occupying the greatest portion of the pelvis of the kidney; it then contracts to the size of a goose-quill, and descends over the psoas magnus muscle and large crural vessels into the pelvis, in which it perforates the urinary bladder very obliquely. Its internal surface is lubricated with mucus to defend it from the irritation of the urine in passing.

URETHRA, (*Urethra, æ, f. from ur, from uror, the urine, because it is the canal through which the urine passes*). A membranous canal running from the neck of the bladder through the inferior part of the penis to the extremity of the glans penis, in which it opens by a longitudinal orifice, called the *meatus urinarius*. In this course it first passes through the prostate gland, which portion is distinguished by the name of the *prostatic urethra*; it then becomes much dilated, and is known by the name of the *bulbous part*, in which is situated a cutaneous eminence called the *caput gallinaginis* or *verumontanum*, around which are ten or twelve orifices of the excretory ducts of the prostate gland, and two of the spermatic vessels. The remaining part of the urethra contains a number of triangular mouths, which are the *lacunæ*, or openings of the excretory ducts of the mucous glands of the urethra.

URINA, (*Urina*, *a*, *spec.*, from *opeo*, to rush out). See *Urine*.

URINARIA, (*Urinaria*, *a*, *f.* so called from producing a copious evacuation of urine). See *Linaria*.

URINARY BLADDER. *Vesica urinaria*. A muscular sac, situated in the cavity of the pelvis; in men between the pubes and rectum; and in women between the pubes and uterus; which receives the urine, retains it a certain time, and then expels it. Its external coat is from the peritonæum; internally it is covered with a mucous membrane, which separates mucous from the blood to lubricate and defend it from the acrimony of the urine. Anatomists have distinguished this bladder into a fundus, body, and neck. It has arteries from the hypogastric and hæmorrhoidal; nerves from the intercostal and sacral; and its veins empty themselves into the hypogastric veins.

URINE, (*Urina*, *a*, *f. spec.*, from *opeo*, to rush out). The saline liquid, secreted in the kidneys, and dropping down from them, guttatim, through the ureters, into the cavity of the urinary bladder.

The secretory organ is composed of the arterious vessels of the cortical substance of the kidneys, from which the urine passes through the uriniferous tubuli and renal papillæ, into the renal pelvis; whence it flows drop by drop, through the ureters, into the cavity of the urinary bladder: where, it is detained some hours, and at length, when abundant, eliminated through the urethra. The urine of an healthy man is divided in general into,

1. *Crude*, or that which is emitted one or two hours after eating; this is for the most part aqueous, and often vitiated by some foods, and,

2. *Cocted*, which is eliminated some hours after the digestion of the food, as that which is emitted in the morning after sleeping. This is generally

in smaller quantity, thicker, more coloured, more acrid than at any other time. Of such cocted urine, the colour is usually citrine, and not unhandsome. The degree of heat agrees with that of the blood; hence in atmospheric air it is warmer, as is perceived if the hand be washed with urine. The specific gravity is greater than water, and that emitted in the morning is always heavier than at any other time. The smell of fresh urine is not disagreeable. The taste is saltish and nauseous. The consistence is somewhat thicker than water. The quantity depends on that of the liquid drink, its diuretic nature, and the temperature of the air. Properties of healthy urine. 1. Fresh urine does not appear to be of an acid nor an alkaline nature; for it does not change the syrup of violets. 2. Mixed with fixed alkali and aqua calcis, it eructates volatile alkali. 3. Urine is neither coagulated by alcohol of wine, nor mineral acid: hence it is an aqueous liquor, not a serous one. 4. When cold, it is gradually rendered more turbid, and deposits a sediment, which, is again dissolved, if the urine be made warm. 5. Evaporated to the thickness of honey, it becomes, red, bitter, very acrid, but not alkaline, and is called *sapa of urine*; which, when evaporated to dryness, is called *extract of urine*. 6. Urine distilled to the consistence of honey, and suffered to crystallize, deposits *sal digestivus*, *microcosmic salt*, and *phosphorated* and *mineral alkali*.

The changes of urine in the air: Preserved in an open vessel, it remains pellucid for some time, and at length there is perceived at the bottom, a nubecula, or little cloud, consolidated as it were from the gluten. This nubecula encreases by degrees, occupies all the urine, and renders it opaque. The natural smell is changed into a putrid cadaverous one; and the surface is now generally covered with

cuticle, composed of very minute crystals. At length the urine retains its transparency, and the colour is changed from a yellow to a brown; the cadaverous smell passes to an *alkaline*, and a brown, grumous *sediment* falls to the bottom, filled with white particles, deliquescent in the air, and so conglutinated as to form, as it were, little soft calculi.

Thus *two sediments* are distinguishable in the urine; the *one* white and gelatinous, and separated in the beginning; the *other* brown and grumous, deposited by the urine, when putrid.

Spontaneous degeneration: Of all the fluids of the body, the urine first putrefies. In summer, after a few hours it becomes turbid, and sordidly black; when it deposits a copious sediment, and exhales a fœtor, like that of putrid cancers, which, at length becomes cadaverous. Putrid urine effervesces with acids, and if distilled, gives off, before water, an urinous volatile spirit.

The *constituent principles* of healthy urine, are,

1. *Water*, from twenty ounces; nineteen of a nauseous, fetid water, were obtained by distillation.

2. *The odorous principle* of urine, perceptible to the smell, and which, during distillation, passes with the water into the receiver.

3. *Phosphorated soda*. The dry extract of urine, well calcined, dissolved in water, and put to crystallize, deposits a salt; which chemically examined, consists of mineral alkali and phosphoric acid. This salt, digested with vinegar, loses some part of its alkali; hence the salt that remains is rendered more acid by the phosphoric acid: and thus by some is called the *acidum perlatum*.

4. *Phosphorated volatile alkali*. If calcined extract of wine, dissolved in spirit of wine, and filtered, be put to crystallize, crystals are formed; which consist of volatile alkali with a

small quantity of mineral alkali, and phosphoric acid. Hence it is of three kinds, and is called *microcosmic* or *fusible salt of urine*. This salt, burnt in a crucible, or upon burning coal, dismisses its volatile alkali and is changed into a vitriform mass, deliquescent in the air; which, on account of the mineral alkali contained in it, is not pure acid of phosphorous.

5. *Calculous matter*, deposited in the form of brownish red earthy gluten, from putrescent urine, at the bottom and sides of the chamber-pot. It consists of *gluten*, *animal earth*, and the *lithic acid*; as the analysis of *urinary calculous* shews.

6. *The extractive principle of urine*. From the liquid residuum of urinous sapa, by crystallization, a saline liquid is extracted, attracting the water from the atmosphere, but otherwise not known. The remaining *extractive principle* is soluble in water, and appears to be gelatinous.

7. *Sal digestivus*, *culinary salt*, and *animal earth* may be elixiated from the incinerated carbone of distilled urine.

Products of the fire. Urine distilled in *balneo maris*, gives off a copious water, of a nauseous fœtor, and leaves an earthy reddish extract. This distilled by fire, exhibits *urinous spirit*, *volatile alkali*, and very fetid *empyreumatic oil*; and if the heat be greatly increased, a small portion of *phosphorous*. At length a carbone remains, which incinerated, affords *sal digestivus*, *culinary salt*, *phosphorated soda*, and *calcareous earth*.

No liquor in the human body, however pure, is so variable in respect to *quantity* and *quality*, as the urine; for it varies,

1. *In respect to age*: In the *fœtus* it is inodorous, insipid, and almost aqueous; but as the *infant* grows, it becomes more acrid and fetid; and in *old age* more particularly so.

2. *In respect to drink*: It is secreted

in greater quantity, and of a more pale colour, from cold and copious draughts. It becomes green from an infusion of Chinese tea, or the use of the pulp of Cassia.

3. *In respect to food*: From eating the heads of asparagus, or olives, it contracts a peculiar smell: from the fruit of the opuntia, it becomes red; and from fasting, turbid.

4. *In respect to medicines*: From the exhibition of rhubarb root, it becomes yellow; and from turpentine, a violet colour.

5. *In respect to the time of the year*: In the winter, the urine is more copious and aqueous; but in the summer from the increased transpiration it is more sparing, higher coloured, and so acrid, that it sometimes becomes strangurious. The climate induces the same difference.

6. *In respect of the muscular motion of the body*: It is secreted more sparingly, and concentrated by motion; and is more copiously diluted, and rendered more crude, by rest.

7. *In respect of the affection of the mind*: Thus fright makes the urine pale.

Use: The urine is an excrementitious fluid, like lixivium, by which the human body is not only liberated from the superfluous water; but also from the superfluous salts, and animal earth: and is defended from corruption.

Lastly, The vis medicatrix naturæ sometimes eliminates many morbid and acrid substances with the urine; as may be observed in fevers, dropsies, &c.

URINE, RETENTION OF. A want of the ordinary secretion of urine. In retention of urine there is none secreted: in a suppression, the urine is secreted but cannot be voided.

URINE, SUPPRESSION OF. See *Ichuria*.

URSINA RADIX. The root of

the plant called baldmoney. See *Meum athamanticum*.

URTICA, (*Urtica*, *a*, *f*. *ab urendo*, because it excites an itching and pustules like those produced by fire). The common nettle. *Urtica dioica* of Linnæus. This plant is well known, and though generally despised as a noxious weed, has been long used for medical, culinary, and economical purposes. The young shoots in the spring possess diuretic and antiscorbutic properties, and are with these intentions boiled and eaten instead of cabbage greens.

URTICA DIOICA. The systematic name of the common stinging nettle. See *Urtica*.

URTICA MORTUA. See *Lamium album*.

URTICA PILULIFERA. The systematic name of the pillbearing nettle. See *Urtica romana*.

URTICA ROMANA. The plant which bears this name in the pharmacopœias is the *Urtica pilulifera* of Linnæus. The seed was formerly given against diseases of the chest, but is now deservedly forgotten. To raise an irritation in paralytic limbs the fresh plant may be employed as producing a more permanent sting than the common nettle.

URTICA URENS. The systematic name of a lesser nettle than the dioica, and possessing similar virtues.

URTICARIA, (*Urticaria*, *a*, *f*. *from urtica*, a nettle). *Febris urticata*. *Uredo*. *Purpura urticata*. *Scarlatina urticata*. The nettle rash. A species of exanthematous fever, known by pyrexia and an eruption on the skin like that produced by the sting of the nettle. The little elevations, called the nettle rash, often appear instantaneously, especially if the skin be rubbed or scratched, and seldom stay many hours in the same place, and sometimes not many minutes. No part of the body is exempt

om them; and where many of them
se together, and continue an hour
r two, the parts are often considera-
ly swelled, which particularly hap-
ens in the arms, face, and hands.
These eruptions will continue to in-
st the skin, sometimes in one place
nd sometimes in another, for one
r two hours together, two or three
mes a day, or perhaps for the great-
st part of twenty-four hours. In
ome constitutions they last only a
ew days, in others many months.

USNEA. *Muscus cranii humani*.
This moss *Lichen saxatilis* of Lin-
æus, when growing on the human
skull, was formerly in high estimation
but now deservedly forgotten.

UTERINE FURY. See *Nym-
bomania*.

UTERUS, (*Uterus*, *i*, *m.* *υστερα*).
Matrix. The womb. A spongy
receptacle resembling a compressed
pear, situated in the cavity of the
pelvis, above the vagina, and between
the urinary bladder and rectum.

The form of the uterus resembles
that of an oblong pear flattened with
the depressed sides placed towards the
ossa pubis and sacrum; but, in the
unpregnated state it becomes more
oval, according to the degree of its
distention. For the convenience of
description and for some practical
purposes, the uterus is distinguished
into three parts. The fundus, the
body, and the cervix; the upper
part is called the fundus, the lower
the cervix, the space between them,
the extent of which is undefined,
the body. The uterus is about three
inches in length, about two in breadth
at the fundus and one at the cervix.
Its thickness is different at the fundus
and cervix, being at the former usually
rather less than half an inch, and at
the latter somewhat more; and this
thickness is preserved throughout
pregnancy, chiefly by the enlarge-
ment of the veins and lymphatics;
there being a smaller change in the

size of the arteries. But there is so
great a variety in the size and di-
mensions of the uterus in different
women, independent of the states of
virginity, marriage, or pregnancy, as
to prevent any very accurate mensu-
ration. The cavity of the uterus
corresponds with the external form;
that of the cervix leads from the
os uteri, where it is very small, in a
straight direction, to the fundus, where
it is expanded into a triangular form,
with two of the angles opposed to
the entrance into the fallopian tubes;
and at the place of junction between
the cervix and the body of the uterus
the cavity is smaller than it is in any
other part. There is a swell, or ful-
ness, of all the parts towards the ca-
vity, which is sometimes distinguished
by a prominent line running longitu-
dinally through its middle. The
villous coat of the vagina is reflected
over the os uteri, and is continued
into the membrane which lines the
cavity of the uterus. The internal
surface of the uterus is corrugated in
a beautiful manner, but the rugæ,
or wrinkles which are longitudinal,
lessen as they advance into the uterus,
the fundus of which is smooth. In
the intervals between the rugæ are
small orifices, like those in the vagina,
which discharge a mucus, serving
besides other purposes, that of closing
the os uteri very curiously and per-
fectly during pregnancy. The sub-
stance of the uterus which is very
firm, is composed of arteries, veins,
lymphatics, nerves, and muscular
fibres, curiously interwoven and con-
nected together by cellular mem-
brane. The muscular fibres are of
a pale colour, and appear also in their
texture somewhat different from mus-
cular fibres in other parts of the body.
The arteries of the uterus are the
spermatic and hypogastric. The
spermatic arteries arise from the an-
terior part of the aorta, a little be-
low the emulgent, and some times

from the emulgent. They pass over the psoæ muscles behind the peritonæum, enter between the two laminæ or duplicatures of the peritonæum which form the broad ligaments of the uterus, and proceed to the uterus, near the fundus of which they insinuate themselves, giving branches in their passage to the ovaria and fallopian tubes. The hypogastric arteries are on each side a considerable branch of the internal iliacs. They pass to the sides of the body of the uterus sending off a number of smaller branches, which dip into its substance. Some branches also are reflected upwards to the fundus uteri, which anastomose with the spermatic arteries, and others are reflected downwards, supplying the vagina. The veins which recondact the blood from the uterus are very numerous, and their size in the unimpregnated state is proportioned to that of the arteries; but their enlargement during pregnancy is such, that the orifices of some of them, when divided, will admit even of the end of a small finger. The veins anastomose in the manner of the arteries which they accompany out of the uterus, and then, having the same names with the arteries spermatic and hypogastric, the former proceeds to the vena cava on the right side, and on the left to the emulgent vein; and the latter to the internal iliac.

From the substance and surfaces of the uterus an infinite number of lymphatics arise which follow the course of the hypogastric and spermatic blood vessels. The first pass into the gland of the internal iliac plexus, and the other into the glands which are situated near the origin of the spermatic arteries. Of these Nuck first gave a delineation.

The uterus is supplied with nerves from the lower mesocolic plexus, and from two small flat circular ganglions, which are situated behind the

rectum. These ganglions are joined by a number of small branches from the third and fourth sacral nerves. The ovaria derive their nerves from the renal plexus. By the great number of nerves these parts are rendered very irritable, but it is by those branches which the uterus receives from the intercostal, that the intimate consent between it and various other parts is chiefly preserved. The muscular fibres of the uterus have been described in a very different manner by anatomists, some of whom have asserted, that its substance was chiefly muscular, with fibres running in transverse, orbicular, or reticulated order, whilst others have contended that there were no muscular fibres whatever in the uterus. In the unimpregnated uterus, when boiled for the purpose of a more perfect examination, the former seems to be a true representation; and when the uterus is distended towards the latter part of pregnancy, these fibres are very thinly scattered; but they may be discovered in a circular direction at the junction between the body and the cervix of the uterus, and surrounding the entrance of each fallopian tube in a similar order. Yet it does not seem reasonable to attribute the time of labour to its muscular fibres only, if we are to judge of the power of a muscle by the number of fibres of which it is composed, unless it is presumed that those of the uterus are stronger than in common muscles. With respect to the glands of the uterus, none are discoverable dispersed through its substance upon the inner surface of the cervix; between the rugæ there are lacunæ which secrete mucus, and there are small follicles at the edge of the os uteri. These last are only observable in a state of pregnancy, when they are much enlarged. From the angles at the fundus of the uterus two processes of an irregularly round form,

iginate, called, from the name of the first describer, the *fallopian tubes*. They are about three inches in length, and, becoming smaller in their progress from the uterus, have an uneven, indented termination, called the *fimbriæ*. The canal which passes through these tubes is extremely small at their origin, but it is gradually enlarged, and terminates with a patulous orifice, the diameter of which is about one third of an inch, surrounded by the *fimbriæ*. It is also lined by a very fine vascular membrane, formed into serpentine plicæ. Through this canal, the communication between the uterus and ovaria is preserved. The fallopian tubes are wrapped in duplicatures of the peritonæum, which are called the broad ligaments of the uterus; but a portion of their extremities thus folded hangs loose on each side of the pelvis. From each lateral angle of the uterus, a tube before and below the fallopian tubes, the *round ligaments* arise, which are composed of arteries, veins, lymphatics, nerves, and a fibrous structure. These are connected together by cellular membrane, and the whole is much enlarged during pregnancy. They receive their outward covering from the peritonæum, and pass out of the pelvis through the ring of the external oblique muscle in the groin, where the vessels subdivide into small branches, and terminate at the mons veneris and contiguous parts. From the insertion of these ligaments into the groin, the reason appears why that part generally suffers in all the diseases and sections of the uterus, and why the inguinal glands are in women so often found in a morbid or enlarged state. The duplicatures of the peritonæum, in which the fallopian tubes and ovaria are involved, are called the *broad ligaments* of the uterus. These prevent the entanglement of the parts, and are conductors of the vessels and

nerves as the mesentery is of those of the intestines. Both the round and broad ligaments alter their position during pregnancy, appearing to rise lower and more forward than in the unimpregnated state. Their use is supposed to be that of preventing the descent of the uterus, and to regulate its direction when it ascends into the cavity of the abdomen; but whether they answer these purposes may be much doubted. The use of the womb is for menstruation, conception, nutrition of the fœtus, and parturition. The uterus is liable to many diseases, the principal of which are *prolapsus uteri*; *procidentia uteri*, *hydroids*, dropy of the uterus or *tympanites uteri*, moles, ulceration, &c.

UTERUS, RETROVERSION OF. By the term retroversion, such a change of the position of the uterus is understood, that the fundus is turned backwards and downwards upon its cervix, between the vagina and rectum, and the os uteri is turned forwards to the pubis, and upwards in proportion to the descent of the fundus, so that, by an examination *per vaginam*, it cannot be felt, or not without difficulty, when the uterus is retroverted. By the same examination there may also be perceived a large round tumour, occupying the inferior part of the cavity of the pelvis, and pressing the vagina towards the pubis. By an examination *per anum* the same tumour may be felt, pressing the rectum to the hollow of the sacrum, and if both these examinations are made at the same time, we may readily discover that the tumour is confined between the vagina and rectum. Besides the knowledge of the retroversion which may be gained by these examinations, it is found to be accompanied with other very distinguishing symptoms. There is in every case, together with extreme pain, first a retention, and afterwards a suppression, of urine;

and by the continuance of this distention of the bladder the tumour formed by it in the abdomen often equals in size, and resembles in shape, the uterus in the sixth or seventh months of pregnancy; but it is necessary to observe, that the suppression of urine is frequently absolute only before the retroversion of the uterus or during the time it is retroverted; for when the retroversion is completed, there is often a discharge of urine, so as to prevent an increase of the distention of the bladder, though not in a sufficient quantity to remove it. There is also an obstinate constipation of the bowels, produced by the pressure of the retroverted uterus upon the rectum, which renders the injection of a glyster very difficult, or even impossible. But it appears that all the painful symptoms are chiefly in consequence of the suppression of urine; for none of those parts, which are apt to sympathize in affections or diseases of the uterus are disturbed by its retroversion. The retroversion of the uterus has generally occurred about the third month of pregnancy, and sometimes after delivery it may likewise happen where the uterus is, from any cause, enlarged to the size it acquires about the third month of pregnancy, but not with such facility as in the pregnant state, because the enlargement is then chiefly at the fundus. If the uterus is but little enlarged, or if it be enlarged beyond a certain size, it cannot well be retroverted; for in the first case should the cause of a retroversion exist, the weight at the fundus would be wanting to produce it; and in the latter the uterus would be raised above the projection of the sacrum, and supported by the spine.

UVA PASSA MAJOR. *Passula major*. The raisin. The dried fruit of the *Vitis vinifera* of Linnæus. *Vitis foliis lobatis sinuatis nudis*. Class

Pentandria. Order *Monogynia*. Raisins are prepared by immersing the fresh fruit into a solution of alkaline salt and soap lye, made boiling hot, to which is added some olive-oil, and a small quantity of common salt, and afterwards drying them in the shade. They are used as agreeable, lubricating, acescent sweets in pectoral decoctions, and for obtunding the acrimony of other medicines, and rendering them grateful to the palate and stomach. They are directed in the *decoctum hordei comp.* *tinctura sennæ*, and *tinctura cardamomi comp.*

UVA PASSA MINOR. *Passa corinthiaca*. The currants. The dried fruit of the *vitis corinthica*. Their virtues are similar to those of the *uva passa major*.

UVA URSI. Trailing arbutus, or bear-berry. *Arbutus uva ursi* of Linnæus. *Arbutus caulibus procumbentibus, foliis integerrimis*. Class *Dicandria*. Order *Monogynia*. This plant, though employed by the ancients in several diseases requiring adstringent medicines, had almost entirely fallen into disuse until the middle of the present century, when it first drew the attention of physicians as a useful remedy in calculous and nephritic complaints, which diseases it appears to relieve by its adstringent qualities.

UVÆA, (*Uvæa*, æ, f. from *uva*, an unripe grape). The posterior lamina of the iris; so called, because in beasts, which the ancients chiefly dissected, it is of the colour of unripe grapes.

UVULA, (*Uvula*, æ, f. a dim. of *uva*, a grape). *Columella*. The small conical fleshy substance hanging in the middle of the *velum pendulum palati*, over the root of the tongue. It is composed of the common membrane of the mouth, and a small muscle resembling a worm which arises from the union of the

palatale bone, and descends to the tip of the uvula. It was called *Palato staphilinus* by Douglas, and *Staphilinus epistaphilinus* by Winslow. By its contraction the uvula is raised up.

UVULARIA, (*Uvularia*, æ, f. from

uvula because it cured diseases of the uvula). The plant which bears this epithet in some pharmacopœias is the *Ruscus hypoglossum* of Linnæus: it was formerly used against relaxation of the uvula, but now laid aside for more adstringent remedies.

V.

VACCINIUM, (*Vaccinium*, i, n. quasi *baccinium*, from its berry). The moor berry.

VACCINIUM MYRTILLUS. The systematic name of the myrtle berry. See *Myrtillus*.

VACCINIUM OXYCOCCOS. The systematic name of the cranberry plant. See *Oxycoccus*.

VACCINIUM VITIS IDÆA. The systematic name of the red whortleberry. See *Vitis idæa*.

VAGINA, (*Vagina*, æ, f.). *Vagina uteri*. That canal which leads from the pudendum or external orifice to the uterus, is called the vagina. It is somewhat of a conical form, with the narrowest part downwards, and is described as being five or six inches in length, and about two in diameter. But it would be more proper to say, that it is capable of being extended to those dimensions; for in its common state, the os uteri is seldom found to be more than three inches from the external orifice, and the vagina is contracted as well as shortened. The vagina is composed of two coats, the first or innermost of which is villous, interspersed with many excretory ducts, and contracted into plicæ, or small transverse folds, particularly at the fore and back part, but, by child bearing these are lessened or obliterated. The second coat is composed of a firm membrane, in which muscular fibres are not distinctly observeable, but which

are endowed, to a certain degree, with contractile powers like a muscle. This is surrounded by cellular membrane, which connects it to the neighbouring parts. A portion of the upper and posterior part of the vagina is also covered by the peritonæum. The entrance of the vagina is constricted by muscular fibres, originating from the rami of the pubis, which run on each side of the pudendum, surrounding the posterior part, and executing an equivalent office, though they cannot be said to form a true sphincter.

The upper part of the vagina is connected to the circumference of the os uteri, but not in a straight line, so as to render the cavity of the uterus a continuation of that of the vagina. For the latter stretches beyond the former, and, being joined to the cervix, is reflected over the os uteri, which, by this mode of union, is suspended with protuberant lips in the vagina, and permitted to change its position in various ways and directions. When therefore these parts are distended and unfolded at the time of labour, they are continued into each other, and there is no part which can properly be considered as the precise beginning of the uterus or termination of the vagina.

The diseases of the vagina are, first, such an abbreviation and contraction as render it unfit for the uses for which it was designed.

secondly, a cohesion of the sides in consequence of preceding ulceration: thirdly, cicatrices after an ulceration of the parts: fourthly, excrescences: fifthly, fluor albus. This abbreviation and contraction of the vagina, which usually accompany each other, are produced by original defective formation, and they are seldom discovered before the time of marriage, the consummation of which they sometimes prevent. The curative intentions are to relax the parts by the use of emollient applications, and to dilate them to their proper size by sponge or other tents, or, which are more effectual, by bougies gradually enlarged. But the circumstances which attend this disorder are sometimes such as might lead us to form an erroneous opinion of the disease. A case of this kind, which was under Dr. Denman's care, from the strangury, from the heat of the parts, and the profuse and inflammatory discharge, was suspected to proceed from venereal infection; and with that opinion the patient had been put upon a course of medicine composed of quicksilver for several weeks without relief. When she applied to the Dr. he prevailed upon her to submit to an examination, and found the vagina rigid, so much contracted as not to exceed half an inch in diameter, and not more than one inch and a half in length. The repeated, though fruitless, attempts which had been made to complete the act of coition, had occasioned a considerable inflammation upon the parts, and all the suspicious appearances before mentioned. To remove the inflammation she was bled, took some gentle purgative medicines, used an emollient fomentation, and afterwards some unctuous applications; she was also advised to live separate from her husband for some time. The inflammation being gone, tents of various sizes were introduced into the vagina, by which

it was distended, though not very amply. She then returned to her husband, and in a few months became pregnant. Her labour, though slow, was not attended with any extraordinary difficulty. She was delivered of a full-sized child, and afterward suffered no inconvenience. Another kind of constriction of the external parts sometimes occurs, and which seems to be a mere spasm. By the violence or long continuance of labour, by the morbid state of the constitution, or by the negligent and improper use of instruments, an inflammation of the external parts or vagina, is sometimes produced in such a degree as to endanger a mortification. By careful management this consequence is usually prevented, but in some cases, when the constitution of the patient was prone to disease, the external parts have sloughed away, and in others equal injury has been done to the vagina. But the effect of the inflammation is usually confined to the internal or villous coat, which is sometimes cast off wholly or partially. An ulcerated surface being thus left, when the disposition to heal has taken place, cicatrices have been formed of different kinds, according to the depth and extent of the ulceration; and there being no counteraction to the contractile state of the parts, the dimensions of the vagina become much reduced, or, if the ulceration should not be healed, and the contractibility of the parts continue to operate, the ulcerated surfaces being brought together may cohere, and the canal of the vagina be perfectly closed.

Cicatrices in the vagina very seldom become an impediment to the connexion between the sexes; when they do, the same kind of assistance is required as was recommended in the natural contraction or abbreviation of the part; they always give way to the pressure of the head of the child in

he time of labour, though in many cases with great difficulty. Sometimes the appearances may mislead the judgment; for the above author was called to a woman in labour, who was thought to have become pregnant; the hymen remained unbroken; but, on making very particular inquiry, he discovered that this was her second labour, and that the part which from its form and situation was supposed to be the hymen, with a small aperture, was a cicatrice, or unnatural contraction of the entrance into the vagina, consequent to an ulceration of the part after her former labour. Fungous excrescences arising from any part of the vagina or uterus have been distinguished, though not very properly, by the general term polypus. See *Polypus*.

VAGINA OF THE NERVES. The outer covering of the nerves. By some it is said to be a production of the pia mater only, and by others of the dura mater, because it agrees with it in tenacity, colour, and texture.

VAGINA OF THE TENDONS. A loose membranous sheath formed of cellular membrane, investing the tendons, and containing an unctuous juice, which is secreted by the vessels of its internal surface. Ganglions are nothing more than an accumulation of this juice.

VAGUM PAR. See *Parvagum*.

VALERIAN, CELTIC. See *Nardus celtica*.

VALERIAN GARDEN. See *Valeriana major*.

VALERIAN, GREAT. See *Valeriana major*.

VALERIAN, LESSER. See *Valeriana sylvestris*.

VALERIAN, WILD. See *Valeriana sylvestris*.

VALERIĀNA CELTICA. The systematic name of the celtic nard. See *Nardus celtica*.

VALERIĀNA MAJOR. *Phu*. The

garden valerian. The root of this plant, *valeriana phu* of Linnæus, is said to be efficacious in removing rheumatism, especially the sciatica, and also inveterate epilepsies.

VALERIĀNA MINOR. See *Valeriana sylvestris*.

VALERIĀNA OFFICINĀLIS. The systematic name of the wild valerian. See *Valeriana sylvestris*.

VALERIĀNA PHU. The systematic name of the garden valerian. See *Valeriana major*.

VALERIĀNA SYLVESTRIS (*Valeriana*, æ, f. from *Valerius*, who first particularly described it). *Valeriana minor*. Officinal valerian. *Valeriana officinalis* of Linnæus. *Valeriana floribus triandris, foliis omnibus pinnatis*. Class *Triandria*. Order *Monogynia*. The root of this plant has been long extolled as an efficacious remedy in epilepsy, which caused it to be exhibited in a variety of other complaints termed nervous, in which it has been found highly serviceable. It is also in very general use as an antispasmodic, and is exhibited in convulsive hysterical diseases. A simple and volatile tincture are directed in the pharmacopœias.

VALVE OF THE COLON. The end of the iliac portion of the small intestine enters the large one obliquely, and projects somewhat within it, so as to form a kind of valve, called from its discoverer the valve of *Tulpius*, also the valve of the cœcum.

VALVES. (*Valva*, æ, f. from *valveo*, to fold up). Thin and transparent membranes, situated within certain vessels, as arteries, veins, and absorbents, whose office appears to be to prevent the contents of the vessel from flowing back.

VALVES, SEMILUNAR. See *Semilunar valves*.

VALVES, TRICUSPID. See *Tricuspid valves*.

VALVES, TRIGLOCHIN. See *Tricuspid valves*.

VALVŮLA, (*Valvula*, *a*, f. dim. of *valva*). A little valve.

VALVŮLA TULPII. See *Valve of the colon*.

VALVŮLA COLI. See *Valve of the colon*.

VALVŮLA EUSTACHII. A membranous semilunar valve, which separates the right auricle from the inferior vena cava, first described by Eustachius.

VALVŮLA TULPII. See *Valve of the colon*.

VALVŮLÆ CONNIVENTES. The semilunar folds formed of the villous coat of the intestinum duodenum, and jejunum. Their use appears to be, to increase the surface of the intestines.

VALVŮLÆ MĪTRĀLES. See *Mitral valves*.

VALVŮLÆ SEMILUNARES. See *Semilunar valves*.

VALVŮLÆ TRICUSPIDĀLES. See *Tricuspid valves*.

VALVŮLÆ TRIGLOCHINES. See *Tricuspid valves*.

VANELLOE. A long, flattish pod, containing under a wrinkled brittle shell, a reddish brown pulp, with small shining black seeds. The plant which affords this fruit is the *Epidendrum vanilla*; *scandens, foliis ovato-oblongis nervosis sessilibus caulinis; cirrhis spirantibus* of Linnæus. Vanelloes have an unctuous aromatic taste, and a fragrant smell like that of some of the finer balsams heightened with musk. Although chiefly used as perfumes, they are said to possess aphrodisiac virtues.

VANELLOES. See *Vanilla*.

VANILLA. See *Vanelloe*.

VARI. See *Fonthi*.

VARICELLA, (*Varicella*, *a*, f. a dim. of *varia*, the small pox; so called from its being changeable). *Variola lymphatica*. The chicken-pox. A genus of disease in the class *pyrexia* and order *exanthemata* of

Cullen; known by moderate synocha; pimples bearing some resemblance to small-pox, quickly forming pustules, which contain a fluid matter; and after three or four days from their first appearance desquamate.

VARICOCELE, (*Varicocele*, *es*, f. from *varix*, a distended vein, and *κεντρ*, a tumour). A swelling of the veins of the scrotum or spermatic cord; hence it is divided into the *scrotal varicocele*, which is known by the appearance of livid and tumid veins on the scrotum; and *varicocele of the spermatic cord*, known by feeling hard vermiform vessels in the course of the spermatic cord. Varicocele mostly arises from excessive walking, running, jumping, wearing of trusses, and the like, producing at first a slight uneasiness in the part, which if not remedied continues advancing towards the loins.

VARIOLA, (*Variola*, *a*, f. from *varius*, changing colour, because it disfigures the skin). The small-pox. A genus of disease in the class *pyrexia* and order *exanthemata* of Cullen; distinguished by synocha; eruption of red pimples on the third day, which on the eighth day contain pus, and drying, fall off in crusts.

It is a disease of a very contagious nature, supposed to have been introduced into Europe from Arabia, and in which there arises a fever, that is succeeded by a number of little inflammations in the skin, which proceed to suppuration, the matter formed thereby being capable of producing the disorder in another person. It makes its attack on people of all ages, but the young of both sexes are more liable to it than those who are much advanced in life; and it may prevail at all the seasons of the year, but in general is most prevalent in the spring and summer.

The small-pox is distinguished into the distinct and confluent, implying

that in the former, the eruptions are perfectly separate from each other, and that in the latter, they run much into one another.

Both species are produced either by breathing air impregnated with the effluvia arising from the body of those who labour under the disease, or by the introduction of a small quantity of the variolous matter into the habit by inoculation; and it is probable that the difference of the small-pox is not owing to any difference in the contagion, but depends on the state of the person to whom it is applied, or on certain circumstances concurring with the application of it.

A variety of opinions have been entertained respecting the effect of the variolous infection on the foetus in utero; a sufficient number of instances, however, has been recorded, to ascertain that the disease may be communicated from the mother to the child. In some cases, the body of the child at its birth has been covered with pustules, and the nature of the disease has been most satisfactorily ascertained by inoculating with matter taken from the pustules. In other cases, there has been no appearance of the disease at the time of the birth, but an eruption and other symptoms of the disease have appeared so early, as to ascertain that the infection must have been received previously to the removal of the child from the uterus.

Four different states or stages are to be observed in the small-pox: first, the febrile; second, the eruptive; third, the maturative; and fourth, that of declination or scabbing which is usually known by the name of secondary fever. When the disease has arisen naturally, and is of the distinct kind, the eruption is commonly preceded by a redness in the eyes, soreness in the throat, pains in the head, back, and loins, weariness and faintness,

alternate fits of chilliness and heat, thirst, nausea, inclination to vomit, and a quick pulse.

In some instances, these symptoms prevail in a high degree, and in others they are very moderate and trifling. In very young children, startings and convulsion are apt to take place a short time previous to the appearance of the eruption, always giving great alarm to those not conversant with the frequency of the occurrence.

About the third or fourth day from the first seizure, the eruption shews itself in little red spots (similar to flea-bites) on the face, neck, and breast, and these continue to increase in number and size for three or four longer, at the end of which time, they are to be observed dispersed over several parts of the body.

If the pustules are not very numerous, the febrile symptoms will generally go off on the appearance of the eruption, or they will become very moderate. It sometimes happens, that a number of little spots of an erysipelatous nature are interspersed amongst the pustules; but these generally go in again as soon as the suppuration commences, which is usually about the fifth or sixth day, at which period, a small vesicle containing an almost colourless fluid, may be observed upon the top of each pimple. Should the pustules be perfectly distinct and separate from each other, the suppuration will, probably be completed about the eighth or ninth day, and they will then be filled with a thick yellow matter; but should they run much into each other, it will not be completed till some days later.

When the pustules are very thick and numerous on the face, it is apt about this time to become much swelled, and the eyelids to be closed up, previous to which, there usually arises a hoarseness, and difficulty of swallowing, accompanied with a con-

considerable discharge of viscid saliva. About the eleventh day, the swelling of the face usually subsides, together with the affection of the fauces, and is succeeded by the same in the hands and feet, after which the pustules break, and discharge their contents, and then becoming dry, they fall in crusts, leaving the skin which they covered of a brown red colour, which appearance continues for many days. In those cases where the pustules are large, and are late in becoming dry and falling off, they are very apt to leave pits behind them; but where they are small, suppurate quickly, and are few in number, they neither leave any marks behind them, nor do they occasion much affection of the system.

In the confluent small-pox, the fever which precedes the eruption is much more violent than in the distinct, being attended usually with great anxiety, heat, thirst, nausea, vomiting, and a frequent and contracted pulse, and often with coma or delirium. In infants, convulsive fits are apt to occur, which either prove fatal before any eruption appears, or they usher in a malignant species of the disease.

The eruption usually makes its appearance about the third day, being frequently preceded or attended with a rosy efflorescence, similar to what takes place in the measles; but the fever, although it suffers some slight remission on the coming out of the eruption, does not go off as in the distinct kind; on the contrary, it becomes increased after the fifth or sixth day, and continues considerable throughout the remainder of the disease.

As the eruption advances, the face being thickly beset with pustules, becomes very much swelled, the eyelids are closed up, so as to deprive the patient of sight, and a gentle salivation ensues, which towards the ele-

venth day is so viscid as to be spit up with great difficulty. In children, a diarrhoea usually attends this stage of the disease instead of a salivation, which is to be met with only in adults. The vesicles on the top of the pimples are to be perceived sooner in the confluent small-pox than in the distinct; but they never rise to an eminence, being usually flattened in; neither do they arrive to proper suppuration, as the fluid contained in them, instead of becoming yellow, turns to a brown colour.

About the tenth or eleventh day, the swelling of the face usually subsides, and then the hands and feet begin to puff up and swell, and about the same time the vesicles break, and pour out a liquor that forms into brown or black crusts, which, upon falling off, leave deep pits behind them that continue for life, and where the pustules have run much into each other, they then disfigure and scar the face very considerably.

Sometimes it happens that a putrescency of the fluids takes place at an early period of the disease, and shews itself in livid spots interspersed amongst the pustules, and by a discharge of blood by urine, stool, and from various parts of the body.

In the confluent small-pox, the fever, which, perhaps, had suffered some slight remission from the time the eruption made its appearance to that of maturation, is often renewed with considerable violence at this last mentioned period, which is what is called the secondary fever, and this is the most dangerous stage of the disease. It has been observed, even amongst the vulgar, that the small-pox is apt to appear immediately before or after the prevalence of the measles. Another curious observation has been made relating to the symptoms of these complaints, namely, that if, while a patient labours under the small-pox, he is seized with the measles, the course of

the former is retarded till the eruption of the measles is finished. The measles appear, for instance, on the second day of the eruption of small-pox, the progress of this ceases till the measles terminate by desquamation, and then it goes on in the usual way. Several cases are however recorded in the Medical and Physical Journal, as likewise in the third volume of the Medical Commentaries, in which a concurrence of the small-pox and measles took place without the progress of the former being retarded. The distinct small-pox is not attended with danger, except when it attacks pregnant women, or approaches nearly in its nature to that of the confluent; but this last is always accompanied with considerable risk, the degree of which is ever in proportion to the violence and permanence of the fever, the number of pustules on the face, and the disposition to putrescency which prevails.

When there is a great tendency this way, the disease usually proves fatal between the eighth and eleventh day, but in some cases, death is protracted till the fourteenth or sixteenth. The confluent small-pox, although it may not prove immediately mortal, is very apt to induce various morbid affections.

Both kinds of small-pox leave behind them a predisposition to inflammatory complaints, particularly to ophthalmia and visceral inflammations, but more especially of the thorax; and they not unfrequently excite serophula into action which might otherwise have laid dormant in the system.

The regular swelling of the hands and feet upon that of the face subsiding, and its continuance for the due time, may be regarded in a favorable light.

The dissections which have been made of confluent small-pox, have never discovered any pustules inter-

nally on the viscera. From them it also appears that variolous pustules never attack the cavities of the body, except those to which the air has free access, as the nose, mouth, trachea, the larger branches of the bronchiæ, and the outermost part of the meatus auditorius. In cases of prolapsus ani, they likewise frequently attack that part of the gut which is exposed to the air. They have usually shewn the same morbid appearances inwardly, as are met with in putrid fever, where the disease has been of the malignant kind. Where the febrile symptoms have run high, and the head has been much affected with coma or delirium, the vessels of the brain appear, on removing the cranium and dura mater, more turgid, and filled with a darker coloured blood than usual, and a greater quantity of serous fluid is found, particularly towards the base of the brain. Under similar circumstances, the lungs have often a darker appearance, and their moisture is more copious than usual. When no inflammatory affection has supervened, they are most usually found.

VARIOLÆ VACCINÆ. The cow-pox. Any pustulous disease affecting the cow, may be called the cow-pox: whether it arises from an over-distention of the udder, in consequence of a neglect of milking the cow, or from the sting of an insect, or any other cause. But the species which claims our particular attention is that which was recommended to the world by Dr. Jenner, in the year 1798, as a substitute for the small-pox. This, which originates from the grease in the horse's heel, is called the *genuine cow-pox*; all other kinds are *spurious*.

That the vaccine fluid, fraught with such unspeakable benefits to mankind, derives its origin from this humble source, however it may mortify human pride or medical vanity,

is confirmed by the observations and experiments of competent judges. For proofs of this assertion, the reader may consult the works of Dr. Jenner; the Medical and Physical Journal; and a treatise on the subject by Dr. Loy, of which an analysis is given in the Annals of Medicine for the year 1801; and Mr. Ring's work on this disease which contains the whole mass of evidence that has appeared concerning it.

The genuine cow-pox appears on the teats of the cow, in the form of vesicles, of a blue colour approaching to livid. These vesicles are elevated at the margin, and depressed at the centre. They are surrounded with inflammation. The fluid they contain is limpid. The animals are indisposed; and the secretion of milk is lessened. Solutions of the sulphats of zinc and copper are a speedy remedy for these pustules; otherwise they degenerate into ulcers which are extremely troublesome. It must however, be recollected, that much of the obliquity attending these cases is owing to the friction of the pustules, in consequence of milking. It is probable, that a solution of cerussa acetata would be preferable to irritating applications.

Similar effects are produced in the hands of the milkers, attended with febrile symptoms, and sometimes with tumours in the axilla. Other parts where the cuticle is abraded, or which are naturally destitute of that defence, are also liable to the same affection; provided active matter is applied. It even appears, that in some instances, pustules have been produced by the application of vaccine virus to the sound cuticle. One case of this kind may be found in a letter from Dr. Fowler of Salisbury to Dr. Pearson, published in the first work of Dr. Pearson on this subject.

The spurious cow-pox is white;

and another criterion is, that both in the brute animal, and in the human subject, when infected with the casual cow-pox, the sores occasioned by the genuine species are more difficult to heal, than those which are occasioned by the spurious kind. It is of the utmost importance to distinguish the genuine from the spurious sort, which is also in some degree infectious; since a want of such discrimination would cause an idea of security against the small pox, which might prove delusive.

Dr. Jenner has elucidated one point of the first importance, relative to the genuine cow-pox itself. It had frequently been observed, that when this disorder prevailed in a farm some of the persons who contracted it by milking were rendered insusceptible of the small-pox, while others continued liable to that infection. This is owing to the different periods, at which the disease was excited in the human subject; one person, who caught the disease while the virus was in an active state, is rendered secure from variolous contagion; while another who received the infection of the cow-pox when it had undergone a decomposition, is still susceptible of the small-pox. This uncertainty of the prevention, whose value is beyond all calculation, is probably the reason why it was not before introduced into practice.

From the violent opposition which vaccine inoculation has met with, in consequence of certain apparent failures in the casual way, it may be doubted whether the public would ever have adopted the practice, had not this fallacy been detected by Dr. Jenner. To him also we are indebted for another discovery of the first importance, namely, that the pustule excited in the human subject by vaccine matter, yields a fluid of a similar nature with that which was in-

serted. This experiment, so essential to the general propagation of the practice, and so happy in its result, was never before attempted. It was reserved to crown the labours of Dr. Jenner.

A considerable number of instances are on record, to prove that farriers and others who receive infection from the heel of a horse, are either partly or totally deprived of the susceptibility of the small-pox. When Dr. Jenner first published an account of his discoveries, this point was enveloped in some degree of obscurity. He then conceived, that the matter of grease was an imperfect preservative against the small-pox. This opinion was founded on the following circumstance: It had been remarked, that farriers either wholly escaped the small-pox, or had that distemper in a milder manner than other people. This, however, is easily reconcileable to reason, if we only suppose, that in some cases the infection is communicated when the virus possesses all its prophylactic virtue; and in others, when its specific quality is in some measure lost.

This variation in the effects produced by the virus of the horse, inclined Dr. Jenner to believe that it was modified, and underwent some peculiar alteration in the teats of the cow. He now concludes, that it is perfect when it excites the genuine disease in the cow; yet a considerable advantage is derived from its being transferred to the latter animal, whose nipples furnish a more obvious and a more abundant source of this inestimable fluid, than its original element the horse.

This theory, that the preservative against variolous contagion is perfect when it issues from the fountain-head, and comes immediately from the hands of Nature, is consonant with reason, and consistent with analogy. Thus one obstacle more to the

universal adoption of the practice is removed.

Another point respecting vaccine inoculation, which has been much controverted, is the permanency of its effect. Instances have been known where persons have escaped the small-pox for a number of years, and yet have ultimately proved not insusceptible of its infection. When such persons had previously undergone the vaccine disease, their apparent security was erroneously ascribed to that cause; but we have not even a shadow of proof, that the cow-pox possesses in the least degree the property of a temporary prophylactic, since it appears not even to retard the eruption of the small-pox, where previous infection has been received.

By this remark, it is not meant to be asserted, that it never supercedes or modifies the small-pox, for we have great reason to believe that such beneficial effects often flow from vaccination; but where an eruption of the small-pox actually takes place after vaccine inoculation, the two diseases frequently co-exist, without retarding each other in the smallest degree. It is therefore contrary to all reason and analogy, to consider the cow-pox as a mere temporary preservative: it is nothing less than a perfect and permanent security against that terrible disease.

A number of cases are recorded by Dr. Jenner, and other authors who have written on this subject, in which persons who had received the cow-pox by casual infection, twenty, thirty, forty, and fifty years before, still continued insusceptible of variolous contagion, in whatever form it was applied.

As the cow-pox destroys the susceptibility of the small-pox, so the small-pox destroys that of the cow-pox. To this general rule, however, a few exceptions are said to have occurred. Certain it is, that a pustule

has now and then been excited by the insertion of vaccine virus, in those who have had the small-pox, and that this pustule has been known to yield the genuine virus; but it is not equally certain that the pustule has been perfect in all respects. Possibly it may have been defective in point of size or duration; in respect to its areola, or the limpidity of its contents. That such a pustule has, in some instances, yielded effectual virus, is admitted; but this is no more than what has often happened, in cases where persons who have had the small-pox are a second time submitted to that infection in the same form.

The artificial cow-pox in the human subject is much milder than the casual disease; and incomparably milder than the small-pox, even under the form of inoculation. It neither requires medicine nor regimen; it may be practised at any season of the year; and, not being infectious by effluvia, one person may be inoculated without endangering the life of another.

This affection produces no pustulous eruptions. When such attend vaccine inoculation, they are owing to some adventitious cause, such as the small-pox, which, it is well known, may co-exist with the cow-pox. The vaccine vesicle is confined to the parts where matter is inserted; it is therefore entirely a local and an inoculated disease. Nevertheless it is certain, that eruptions of other kinds in some instances attend vaccine inoculation; such as a nettle rash, or an eruption resembling a tooth rash, but rather larger than what is commonly called by that name.

Among other singularities attending the cow-pox, the mildness of the disease, under the form of inoculation, has been urged as an argument against the practice, the cause appearing to ordinary comprehensions, inadequate to the effect. This, it

must be allowed, is the best apology that can be offered for septicism on that point; but it will weigh but little when put into the scale against actual observation, and incontrovertable fact. The efficacy of the cow-pox as a safeguard against the small-pox, rests, perhaps, on more extensive evidence, and a more solid foundation, than any other axiom in the whole circle of medical science can boast.

That the cow-pox is not infectious by effluvia, is naturally concluded from its never being communicated from one person to another in the dairies; where the disease is casual, and appears under its worst form. The same inference may be drawn from its never spreading in a family, when only one person is inoculated at a time. To confirm this proposition more fully, the vaccine pustules have been ruptured, and persons who have never had the disorder have been suffered to inhale the effluvia several times a day, but to no purpose. This is no more than might be expected, in an affection where the pustulous appearance on the surface of the body is nearly local.

As to the constitutional indisposition, it is seldom considerable, unless there is a complication of this with some other distemper; and whenever any unfavourable symptoms appear they may in general be traced to some other cause. We have indeed great reason to believe, that no ill consequence ever arises from the cow-pox itself, unless from ignorance or neglect.

But notwithstanding the symptoms are so mild, they frequently occur at a very early period. A drowsiness which is one of the most common attendants of the disease, is often remarked by the parents themselves, within forty eight hours after the matter is inserted. In a majority of cases, a slight increase of heat is per-

ceptible, together with an acceleration of the pulse, and other signs of pyrexia; but not in such a degree as to alarm the most timorous mother. Sometimes the patient is restless at nights; and now and then a case is met with, in which vomiting occurs, but in many cases, no constitutional indisposition whatever can be perceived. Even then, the cow-pox has never failed to prove an effectual preservative against the small-pox, provided the pustule has been perfect.

This being the grand criterion of the security of the patient, too minute an attention cannot be paid to its rise, progress, and decline. The best mode of inoculating is by making a very small oblique puncture in the arm, near the insertion of the deltoid muscle, with the point of a lancet charged with fluid matter. In order to render infection more certain, the instrument may be charged again, and wiped upon the puncture.

In places where the patient is likely to be exposed to variolous contagion, it is advisable to inoculate in more places than one, but, unless there is imminent danger of catching the small-pox, it is better not to make more than one puncture in each arm, lest too much inflammation should ensue.

The vaccine fluid may be taken for inoculation as soon as a vesicle appears; but if the vesicle is punctured at a very early period, it is more apt to be injured. When virus is wanting for inoculating a considerable number, it is better to let the pustule remain untouched till about the eighth day, by which time it has in general acquired a reasonable magnitude. After that day, if the pustule has made the usual progress, the matter begins to lose its virtue; but it may, in general, be used with safety, though with less certainty of producing infection, till the areola begins to be extensive.

The first sign of infection commonly appears on the third day. A small red spot, rather elevated, may be perceived at the place where the puncture was made. Sometimes, however, the mark of infection having succeeded is not visible till a much later period. It may be retarded, or even entirely prevented, by any other disorder, such as dentition, or any complaint attended with fever, or by extreme cold. Another frequent cause of a slow progress in the pustule, or a total failure of success, is debility. Sometimes it is impossible to discover any sign of infection for above a fortnight. In this respect the cow-pox is subject to the same laws, and liable to the same variation, as the small-pox.

When a considerable inflammation appears within two or three days after inoculation, there is reason to suspect that infection has not taken place; and if suppuration ensues, that suspicion ought, in general, to stand confirmed. Now and then, however, it happens, that after the spurious pustule, or, more properly speaking, the phlegmon, has run its course, which is within a few days, a vesicle begins to appear, bearing every characteristic of the genuine vaccine disease, and yielding a limpid and efficient virus for future inoculations. In this case the patient is as perfectly secured from all danger of the small-pox, as if no festering of the puncture had preceded. The occurrence of such a case, though rare, is worthy to be recorded; because some practitioners have concluded a spurious pustule to be a certain proof of failure.

The areola commonly begins to be extensive on the ninth day, and to decline about the eleventh or twelfth. At this period also the pustule begins to dry; the first sign of which is a brown spot in the centre. In proportion as this increases,

the surrounding efflorescence decreases, till at length nothing remains but a circular scab, of a dark brown mahogany colour, approaching to black. Sometimes it resembles the section of a tamarind stone; and it often retains the depression in the centre, which characterises this disease before exsiccation takes place.

Instances have been known, where the vaccine pustule, though regular, and perfect in all other respects, has been totally destitute of areola; at least, where neither the medical practitioner, on visiting the patient, nor the attendants, have remarked any appearance of that symptom. In these cases, the patient has proved as insusceptible of variolous infection, as if the surrounding efflorescence had covered the whole arm. It must, however, be confessed, that we have no proof of the non-existence of an areola in these cases. It might have been trivial; it might have been transient; yet it might have been effectual. There is, however, greater reason to believe, that the surrounding efflorescence, though usually a concomitant circumstance, is not an essential requisite to the vaccine disease.

If by any accident the vesicle is ruptured, suppuration often ensues. In this case more attention than ordinary ought to be paid to the progress, and to all the phenomena of the local affection; both on account of the uncertainty of success in the pustule, as a prophylactic; and the greater probability of tedious ulceration.

If there is room for the least doubt of the sufficiency of the first inoculation, a second ought to be performed without delay. This, if unnecessary, is seldom attended with inconvenience, and never with danger. Either no effect is produced, or a slight festering, which terminates in a few days. An exception

occurs, but rarely, where a spurious, or, perhaps, even a genuine pustule, takes place, in those persons who are known to have had the cow-pox or the small-pox already; but this cannot be the least cause of alarm to any one who knows the benign character of the distemper.

Various topical applications, both stimulant and sedative, have been recommended, in order to allay the violence of inflammation. If the operation of insition of matter is not unnecessarily severe, nor the pustule irritated by friction or pressure, or other violence, no such applications are necessary. Nevertheless, if either the anxiety of the professional man, or the importunity of a tender parent, should demand a deviation from this general rule, any of the following remedies may be had recourse to. The pustule may be touched with diluted sulphuric acid; which should be permitted to remain on the part half a minute, and then be washed off with a sponge dipped in cold water. This has been ignorantly, or artfully, called an escharotic; but any one who tries the application will soon discover, that its operation is mild and harmless.

To avoid cavil and misrepresentation, it is better to apply a saturnine lotion; either made with aq. litharg. comp. or cerussa acetata. compresses, dipped in such a lotion, may be applied at any time when inflammation runs high, and renewed as occasion requires.

If the pustule should chance to be broken, a drop of aq. litharg. acet. undiluted, may be applied as an exsiccant; but if ulceration threatens to become obstinate, or extensive, a mild cataplasm is the best resource. In case the ulceration is only superficial, and not attended with immoderate inflammation, a bit of any adhesive plaister, spread on linen, will prove the most convenient dress.

sing, and seldom fail of success. It will, in general, be unnecessary to renew it oftener than every other day.

These minute observations no one will despise, unless there be any person so ignorant as not to know, that the care of the arm is almost the whole duty of the medical practitioner in vaccine inoculation; and that nothing disgusts the public so much against the practice, as a sore arm, and the ill consequences which, from a neglect of that symptom, too often ensue.

When fluid virus cannot be procured, it is necessary to be cautious how it is preserved in a dry state. The most improper mode is that of keeping it on a lancet; for the metal quickly rusts, and the vaccine matter becomes decomposed. This method, however, is as likely to succeed as any, when the matter is not to be kept above two or three days. If the virus be taken on glass, care must be taken not to dilute it much; otherwise it will in all probability fail.

Cotton thread is a very commodious vehicle. If it is intended to be sent to any considerable distance, it ought to be repeatedly dipped in the virus. No particular caution is necessary with regard to the exclusion of air; nevertheless, as it can be done with so little trouble, and is more satisfactory to those who receive the matter, it is better to comply with the practice. On this account it may be inclosed in a glass tube, or in a tobacco pipe sealed at each end, or between two square bits of glass, which may, if necessary, be also charged with the matter, and wrapped in gold-beater's skin.

Nothing is more destructive to the efficacy of cow-pock matter than heat: on this account it must not be dried near the fire, nor kept in a warm place. The advantage of inserting it in a fluid state is so great,

that it is to be wished every practitioner would endeavour to keep a constant supply for his own use, by inoculating his patients in succession, at such periods as are most likely to answer that purpose.

The rapidity with which this practice now spreads in various parts of the globe, justifies our cherishing a hope, that it will ere long extinguish that most dreadful pestilence, and perpetual bane of human felicity, the small-pox.

VARIX, (*Varix, icis*, m. from *varus*, i. e. *obtortus*). A dilatation of a vein. A genus of disease in the class *locales* and order *tumores* of Cullen; known by a soft tumour on a vein which does not pulsate. Varicose veins mostly become serpentine, and often form a plexus of knots, especially in the groins and scrotum.

VAS DEFERENS (*Vas, is*, n. and *deferens*, from *defero*, to convey). A duct which arises from the epididymis, and passes through the inguinal ring in the spermatic cord into the cavity of the pelvis, and terminates in the vesiculæ seminales. Its use is to convey the semen secreted in the testicle, and brought to it by the epididymis into the vesiculæ seminales.

VASA BREVIA. The arteries which come from the spleen, and run along the large arch of the stomach to the diaphragm.

VASA DEFERENTIA. See *Vas deferens*.

VASA VORTICOSA. The contorted vessels of the choroid membrane.

VASTUS EXTERNUS, (*Vastus*, so called from its size). This large, thick, and fleshy muscle is situated on the outer side of the thigh: it arises, by a broad thick tendon, from the lower and anterior part of the great trochanter, and upper part of the linea asperia; it likewise adheres by fleshy fibres, to the whole outer edge of that rough line. Its fibres

descend obliquely forwards, and after it has run four or five inches downwards, we find it adhering to the anterior surface and outer side of the *cruræus*, with which it continues to be connected to the lower part of the thigh, where we see it terminating in a broad tendon, which is inserted into the upper part of the patella laterally, and sends off an aponeurosis that adheres to the head of the tibia, and is continued down the leg.

VASTUS INTERNUS. This muscle, which is less considerable than the *vastus externus*, is situated at the inner side of the thigh, being separated from the last described muscle by the *rectus*.

It arises tendinous and fleshy from between the fore-part of the *os femoris*, and the root of the lesser trochanter, below the insertion of the *psoas magnus*, and the *iliacus internus*; and from all the inner side of the *linea aspera*. Like the *vastus externus* it is connected with the *cruræus*, but it continues longer fleshy than that muscle. A little above the knee we see its outer edge uniting with the inner edge of the *rectus*, after which it is inserted tendinous into the upper part and inner side of the patella, sending off an aponeurosis which adheres to the upper part of the tibia.

VEINS, (*Vena*, *e*, f. from *venio*, to come, because the blood comes through it). Long membranous canals, which continually become wider, do not pulsate, and return the blood from the arteries to the heart. All veins originate from the extremities of arteries only, by anastomosis, and terminate in the auricles of the heart; *e. g.* the *vena cava* in the right, and the pulmonary veins in the left auricle. They are composed, like arteries, of three tunics or coats, which are much more slender than in the arteries, and are supplied with semi-

lunar membranes or folds called valves. Their use is to return the blood to the heart.

The blood is returned from every part of the body into the right auricle: the *vena cava superior* receives it from the head, neck, thorax, and superior extremities: the *vena cava inferior* from the abdomen and inferior extremities: and the coronary vein receives it from the coronary arteries of the heart.

The vena cava superior: This vein terminates in the superior part of the right auricle, into which it evacuates the blood, from the *right* and *left subclavian veins*, and the *vena azygos*. The right and left subclavian veins receive the blood from the head and upper extremities, in the following manner. The veins of the fingers, called *digitals*, receive their blood from the digital arteries, and empty it into,

1. The *cephalic of the thumb*, which runs on the back of the hand along the thumb, and evacuates itself into the external radial.

2. The *salvattella*, which runs along the little finger, unites with the former, and empties its blood into the internal and external cubital veins. At the bend of the fore-arm are three veins, called the great cephalic, the basilic, and the median.

The *great cephalic* runs along the superior part of the fore-arm, and receives the blood from the external radial.

The *basilic* ascends on the under side, and receives the blood from the *external* and *internal cubital veins*, and some branches which accompany the brachial artery, called *vena satellitum*.

The *median* is situated in the middle of the fore-arm, and arises from the union of several branches. These three veins all unite above the bend of the arm, and form

The *brachial vein*, which receives

and their blood, and is continued into the axilla, where it is called

The *axillary vein*: This receives the blood from the scapula, and superior and inferior parts of the chest, by the *superior* and *inferior thoracic vein*, the *vena muscularis*, and the *scapularis*.

The axillary vein then passes under the clavicle, where it is called the *subclavian*, which unites with the external and internal jugular veins, and the vertebral vein which brings the blood from the vertebral sinuses; it receives also the blood from the *mesoastinal*, *pericardiac*, *diaphragmatic*, *lymphatic*, *internal mammary* and *laryngeal* veins, and then unites with its fellow, to form the *vena cava superior*, or, as it is sometimes called, *vena cava descendens*.

The blood from the external and internal parts of the head and face is turned in the following manner to the external and internal jugulars, which terminate in the subclavians.

The *frontal*, *angular*, *temporal*, *auricular*, *sublingual*, and *occipital* veins receive the blood from the parts after which they are named; these all converge to each side of the neck, and form a trunk, called the *external jugular vein*.

The blood from the *cranium*, *medulla oblongata*, *panes* of these parts, the lateral sinuses, or *sinus*, one of which runs through the foramen *transversarii* into the *internal jugular*, ascends in the *carotid* arteries, receives the *thyroid* and *internal jugular* and empties it into the *internal jugular* within the neck.

The *vena cava superior* receives the blood from the *pharyngeal*, *vertebral*, *intercostal*, and *empuric* veins.

Vena cava inferior: The *vena cava inferior* is the trunk of all the abdominal veins and those of the lower extremities, from which parts the blood is returned in the following manner. The veins of the toes, called the *digital veins*, receive the blood from the digital arteries, and form on the back of the foot three branches, one on the great toe called the *cephalic*, another which runs along the little toe, called the *vena saphena*, and on the back of the foot, *vena dorsalis pedis*; and on the sole of the foot they evacuate themselves into the *plantar veins*.

The three veins on the upper part of the foot coming together above the ankle, form the *anterior tibial*; and the plantar veins with a branch from the calf of the leg, called the *sural vein*, form the *posterior tibial*; a branch also ascends in the direction of the fibula, called the *peroneal vein*. These three branches unite before the ham, into one branch, the *subpopliteal vein*, which ascends through the ham, carrying all the blood from the foot: it then proceeds upon the anterior part of the thigh, where it is termed the *crural* or *femoral vein*, receives several muscular branches, and passes under Poupart's ligament, where it

spermatic veins, and the *vena cava hepatica*; and having arrived at the diaphragm, it passes through the right foramen, and enters the right auricle of the heart, into which it evacuates, all the blood from the abdominal viscera and lower extremities.

Vena cava hepatica: This vein ramifies in the substance of the liver, and brings the blood into the *vena cava inferior* from the branches of the *vena portæ*, a great vein which carries the blood from the abdominal viscera into the substance of the liver. The trunk of this vein, about the fissure of the liver in which it is situated, is *divided* into the hepatic and abdominal portions. The *abdominal portion* is composed of the *splenic*, *mesenteric*, and *internal hæmorrhoidal veins*. These three venous branches carry all the blood from the stomach, spleen, pancreas, omentum, mesentery, gall-bladder, and the small and large intestines, into the *sinus* of the *vena portæ*. The *hepatic portion* of the *vena portæ* enters the substance of the liver, divides into innumerable ramifications, which secrete the bile, and the superfluous blood passes into corresponding branches of the *vena cava hepatica*.

The *action of the veins*: Veins do not pulsate.

rendered it necessary for the unfortunate Indians and Negroes, who traverse the woods almost always barefooted, to search out the most efficacious remedies for the disagreeable effects produced by the bite of these animals. Of the remedies hitherto discovered, none is equal to the juice of a plant of the creeping kind, called *vejucó du guaco*, for it not only cures the maladies arising from the bite of serpents, but preserves from their effects those who have drunk of it before they are bitten; so that the Negroes and Indians acquainted with this plant, lay hold with their naked hands, of the most venomous serpents without sustaining any injury from them. This knowledge, of which they formerly made a great mystery, gave them much importance in the country, and there is no doubt that they gained a great deal of money, both from those who were bitten by serpents, and from those who were desirous, through curiosity, to see them handle these dangerous animals.

Being born in the kingdom of Santa-Fé, belonging to South America, I had often heard the inhabitants boasting of the great ability of these Negroes, whom my countrymen call empirics. But as in the country where I was educated, which was the same district, there are no such persons, I had no opportunity till the year 1788, when I was at Cúcuta, a large city, I heard of a Negro of a great reputation for his skill in curing the bite of serpents, and I was desirous to examine him. I consulted a gentleman of that country, who had resolved to examine him, and he recommended me to consult his master to obtain a sufficient proof of his skill, which he readily consented to. On the 30th of January, the Negro came to the house where I resided, and I examined him with the most venomous serpents, which he had

put into a calabash; a kind of vessel employed by these people for the same purposes as bottles are employed in Europe. Having informed him that I was desirous of seeing a specimen of his talents, he replied that he was ready to gratify my curiosity, and taking the serpent from the calabash, handled it with so much confidence and composure, that I imagined he had previously deprived it of its teeth that contained the poison. I therefore caused him to open its mouth, but I saw that it still had its teeth; and was convinced that the negro possessed some secret for soothing it, for it appeared as tame and harmless as the most innocent animal could have been. After a long conversation with the negro, of whom I asked several questions, to which he gave the most pertinent answers, I informed him how much I should be gratified if I could be enabled to handle serpents with the same security; and finding that he was not averse to procure me that satisfaction, I offered him a recompence, with which he seemed satisfied. Next morning he returned with the leaves of the plant in question, which he moistened, and, having bruised them in my presence, made me drink two large spoonfuls of the juice. He then made three incisions between my fingers in each hand, in which he inoculated me with the same juice; he performed a similar operation on each foot, and on each side of my breast. When these operations were finished he informed me that I might lay hold of the serpent. I made several observations to him in regard to the disagreeable consequences to be apprehended in case I should be bit by the animal; but finding that he seemed confident in his skill, I resolved to take it into my hands without any fear, which I did several times, the animal never making the least attempt to do me any injury.

One of the individuals, however, who were in my house being desirous to run the same risk, was bit by the serpent the second time he took it in his hands; but without any further inconvenience than a slight inflammation in the parts. Two of my domestics who had been also inoculated, encouraged by this first attempt went out into the fields and soon brought with them another kind of serpent equally venomous, without sustaining any hurt from it. In a word, I have caught several since that time without any other preparation than that of having drank a little juice of the vejucó du guaco; and after repeating these trials, either on myself or my domestics, and always with the completest success, I resolved in 1791 to give a memoir on this remarkable antidote in a periodical paper published every week at Santa-Fé. I added a description of the plant, and every thing that appeared to me necessary for rendering public and general this discovery so useful to mankind. An account of all my experiments, and of the persons who were present, will be found in that paper, dated Sept. 30, 1791.

I shall here only observe, that the tradition current among the Indians and negroes of the vice-royship of Santa-Fé, respecting the manner in which the virtue of this plant was discovered, is as follows: A bird of the kite kind, described by Catesby under the name of the serpent-hawk, feeds chiefly upon snakes in the hot and temperate regions of that part of America. This bird has a monotonous cry, sometimes very disagreeable by its repetition, which imitates the articulated word guaco, on which account the inhabitants have given it that name; and these people say that when it cries it is to call forth the serpents, over which it exercises a certain kind of authority. They add other extravagant fables; but it is

certain that the guaco pursues them wherever it finds them, and that the Indians and negroes, who spend the greater part of their time in the forests and open fields, assert, that to take them with more safety they prepare themselves by eating some leaves of the plant in question. This may be true; they may have discovered the virtue of it, and experienced it with success. In this case, as in many others, the instinct of animals has been of use to us.

In regard to the plant, its genus has not yet been classed in any book of botany I have ever seen; and for that reason I shall venture to give a description of it as well as I can, taking advantage of the memoir above mentioned. The root is fibrous, and extends in every direction; the stem is straight, perfectly cylindric when the plant is tender, but when old becomes pentagonal, that is to say, acquires salient angles. The leaves which grow on the stem stand opposite to each other, are shaped like a heart, have a dark green colour, intermixed with violet; are smooth on the lower side, rough on the upper, and somewhat velvety; its corymbiferous flowers are yellow, flosculous, and have four florets on each common calyx. The corolla is monopetalous, infundibuliform, with five indentations, and contains five stamina, united by antheræ in the form of cylinders, which embrace the style. The style has a stigma deeply divided, and the calyx contains several broad seeds each with a silky aigrette.

The plant is vivacious, and is found in the hot and temperate regions of the vice-royship of Santa-Fé; it is, in general, found growing on the borders of rivulets and in shady places, rather than in the open plains. Nature has not produced it in the elevated or cold districts of this continent; and for this reason, no doubt,

that its virtue would be useless, at there are no venomous serpents but in the countries where it grows."

VELUM PENDŪLUM PALATI. *Velum. Velum palatinum.* The soft palate. The soft part of the palate, which forms two arches, affixed laterally to the tongue and pharynx.

VENA AZYGOS. *Vena sine pari.* See *Azygos vein.*

VENA MEDINENSIS. See *Medinensis vena.*

VENA PORTÆ, (*Vena portæ, a portando*, because through it things are carried). *Vena portarum.* The great vein, situated at the entrance of the liver, which receives the blood from the abdominal viscera, and carries it into the substance of the liver. It is distinguished into the *hepatic* and *abdominal* portion: the former is ramified through the substance of the liver, and carries the blood destined for the formation of bile, which is returned by branches to the trunk of the vena cava; the latter is composed of three branches; viz. the splenic, mesenteric, and internal hæmorrhoidal veins. See *Veins.*

VENÆ LACTÆ. The lacteal absorbents were so called. See *Lacteals.*

VENEREAL DISEASE. See *Gonorrhæa* and *Syphilis.*

VENTER, (*Venter, ris, m.*) A term formerly applied to the larger circumscribed cavities of the body, as the abdomen and thorax.

VENTRICLES. A term given by anatomists to the cavities of the brain and heart. See *Cerebrum* and *Heart.*

VENTRICŪLUS PULMONĀRIS. The right ventricle of the heart.

VENTRICŪLUS SUCCENTURIĀTUS. That portion of the duodenum, which is surrounded by the peritoneum, is sometimes so large as to resemble a second stomach, and is so called by some writers.

VENUS. Copper was formerly so called by the chemists.

VERATRUM. See *Helleborus albus*.

VERATRUM ALBUM. See *Helleborus albus*.

VERATRUM NIGRUM. See *Helleborus niger*.

VERBASCUM, (*Verbascum*, i, n. quasi *barbascum*, from its hairy coat). *Thapsus barbatus*. *Candelaria*. *Lanaria*. Mullein. Two plants, the *Verbascum nigrum* and *Verbascum thapsus*, appear to be ordered indifferently by this name in the pharmacopœias. The flowers, leaves, and roots, are used occasionally as mild astringents. The leaves possess a roughish taste, and promise to be of service in diarrhœas and other debilitated states of the intestines.

VERBASCUM NIGRUM. The systematic name of the black mullein. See *Verbascum*.

VERBASCUM THAPSUS. The systematic name of the yellow mullein. See *Verbascum*.

VERBENA, (*Verbena*, æ, f. quasi *herbena*, a name of distinction for all herbs used in sacred rites). *Verbenaca*. *Peristerium*. *Hierobotane*. *Herba sacra*. Vervain. This plant *Verbena officinalis* of Linnæus, is destitute of odour, and to the taste manifests but a slight degree of bitterness and astringency. In former times the verbena seems to have been held sacred, and was employed in celebrating the sacrificial rites; and with a view to this, more than the natural power of the plant, it was worn suspended about the neck as an amulet.

This practice, thus founded on superstition, was, however, in process of time, adopted in medicine; and therefore to obtain its virtues more effectually, the vervain was directed to be bruised before it was appended to the neck; and of its good effects thus used for inveterate head-aches, Forestus relates a remarkable instance. In still later times it has been employed in the way of cataplasm, by which we are told the most severe

and obstinate cases of cephalagia have been cured, for which we have the authorities of Etmuller, Hartmann, and more especially De Hean. Notwithstanding these testimonies in favour of vervain, it has deservedly fallen into disuse in Britain; nor has the pamphlet of Mr. Morley written professedly to recommend its use in scrophulous affections, had the effect of restoring its medical character. This gentleman directs the root of vervain to be tied with a yard of white sattin ribband round the neck, where it is to remain till the patient recovers. He also has recourse to infusions and ointments prepared from the leaves of the plant, and occasionally calls in aid the most active medicines of the *Materia Medica*.

VERBENA FÆMĪNA. The hedge mustard is sometimes so called. See *Erysimum*.

VERBENA OFFICINĀLIS. The systematic name of vervain. See *Verbena*.

VERDIGRIS. See *Ærugo*.

VERMES. See *Worms*.

VERMICULĀRIS. See *Illecebra*.

VERMIFORM PROCESS. *Pro-tuberantia vermiformis*. The substance which unites the two hemispheres of the cerebellum like a ring, forming a process. It is called *vermiform*, from its resemblance to the contortions of worms.

VERMIFUGES, (*Vermifuga*, from *vermis*, a worm, and *fugo*, to drive away). See *Anthelmintics*.

VERMILLION. See *Cinnabar*.

VERMIS TERRESTRIS. See *Earth worm*.

VERONICA. *Veronica mas*. *Thea Germanica*. *Betonica pauli*. This plant, the *Veronica officinalis*; *spicis lateralibus*; *pedunculatis foliis oppositis*; *caule procumbente* of Linnæus, is not unfrequent on dry barren grounds and heaths, as that of Hampstead, flowering in June and July. The leaves have a weak not disa-

greeable smell, which on drying is dissipated, and which they give over in distillation with water but without yielding any separable oil. To the taste they are bitterish and roughish; an extract made from them by rectified spirit is moderately bitter and adstringent. This plant a century ago, was much recommended especially in Germany, as a substitute for tea; and the French still distinguish it by the name of Thé d'Europe. But though this European tea has a roughness and a slight bitterness, which is not ungrateful to the taste, yet the qualities are so unlike those which we discover in the foreign tea, that the extremely high price of the latter, at that time, must have been the chief reason for causing a contrary opinion, and of reconciling Europeans to a substitute so imperfect as the leaves of veronica. As a medicine also this plant has had a considerable share of fame; Francus and Hoffmann, ascribe to it numerous virtues; the former calling it polychresta herba veronica. The disorders in which it has been esteemed most useful are those of the lungs, as coughs, asthmas, consumptions, &c. in which it is said not only to prove expectorant, but by its extraordinary vulnerary power to heal internal ulcers. Its use has likewise been recommended by several authors in various other complaints requiring medicines of very different characters; but if we judge of the utility of the veronica by its sensible qualities, it is only to be recognized as an adstringent; and not sufficiently powerful as such to produce any considerable effect, and is therefore now disregarded by medical practitioners.

VERONICA AQUATICA. The brooklime speedwell is sometimes so called. See *Beccabunga*.

VERONICA BECCABUNGA. The systematic name of the brooklime speedwell. See *Beccabunga*.

VERONICA FEMINA. See *Elatine*.

VERONICA MAS. See *Veronica*.

VERONICA OFFICINALIS. The systematic name of the male speedwell. See *Veronica*.

VERONICA TEUCRUM. See *Teucrium*.

VERRŪCÆ, (*Verruca*, æ, f. a *verrendo*, a *verrunco*, to change for the better). Warts. A genus of disease in the class *locales* and order *tumores* of Cullen.

VERTĒBRÆ, (*Vertebra*, æ, f. from *verto*, to turn). The spine is a long bony column, which extends from the head to the lower part of the trunk, and is composed of a number of irregular bones which are called *vertebræ*.

The spine may be considered as being composed of two irregular pyramids, which are united to each other in that part of the loins where the last of the lumbar *vertebræ* is united to the os sacrum.

The *vertebræ*, which form the upper and longest pyramid, are called true *vertebræ*; and those which compose the lower pyramid, or the os sacrum and the coccyx, are termed false *vertebræ*, because they do not in every thing resemble the others; and particularly because, in the adult state, they become perfectly immoveable, whilst the upper ones continue to be capable of motion. For it is upon the bones of the spine that the body turns, and their name has its derivation from the Latin verb *verto* as observed above.

The true *vertebræ*, from their situation with respect to the neck, back, and loins, are divided into three classes of *cervical*, *dorsal*, and *lumbar* *vertebræ*. We will first consider the general structure of all these, and then separately describe their different classes.

In each of the *vertebræ*, as in other bones, we may remark the

ody of the bone, its processes and apophyses. The body may be compared to part of a cylinder cut off transversely; convex before, and concave behind, where it makes part of the continuity of the spine.

Each vertebra has commonly seven processes. The first of these is the spinous process, which is placed at the back part of the vertebra, and gives the name of spine to the whole of this bony canal. Two others are called *transverse* processes, from their situation with respect to the spine, and are placed on each side of the spinous process. The four others, which are called *oblique* processes, are much smaller than the other three. There are two of these on the upper and two on the lower part of each vertebra, rising from near the basis of the transverse processes. They are sometimes called *articular* processes, because they are articulated with each other; that is, the two superior processes of one vertebra are articulated with the two inferior processes of the vertebra above it: and they are called *oblique* processes, from their situation with respect to the processes with which they are articulated. These oblique processes are articulated to each other by a species of ligament, and each process is covered at its articulation with cartilage.

There is in every vertebra, between its body and apophyses, a foramen, large enough to admit a finger. These foramina correspond with each other through all the vertebræ, and form a long bony conduit, for the passage of the spinal marrow.

Besides this great hole, there are four notches on each side of every vertebra, between the oblique processes and the body of the vertebra. Two of these notches are at the upper, and two at the lower part of the bone. Each of the inferior notches, meeting with one of the

superior notches of the vertebra below it, forms a foramen; whilst the superior notches do the same with the inferior notches of the vertebra above it. These four foramina form passages for blood-vessels, and for the nerves that pass out of the spine.

The vertebræ are united together by means of a substance, compressible like cork, which forms a kind of partition between the several vertebræ. This intervertebral substance seems, in the fœtus, to approach nearly to the nature of ligaments; in the adult it has a greater resemblance to cartilage. When cut horizontally, it appears to consist of concentric curved fibres, externally, it is firmest and hardest; internally, it becomes thinner and softer, till at length, in the centre, we find it in the form of a mucous substance, which facilitates the motions of the spine.

Genga, an Italian anatomist, long ago observed, that the change which takes place in these intervertebral cartilages, (as they are usually called) in advanced life, occasions the decrease in stature, and the stooping forwards, which are usually to be observed in old people. The cartilages then become shrivelled, and consequently lose, in a great measure, their elasticity. But, besides this gradual effect of old age, these cartilages are subject to a temporary diminution, from the weight of the body in an erect posture, so that people who have been long standing, or have carried a considerable weight, are found to be shorter than when they have been long in bed. Hence we are taller in the morning than at night. This fact, though seemingly obvious, was not ascertained till of late years. The difference in such cases depends on the age, and size of the subject; in tall, young people, it will be nearly an inch; but in older, or shorter persons, it will be less considerable.

Besides the connection of the several vertebræ, by means of these cartilages, there are likewise many strong ligaments, which unite the bones of the spine to each other. Some of these ligaments are external, and others internal. Among the external ligaments, we observe one which is common to all the vertebræ, extending, in a longitudinal direction, from the fore part of the body of the second vertebra of the neck, over all the other vertebræ, and becoming broader as it descends towards the os sacrum, where it becomes thinner, and gradually disappears. This external longitudinal ligament, if we may so call it, is strengthened by other shorter ligamentous fibres, which pass from one vertebra to another, throughout the whole spine. The internal ligament, the fibres of which, like the external one, are spread in a longitudinal direction, is extended over the back part of the bodies of the vertebræ, where they help to form the cavity of the spine, and reaches from the foramen magnum of the occipital bone to the os sacrum.

We may venture to remark, that all the vertebræ diminish in density and firmness of texture, in proportion as they increase in size, so that the lower vertebræ, though larger, are not so heavy in proportion as those above them. In consequence of this mode of structure, the size of the vertebræ is increased without adding to their weight; and this is an object of no little importance, in a part of the body, which, besides flexibility and suppleness, seems to require lightness as one of its essential properties.

In the fœtus, at the ordinary time of birth, each vertebra is found to be composed of three bony pieces, connected by cartilages which afterwards ossify. One of these pieces is the body of the bone; the other two are

the posterior and lateral portions, which form the foramen for the medulla spinalis. The oblique processes are at that time complete, and the transverse processes beginning to be formed; but the spinous processes are totally wanting.

The cervical vertebræ, are seven in number, their bodies are smaller and of a firmer texture than the other bones of the spine. The transverse processes of these vertebræ are short, and forked for the lodgment of muscles; and, at the bottom of each of these processes, there is a foramen, for the passage of the cervical artery and vein. The spinous process of each of these vertebræ is likewise shorter than in the other vertebræ, and forked at its extremity; by which means it allows a more convenient insertion to the muscles of the neck. Their oblique processes are more deserving of that name than either those of the dorsal or lumbar vertebræ. The uppermost of these processes are slightly concave, and the lowermost slightly convex. This may suffice for a general description of these vertebræ; but the first, second, and seventh, deserve to be spoken of more particularly. The first, which is called *Atlas*, from its supporting the head, differs from all the other vertebræ of the spine. It forms a kind of bony ring, which may be divided into its anterior and posterior arches, and its lateral portions. Of these, the anterior arch is the smallest and flattest; at the middle of its convex fore part we observe a small tubercle which is here what the body is in the other vertebræ. To this tubercle a ligament is attached, which helps to strengthen the articulation of the spine with the os occipitis. The back part of this anterior portion is concave, and covered with cartilage, where it receives the odontoid process of the second vertebra. The posterior portion of the vertebra, or,

more properly speaking, the posterior arch, is larger than the anterior one. Instead of a spinous process, we observe a rising or tubercle, larger than that which we have just now described, on the fore part of the bone. The lateral portions of the vertebra project, so as to form what are called the transverse processes, one on each side, which are longer and larger than the transverse processes of the other vertebræ. They terminate in a roundish tubercle, the end of which has a slight bend downwards. Like the other transverse processes, they are perforated at their basis, for the passage of the cervical artery. But, besides these transverse processes, we observe, both on the superior and inferior surface of these lateral portions of the first vertebra, an articulating surface, covered with cartilage, answering to the oblique processes in the other vertebræ. The uppermost of these are oblong, and slightly concave, and their external edges rise somewhat higher than their internal brims. They receive the condyloid processes of the os occipitis, with which they are articulated by a species of ginglymus. The lowermost articulating surfaces, or the inferior oblique processes, as they are called, are large, concave, and circular, and are formed for receiving the superior oblique processes of the second vertebra; so that the atlas differs from the rest of the cervical vertebræ in receiving the bones, with which it is articulated both above and below.

In the fœtus we find this vertebra composed of five, instead of three pieces, as in the other vertebræ. One of these is the anterior arch; the other four are the posterior arch and the sides, each of the latter being composed of two pieces. The transverse process, on each side, remains long in a state of epiphysis with respect to the rest of the bone.

The second vertebra is called *dentata*, from the process on the upper part of its body, which has been though perhaps improperly, compared to a tooth. This process, which is the most remarkable part of the vertebra, is of a cylindrical shape, slightly flattened, however, behind and before. Anteriorly it has a convex, smooth, articulating surface, where it is received by the atlas, as we observed in our description of that vertebra. It is by means of this articulation that the rotatory motion of the head is performed; the articulation of the os occipitis with the superior oblique processes of the first vertebra, allowing only a certain degree of motion backwards and forwards, so that when we turn the face either to the right or left, the atlas moves upon this odontoid process of the second vertebra. But, as the face cannot turn a quarter of a circle, that is, to the shoulder, upon this vertebra alone, without being liable to injure the medulla spinalis, we find that all the cervical vertebræ concur in this rotatory motion, when it is in any considerable degree; and indeed we see many strong ligamentous fibres arising from the sides of the odontoid process, and passing over the first vertebra, to the os occipitis, which not only strengthen the articulation of these bones with each other, but serve to regulate and limit their motion. It is on this account that the name of *moderators* has sometimes been given to these ligaments.

The transverse processes of the vertebra dentata are short, inclined downwards, and forked at their extremities. Its spinous process is short and thick. Its superior oblique processes are slightly convex, and somewhat larger than the articulating surfaces of the first vertebra, by which mechanism, the motion of

that bone upon this second vertebra is performed with greater safety. Its inferior oblique processes have nothing singular in their structure.

The seventh vertebra of the neck differs from the rest chiefly in having its spinous process of a greater length, so that, upon this account, it has been sometimes called *vertebra prominens*.

The *dorsal vertebra*, which are twelve in number, are of a middle size, between the cervical and lumbar vertebrae; the upper ones gradually losing their resemblance to those of the neck, and the lower ones coming nearer to those of the loins. The bodies of these vertebrae are more flattened at their sides, more convex before, and more concave behind, than the other bones of the spine. Their upper and lower surfaces are horizontal. At their sides we observe two depressions, one at their upper, and the other at their lower edge, which, united with similar depressions in the vertebrae above and below, form articulating surfaces, covered with cartilage, in which the heads of the ribs are received. These depressions, however, are not exactly alike in all the dorsal vertebrae; for we find the head of the first rib articulated solely with the first of these vertebrae, which has therefore the whole of the superior articulating surface within itself, independent of the vertebra above it. We may likewise observe a similarity in this respect in the eleventh and twelfth of the dorsal vertebrae, with which the eleventh and twelfth ribs are articulated separately. Their spinous processes are long, flattened at the sides, divided at their upper and back part into two surfaces by a middle ridge, which is received by a small groove in the inner part of the spinous process immediately above it, and connected to it by a ligament. These

spinous processes are terminated by a kind of round tubercle, which slopes considerably downwards, except in the three lowermost vertebrae, where they are shorter and more erect. Their transverse processes are of considerable length and thickness, and are turned obliquely backwards. Anteriorly they have an articulating surface, for receiving the tuberosity of the ribs, except in the eleventh and twelfth of the dorsal vertebrae to which the ribs are articulated by their heads only. In the last of these vertebrae the transverse processes are very short and thick, because otherwise they would be apt to strike against the lowermost ribs, when we bend the body to either side.

The *lumbar vertebra*, the lowest of the true vertebrae, are five in number. They are larger than the dorsal vertebrae. Their bodies are extremely prominent, and nearly of a circular form at their fore part; posteriorly they are concave. Their intermediate cartilages are of considerable thickness, especially anteriorly, by which means the curvature of the spine forwards, towards the abdomen, in this part, is greatly assisted. Their spinous processes are short and thick, of considerable breadth, erect, and terminated by a kind of tuberosity. Their oblique processes are of considerable thickness; the superior ones are concave, and turned inwards; the inferior ones convex, and turned outwards. Their transverse processes are thin and long, except in the first and last vertebra, where they are much shorter, that the lateral motions of the trunk might not be impeded. The inferior surface of all these vertebrae is slightly oblique, so that the fore part of the body of each is somewhat thicker than its hind part; but this is more particularly observable in the lowermost vertebra, which is

connected with the os sacrum. Many anatomists describe the os sacrum and the os occygis as when considering the bones of the spine, whilst others regard them as belonging more properly to the pelvis. These bones the reader may consult. It now remains to notice the uses of the spine. We find the spinal marrow lodged in this bony canal, secure from external injury. It defends the thoracic and abdominal viscera, and forms a pillar which supports the head, and gives general firmness to the whole trunk.

To give it a firm basis, we find the bodies of the vertebra gradually increasing in breadth as they descend; and to fit it for a variety of motion, it is composed of a great number of joints, with an intermediate elastic substance, so that to great firmness there is added a perfect flexibility.

We have already observed, that the lowermost and largest vertebrae are not so heavy in proportion as those above them; their bodies being more spongy, excepting at their circumference, where they are more immediately exposed to pressure; so that nature seems every where endeavouring to relieve us of an unnecessary weight of bone. But behind, where the spinal marrow is more exposed to injury, we find the processes composed of very hard bone; and the spinous processes are in general placed over each other in a slanting direction, so that a pointed instrument cannot easily get between them, excepting in the neck, where they are almost perpendicular and leave a greater space between them. Hence, in some countries, it is usual to kill cattle by thrusting a pointed instrument between the occiput and the atlas, or between the atlas and the second vertebra. Besides these uses of the vertebrae in defending the spinal marrow, and in articulating the several vertebrae, as

is the case with the oblique processes, we shall find that they all serve to form a greater surface for the lodgment of muscles, and to enable the latter to act more powerfully on the trunk, by affording them a lever of considerable length.

In the neck, we see the spine projecting somewhat forwards, to support the head, which, without this assistance, would require a greater number of muscles. Through the whole length of the thorax it is carried in a curved direction backwards, and thus adds considerably to the cavity of the chest, and consequently affords more room to the lungs, heart, and large blood-vessels. In the loins the spine again projects forwards, in a direction with the centre of gravity, by which means the body is easily kept in an erect posture; for otherwise we should be liable to fall forwards. But, at its inferior part, it again recedes backwards, and helps to form a cavity called the pelvis, in which the urinary bladder, intestinum rectum, and other viscera, are placed.

In a part of the body that is composed of so great a number of bones, and constructed for such a variety of motion, as the spine is, luxation is more to be expected than fracture; and this is very wisely guarded against in every direction, by the many processes that are to be found in each vertebra, and by the cartilages, ligaments, and other means of connection, which we have described as uniting them together.

VERTEBRAL ARTERY. *Arteria vertebralis.* A branch of the subclavian, proceeding through the vertebrae to within the cranium, where, with its fellow, it forms the basilar artery, the internal auditory, and the posterior artery of the dura mater.

VERTEX, (*Vertex, icis, m.*). The crown of the head.

VERTICALIA OSSA. See *Parietal bones*.

VERTICIS OS. See *Parietal bones*.

VERTIGO, (*Vertigo, inis, f.*). Giddiness. Mostly symptomatic.

VERVAIN. See *Verbena*.

VERVAIN, FEMALE. See *Erysimum*.

VESANIÆ, (*Vesania, æ, f.*) The fourth order in the class *neuroses* of Cullen's nosological arrangement; comprehending diseases in which the judgment is impaired, without either coma or pyrexia.

VESICA, (*Vesica, æ, f.* a diminutive of *vas*, a vessel). A bladder.

VESICA FELLIS. The gall-bladder. See *Gall bladder*.

VESICA URINARIA. The urinary bladder. See *Urinary bladder*.

VESICATORIES, (*Vesicatoria*, from *vesica*, a bladder; because they raise a bladder). See *Epispastics*.

VESICLE, (*Bulla*). An elevation of the cuticle, of a large size, irregularly circumscribed, and containing a transparent watery fluid. Vesicles with a dark red, or livid coloured base are usually denominated phlyctænæ.

VESICULÆ PULMONALES, (*Vesicula, æ, f.* a diminutive of *vesica*, a bladder). The air cells which compose the greatest part of the lungs, and are situated at the termination of the bronchia.

VESICULÆ SEMINALES. Two membranous receptacles, situated on the back part of the bladder above its neck. Its excretory ducts are called ejaculatory ducts. They proceed to the urethra, into which they open by a peculiar orifice at the top of the verumontanum. They have vessels and nerves from the neighbouring parts, and are well supplied with absorbent vessels, which proceed to the lymphatic glands about the loins. The use of the vesiculæ seminales is to receive the semen brought

into them by the vasa deferentia, to retain, somewhat inspissate, and to excern it *sub coitu* into the urethra, from whence it is propelled into the vagina uteri. See *Pemphigus*.

VESICULAR FEVER. This disease seems to consist in eruptions dispersed over different parts of the body (internal as well as external), which gradually rise up into vesicles about the size of a large nut, containing a yellow serous fluid, that in some instances of an ichorous nature, and which again disappear in the course of three or four days. In some authors it is described as being attended both by fever and contagion, and by others, as being accompanied by neither. It is therefore supposed that there are two species of it, the chronic, and the acute. The disease is, however, of very rare occurrence.

By the generality of the practitioners who have favoured us with their opinions, the principal of whom is Dr. Dickson, it has not been considered as contagious. This gentleman saw six cases of the complaint, in none of which it was received by contagion, nor communicated to those who attended the sick.

Dr. Cullen informs us that the blisters are filled with a thin ichor which is discharged, not absorbed, as mentioned by Dr. Dickson; but during his whole practice, it appears that he met only with a single case of pemphigus.

Some slight degree of lassitude, sickness, and head-ach having prevailed for a day or two, small vesicles of about the size of a pea, then make their appearance over different parts of the body, and not unfrequently in the mouth, and other parts of the alimentary canal, and these gradually increase till they become as large as a nut or almond. Sometimes they are so numerous as to run into each other. The pulse during this time

small and frequent, and the patient capable of a considerable degree of activity.

If the vesicles are not broken, they fill with a yellowish serum, which is then absorbed into the system in the space of three or four days. This appears to be the most favourable termination; as they have been known to leave troublesome ulcers behind when they broke.

Pemphigus resembles the small pox frequently leaving pits in the skin, in the parts, which the vesicle occupied, remaining of a dark colour for a considerable time afterwards. In the third volume of Medical Facts and Observations, Dr. Winterbottom takes particular notice of this occurrence.

We are to be influenced in our prognosis by the seat and appearance of the vesicles. When they only appear on external parts, and are numerous, they demand little attention; when they are numerous, when they attack the alimentary canal and are attended with a small, but pulse, the danger is considerable. The danger is likewise very great, when the ulcers, left by vesicles, shew a tendency to gangrene by coming ill, which seldom happens, however, unless a fever of the true typhoid kind has accompanied it.

On taking a comprehensive survey of what has been recorded by recent writers on the subject, we must be concluded that pemphigus is an affection merely sporadic, and not of contagious nature, and that the symptoms accompanying one or other instances of this affection, are those which attend febrile diseases, whether inflammatory or putrid. The most important distinctions necessary to be ascertained appear therefore to be, 1. Whether the fever is of an inflammatory nature, and accompanied with a strong and increased action

of the vascular system. 2d. Whether the fever has a tendency to the typhoid type, is marked by great debility, and symptoms which denote a tendency of the fluids to putrefaction. It will be obvious that in the first case, evacuation and other antiphlogistic remedies will be proper; and that in the second it will, on the contrary, be necessary to shun all evacuations, and to employ those remedies alone which support the strength, and give tone and vigour to the system.

VESTIBŪLUM, (*Vestibulum*, *i*, *n*. an entry). A round cavity of the internal ear, between the cochlea and semicircular canals, in which are, an oval opening communicating with the cavity of the tympanum, and the orifices of the semicircular canals. It is within this cavity and the semicircular canals, that the new apparatus, discovered by the celebrated neurologist Scarpa, lies. He has demonstrated membranous tubes, connected loosely by cellular texture, within the bony semicircular canals, each of which is dilated in the cavity of the vestibule into an ampulla; it is upon these ampullæ, which communicate by means of an *alveus communis*, that branches of the portio mollis are expanded.

VETONICA CORDI. See *Betonica*.

VIBICES, (*Vibex*, *icis*, *m*.). The large purple spots which appear under the skin in certain malignant fevers.

VIBRISSE, (*Vibrissa*, *æ*, *f*. from *vibro*, to quaver). Hairs growing in the nostrils. See *Capillus*.

VICIA FABÆ. The systematic name of the common bean plant. See *Bean*.

VICTORĀLIS LONGA. This officinal is the *Allium victoralis* of Linnaeus. The root, which when dried loses its alliaceous smell and taste, is said to be efficacious in allaying the abdominal spasms of gravid females.

VIGILANCE. *Pervigilium.* Vigilance when attended by anxiety, pain in the head, loss of appetite, and diminution of strength, is by Sauvage and Sagar considered as a genus of disease, and is called *agrypnia*. It may arise they conceive from a variety of causes but chiefly,

1. From retrocedent or atonic gout.

2. It may be induced by passions of the mind, such as anger, fear, and strong desire.

3. From hysterical affections, when it is attended by palpitations, startings, subsultus tendinum, impeded respiration, spasmodic contraction, and convulsive motions, at the instant when sleep is stealing on the senses.

4. From disease of the head, when it is attended by violent head-ach.

5. An abscess in the pancreas has been the cause of vigilance attended by cold sweats with syncope.

6. It is often induced by grief, and therefore coinciding with the second species.

7. Indigestion frequently is the cause of it.

8. It is common in all fevers.

9. It is an attendant on old age.

10. It not unfrequently precedes epistaxis and other critical discharges.

11. A very common cause is the irritation of insects; as bugs, lice, fleas, gnats, ants, &c.

The reverend Dr. Townsend considers the occasional causes to be evidently such as stimulate the system.

1. The stimuli may be purely mental, such as anger, fear, joy, grief, with intensity of thought and volition. He informs us he was acquainted thirty years ago with a most amiable lady, who having the misfortune to lose a husband, by whom she was tenderly beloved, never slept a moment for six weeks; and Sauvage

makes mention of a young lady at Montpellier, who, having seen her husband murdered by assassins, was deprived of sleep more than three months.

2. The stimuli may be material, including such changes in the body as excite sensation; such as strong light, loud sounds, offensive smells, disgusting taste, hard touch, if they are unusual or such as commonly call forth volition, for none of these produce watchfulness, when the mind has been accustomed to regard them with indifference. The most powerful stimulus is pain, because by this the animal is warned of immediate danger; whether the uneasy sensation arises from spasm, distention, laceration, or any solution of continuity produced either mechanically or by chemical attraction. When pain has been for any length of time endured, it proves, like all other stimulants a powerful sedative.

3. The stimuli, if not so powerful as to excite sensation or volition, may yet produce irritation.

The irritation may be,

a. In the lungs; as in cases of asthma and catarrh.

b. In the stomach, arising from indigested food, viscid mucus, worms, hunger, and thirst. Hoffman says "*Ventriculo benehabente, totum corpus alacritus est, somnus fit placidus, si veronustus est alimentis incongruis, somnus deficit vel in somniis terrificis interturbatur.*"

c. In the bowels; from bile and flatulence, from feces in the rectum.

d. In the urinary bladder.

e. In the seminal vessels.

f. In the brain, or its meninges either arising from or attended by quickened circulation of the blood for whatever accelerates the motion of the circulating fluids in the vessel of the brain, induces vigilance. Thus far, says Dr. Townsend, all is clear, but as we advance we shall find ourselves in the regions of doubt, o

arkness, and of conjecture. How then shall we account for vigilance? Borrowing a ray of light from chemistry, shall we venture to suppose it may arise from the uninterrupted supply of oxygen and hydrogen to the vessels of the brain? If we suppose sleep to be produced by the effluence of roscid lymph on the ventricles of the brain, and particularly, as I may now proceed to state it, by effluence on the plexus choroides and the minuter or secreting vessels of the brain, may we not indulge our imagination and conjecture, that vigilance is produced by the union of oxygen and hydrogen; the latter perhaps secreted by some of the vessels of the brain, the former derived by chemical attraction from the arterial blood of the plexus choroides? We know, that by vigilance and thought, as well as by motion in the system, whether vital or voluntary, both oxygen and hydrogen are consumed and lost, whilst heat and water are produced; and it is now understood that the chemical union of those principles generates water and disengages heat.

Let the student recollect, says our author, that in the ventricles of the brain he finds no coagulable lymph, but the purest water, which is therefore denominated roscid lymph by Boerhaave.

I have already stated, that the absorbents recover their tone merely by quiescence; but supposing the stimuli above stated are applied to any part of the system, the absorbents, agreeable to the laws of the animal œconomy, will be excited by sympathy; for it is observed, that irritation draws into consent the nearest exhalents, and the remote absorbents. The fact is certain, and the wisdom of this œconomy will be obvious to the student, if he call to mind the efforts of nature to relieve herself.

In support of these theoretical conjectures, the subsequent considerations are suggested.

1. A superabundant supply of hydrogen from fermented liquors received into the stomach, at first brightens all the faculties and gives increase of vigour, but speedily brings on intoxication followed by apoplectic sleep; but the inspiration of oxygenated air, stops the progress of intoxication, and therefore prevents apoplectic sleep.

2. We observe in crowded rooms, when candles burn dim for want of air, the human understanding is confused, all its powers are enfeebled; but the imagination kindles, when the lungs take in a fresh supply of well oxygenated air.

3. The inspiration of foul air in mines, whether hydrogenous, carbonic, or the two combined, brings on deep sleep and death; but by the admission of uncontaminated air the miners are speedily revived, and the same happens frequently in Spain to those who sit too long, or sleep in a close room with burning charcoal, which consumes the oxygen and discharges carbonic air.

4. Boerhaave has remarked, that in acute diseases, the blood is found chiefly in the arteries, while the veins are comparatively empty. For this phenomenon he in vain endeavours to account; but the cause is evidently this: the blood in all inflammatory fevers, being highly oxygenated, strongly stimulates the heart, and is therefore propelled into the arteries in great abundance, and quicker than the veins can receive it. But when highly oxygenated blood, as in acute diseases, such as synocha, pleuritis, and phrenitis, moves with rapidity through the system, and therefore in the vessels of the brain, vigilance, particularly in young subjects, sometimes continues night and

day for a whole week together. In such circumstances, as Boerhaave with his usual accuracy of discernment, well observed, their body has been rendered lighter by one third part of its weight, so that those who had been very fat, have been reduced almost to skeletons. See his lectures on the theory of physic, sections 599, 600.

In such circumstances, whilst the fever rages, the patient can rise up with ease and support himself in bed, but when the fever is exhausted, weak, and relaxed, he sleeps incessantly, or only awakes to take in more food, that is, to supply the lamp of life with hydrogen, then sleeps again.

The process of combustion being little understood, unless by modern chemists, it may be explained in the burning of a wax candle. You kindle twisted threads of cotton and thereby melt the wax; this being fluid is by capillary attraction, drawn up into the wick, and ascends into the part which is in flame, from whence it arises in the form of gas, and in that state, combining readily with the oxygen of the atmospheric air, composes aqueous vapour, which may be easily condensed, and sets at liberty both light and heat. A very elegant process of combustion, and at the same time a very simple one, may be seen by putting one drop of ether into a two ounce phial of oxygenated air, and kindling with a match. The combination is instantaneous; water is produced, and the light and heat are not inferior to those which are disengaged from detonating gold.

It is allowed that the blood, in its return towards the heart, has lost the oxygen which it had acquired in the lungs. What then is become of it? Surely it is not annihilated. The quantity derived from the air merely by breathing is considerable.

It is well known that both mental and muscular exertion, consume the fat; and it is well ascertained that whenever there is motion or any combination in the system, heat is generated; it is likewise proved by the experiments of Dr. Priestly, that oxygen will pass through the pores of membranes to unite with hydrogen.

Since then we have lost oxygen and hydrogen in great abundance, and acquired both heat and water, is it not probable that the oxygen, which disappeared, has formed a chemical union with hydrogen and produced the water, whilst at the same time heat has been evolved. The water thus continually formed is either taken up incessantly by the lymphatics, and conveyed back to the mass of circulating fluids, or passes out of the system by the exhalent arteries.

Whatever then becomes of these conjectures respecting the proximate cause of vigilance, it stands confessed, that the occasional causes are such as stimulate the system, and that from common watchfulness to furious raving, it bears proportion to the degree of excitement of the brain.

Dreaming is the intermediate state between vigilance and sleep, and may be considered here. It takes place usually towards the morning, and may be at any time excited by irritation in the system. It is the imperfect exercise of memory; and the impression may be either indifferent, or attended with joy, grief, hope, fear, desire, and volition.

The intensity of these affections depends on the degree of excitement in the brain, and this again will be in proportion to the irritability of the system and to the energy of the exciting cause, which cause may be either mental or material.

1. If during the day we have seen any thing uncommonly striking, al-

though not in the least interesting, as producing neither pain, pleasure, hope, nor fear; the image will, unless we sleep profoundly, be renewed by night. Spinosa relates of himself that from the time in which he first saw Brazilians seven feet high with long yellow hair, it made so strong an impression, that he had always the same image in his dreams, and could with difficulty free himself from it during the day.

2. The oftener this image is renewed, the more readily will it be excited in the mind; and by frequency of recurrence a regular habit will be established.

3. When the passions of joy, sorrow, hope, desire, fear, and terror, have been strongly excited in the day, the attendant images will present themselves in dreams by night. A lady of Montpellier, no sooner closed her eyes to sleep, than the image of her murdered husband, and the assassins sprinkled with his blood, were in the most vivid forms represented to her view.

4. Whatever image is by dreaming presented to the mind, is apt to associate others between which and it there is either natural or accidental connexion. Thus if a man dreams that he has been guilty of a crime, his imagination will represent constables pursuing, the judge pronouncing sentence, and the executioner fixing the halter on his neck.

There is a curious experiment, which shews a propensity in the system to renew whatever images have made a vivid impression on the sight.

If, when the sun shines bright, you look through a window at a landscape, fixing your eyes steadily on one spot, till vision is distressing, and till the view begins to fade, then gently close your eye-lids and put a hat before your face, the representation will alternately appear and vanish, and what is still more remark-

able, the image of the window-bars and of the nearest trees will be dark, whilst the sky appears to be either purple or light green; but whenever the hat is removed, and light is transmitted thorough the eye-lids, the bars of the window and the trees become red like edged with green, and the sky is dark. Even when the eyes have been for some time opened and engaged with other objects, on being closed again, all these appearances will be renewed.

When debility and irritability prevail in the extreme, the most trifling irritation will be sufficient to produce the recurrence of images, passions, sensations, and association of ideas; but in the more torpid it requires some powerful stimulus; and this may be either in the stomach or the brain itself.

The stomach is commonly the part in which we may seek the occasional cause of dreams; but whatever induces determination to the head, or quickens the circulation in the vessels of the brain, without producing vigilance, will have the same effect. Dr. Lower gives the case of one who slept soundly whilst his head was inclined forward, yet when his head fell back he was soon awakened with horrid dreams and tremors.

In this patient, after death, water was discovered in the ventricles of the brain.

VINCA MINOR. The systematic name of the lesser periwinkle. See *Vinca pervinca*.

VINCA PERVINCA. The lesser periwinkle. This plant *Vinca minor* of Linnæus, possesses bitter and adstringent virtues, and is said to be efficacious in stopping nasal hæmorrhages when bruised and put into the nose. Boiled it forms a useful adstringent gargle in common sore throat, and it is given by some in phthical complaints.

VINCETOXICUM, (*Vincetoxicum*,
3 M

i, n. from *vinco* to overcome, and *toxicum*, poison; so named from its supposed virtues of resisting and expelling poisons). *Hermidinaria*. *Asclepias*. Swallow wort. Tame poison. The root of this plant *Asclepias vincetoxicum* of Linnæus, smells when fresh somewhat of valerian; chewed it imparts at first a considerable sweetness which is soon succeeded by an unpleasant subacid bitterness. It is given in some countries in the cure of glandular obstructions.

VINE. See *Vitis*.

VINE, WHITE. See *Bryonia alba*.

VINE, WILD. See *Bryonia alba*.

VINEGAR. See *Acetum*.

VINEGAR, DISTILLED. See *Acetum distillatum*.

VINEGAR, SPIRITS OF. See *Acetic acid*.

VINUM. See *Wine*.

VINUM ALŎES. A stomachic purgative, calculated for the aged and phlegmatic, who are not troubled with the piles.

VINUM ANTIMONII. In small doses this proves alterative and diaphoretic, and a large dose emetic; in which last intention it is the common emetic for children.

VINUM ANTIMONII TARTARIZATI. This may be given in all cases where the tartar emetic is indicated.

VINUM FERRI. Steel wine is an useful form for administering the iron.

VINUM GENTIANÆ COMPOSITUM. A good stomachic bitter.

VINUM IPECACUANÆ. In small doses this preparation proves diaphoretic, and nauseates; in larger doses it is emetic.

VINUM NICOTIANÆ. Dropical diseases, obstinate affections of the skin and asthma, are said to be relieved by a judicious administration of this wine, which is narcotic and diuretic.

VINUM RHABARBARI. A stomachic, astringent and aperient.

VIŎLA, (*Viola*, *a*, f. from *Ion*; because it was first found in Ionia). *Violaria*. Sweet violet. *Viola odorata* of Linnæus. *Viola acaulis, foliis cordatis, stolonibus repentibus*. Class *Syngenesia*. Order *Monogynia*. The recent flowers of this plant are received into the catalogues of the *Materia Medica*. They have an agreeable sweet smell, and a mucilaginous bitterish taste. Their virtues are purgative or laxative, and by some they are said to possess an anodyne and pectoral quality. The officinal preparation of this flower is a syrup, which, to young children, answers the purpose of a purgative; it is also of considerable utility in many chemical inquiries, to detect an acid or an alkali; the former changing the blue colour to a red, and the latter to a green.

VIŎLA CANINA. The dog violet. The root of this plant, *Viola canina* of Linnæus, possesses the power of vomiting and purging the bowels; with which intention a scruple of the dried root must be exhibited. It appears, though neglected in this country, worthy of the attention of physicians.

VIŎLA IPECACUANHA. The plant which was supposed to afford the ipecacuanha root.

VIŎLA LUTĖA. The wall flower was so called. See *Cheiri*.

VIŎLA PALUSTRIS. See *Pinguicula*.

VIŎLA ODORATA. The systematic name of the sweet violet. See *Viola*.

VIŎLA TRICOLOR. Heartsease. Pansies. This well known beautiful little plant grows in corn fields, waste, and cultivated grounds, flowering all the summer months. It varies much by cultivation; and by the vivid colouring of its flowers often becomes

extremely beautiful in gardens, where it is distinguished by various names. To the taste, this plant in its recent state, is extremely glutinous, or mucilaginous, accompanied with the common herbaceous flavour and roughness. By distillation with water, according to Haase, it affords a small quantity of odorous essential oil, of a somewhat acrid taste. The dried herb yields about half its weight of watery extract, the fresh plant about one eighth. Though many of the old writers on the materia medica represent this plant as a powerful medicine in epilepsy, asthma, ulcers, scabies, and cutaneous complaints, yet the *viola tricolor* owes its present character as a medicine to the modern authorities of Starick, Metzger, Haase, and others, especially as a remedy for the *crusta lactea*. For this purpose, a handful of the fresh herb, or half a dram of it dried, boiled two hours in milk, is to be strained and taken night and morning. Bread, with this decoction, is also to be formed into a poultice and applied to the part. By this treatment it has been observed, that the eruption during the first eight days increases, and that the urine, when the medicine succeeds, has an odour similar to that of cats; but on continuing the use of the plant a sufficient time, this smell goes off, the scabs disappear, and the skin recovers its natural purity. Instances of the successful exhibition of this medicine, as cited by these authors, are very numerous; indeed this remedy, under their management, seems rarely, if ever, to have failed. It appears, however, that Murfinna, Akermann, and Fleming, were less fortunate in the employment of this plant; the last of whom declares, that in the different cutaneous disorders in which he used it, no benefit was derived. Haase, who administered this species of *vio-*

let in various forms, and large doses, extended its use to many chronic disorders; and from the great number of cases in which it proved successful, we are desirous of recommending it to a farther trial in this country.

It is remarkable that Bergius speaks of this plant as a useful mucilaginous purgative, and takes no notice of its efficacy in the *crusta lactea* or in any other disease.

VIOLARIA. See *Viola*.

VIOLET, DOG. See *Viola canina*.

VIOLET, SWEET. See *Viola*.

VIPER. See *Vipera*.

VIPER, GRASS. See *Scorzonera*.

VIPĒRA, (*Vipera*, *æ*, f. *quod vi pariat*; because it was thought that its young eat through the mother's bowels). The viper or adder. This viviparous reptile, *Coluber berus* of Linnæus, possesses the power of forming a poisonous fluid in little bags near its teeth. The flesh is perfectly innocent and often taken by the common people against the king's evil, and a variety of disorders of the skin. Experience evinces it to be an inefficacious substance.

VIPERARIA. See *Serpentaria virginiana*.

VIPERĪNA, (*Viperina*, *æ*, f. from *viper*, a snake; so called from the serpentine appearance of its roots). See *Serpentaria virginiana*.

VIPERĪNA VIRGINĒANA. See *Serpentaria virginiana*.

VIRGA AURĒA. *Herba aurea*. *Consolida saracenicæ*. Golden rod. The leaves and flowers of this plant, *Solidago virga aurea* of Linnæus, are recommended as aperients and corroborants in urinary obstructions, ulcerations of the kidneys and bladder, and cachexies.

VIRGINIAN TOBACCO. See *Nicotiana*.

VIRGINS BOWER, UPRIGHT. See *Flammula jovis*.

VIRGIN'S MILK. A solution of gum benzoinum.

VIRUS, (*Virus, i, n*). A synonym of contagion. See *Contagion*.

VIS ELASTICA. See *Vis Mortua*.

VIS INSITA, (*Vis, vis, f. pl. vires*). This property is defined by Haller to be that power by which a muscle, when wounded, touched, or irritated, contracts, independent of the will of the animal that is the object of the experiment, and without its feeling pain. See *Irritability*.

VIS MEDICATRIX NATURÆ. A term employed by physicians to express that healing power in an animated body, by which, when diseased, the body is enabled to regain its healthy actions.

VIS MORTUA. *Vis elastica.* That property by which a muscle after the death of the animal, or a muscle immediately after having been cut out from a living body, contracts.

VIS NERVOSA. This property is considered by Whytt to be another power of the muscles by which they act when excited by the nerves.

VISCUM, (*Viscum, i, n*). Mistletoe. *Viscum album* of Linnæus. This singular parasitical plant most commonly grows on apple-trees, also on the pear, hawthorn, service, oak, hawthorn, maple, ash, lime-tree, willow elm, horn-beam, &c. It is supposed to be propagated by birds, especially by the field fare and thrush, which feed upon its berries, the seeds of which pass through the bowels unchanged; and along with the excrement adhere to the branches of trees where they vegetate.

The mistletoe of the oak has, from the times of the ancient druids, been always preferred to that produced on other trees; but it is now well known that the *viscus quercus* differs in no respect from others.

This plant is the ξ of the Greeks,

and was in former times thought to possess many medicinal virtues; however, we learn but little concerning its efficacy from the ancient writers on the materia medica, nor will it be deemed necessary to state the extraordinary powers ascribed to the mistletoe by the crafty designs of druidical knavery. Both the leaves and branches of the plant have very little smell, and a very weak taste of the nauseous kind. In distillation they impregnate water with their faint unpleasant smell, but yield no essential oil. Extracts, made from them by water, are bitterish, roughish, and sub-saline. The spirituous extracts of the wood has the greatest austerity, and that of the leaves the greatest bitterness. The berries abound with an extremely tenacious and most ungrateful sweet mucilage.

The viscus quercus obtained great reputation for the cure of epilepsy; and a case of this disease, of a woman of quality, in which it proved remarkably successful, is mentioned by Boyle. Some years afterwards its use was strongly recommended in various convulsive disorders by Colbach, who has related several instances of its good effects. He administered it in substance in doses of half a dram, or a dram, of the wood or leaves, or an infusion of an ounce. This author was followed by others, who have not only given testimony of the efficacy of the mistletoe in different convulsive affections, but also in those complaints denominated nervous, in which it was supposed to act in the character of a tonic.

But all that has been written in favour of this remedy, which is certainly well deserving of notice, has not prevented it from falling into general neglect; and the colleges of London and Edinburgh have, perhaps not without reason, expunged it from their catalogues of the materia medica.

VISCUM ALBUM. The systematic name of the parasitical misletoe. See *Viscum*.

VISCUS, (*Viscus, eris, n.*) Any organ or part which has an appropriate use, as the viscera of the abdomen, &c.

VISION, (*Visus, us, m.*). See *Sight*.

VISION, DEFECTIVE.

VISUS DEFIGURATUS. See *Metamorphopsia*.

VITÆ ARBOR. See *Arbor vita*.

VITAL ACTIONS. See *Vital Functions*.

VITAL FUNCTIONS. Vital actions. Those actions of the body upon which life immediately depends, as the circulation of the blood, respiration, heat of the body, &c. See *Function*.

VITAL PRINCIPLE. See *Life*.

VITALBA. Travellers joy. This plant is common in our hedges and is the *Clematis vitalba*; *foliis pinnatis, foliolis cordatis scandentibus* of Linnæus: its leaves when fresh produce a warmth on the tongue, and if the chewing is continued, blisters arise. The same effect follows their being rubbed on the skin. The plant has been administered internally to cure *lues venerea*, *scrophula*, and *rheumatismus*. In France the young sprouts are eaten, when boiled, as hoptops are in this country.

VITILIGO, (*Vitiligo, inis, f.* from *vitio*, to infect). A disease of the skin. See *Alphus*.

VITIS, (*Vitis, is, f.*). *Vitis vinifera* of Linnæus. *Vitis foliis lobatis sinuatis nudis*. Class *Pentandria*. Order *Monogynia*. Vine leaves and the tendrils have an astringent taste, and were formerly used in diarrhœas, hæmorrhages, and other disorders requiring refrigerant and styptic medicines. The juice or sap of the vine, called lachryma, has been recommended in calculous

disorders; and it is said to be an excellent application to weak eyes and specks of the cornea. The unripe fruit has a harsh, rough, sour taste; its expressed juice, called verjuice, was formerly much esteemed, but is now superseded by the juice of lemons: for external use however, particularly in bruises and pains, verjuice is still employed, and considered to be a very useful application. See also *Uva passa*, *Wine*, and *Acetum*.

VITIS ALBA. The white bryony was so called. See *Bryonia alba*.

VITIS IDÆA. The red whortleberry. The leaves of this plant, *Vaccinium vitis idæa* of Linnæus, are so astringent as to be used in some places for tanning. They are said to mitigate the pain attendant on calculous diseases when given internally in the form of decoction. The ripe berries abound with a grateful acid juice; and are esteemed in Sweden as aperient, antiseptic, and refrigerant, and often given in putrid diseases.

VITIS VINIFERA. The systematic name of the grape tree. See *Vitis*, *Wine*, &c.

VITIX AGNUS CASTUS. The systematic name of the chaste tree. See *Agnus castus*.

VITREOUS HUMOUR. *Humor vitreus*. The pellucid body which fills the whole bulb of the eye behind the crystalline lens. The whole of the vitreous substance is composed of small cells which communicate with each other, and are distended with a transparent fluid.

VITRIOL, ACID OF. See *Sulphuric acid*.

VITRIOL ACID, ELIXIR OF. See *Elixir vitrioli acidum*.

VITRIOL, BLUE. See *Cuprum vitriolatum*.

VITRIOL, ELIXIR OF. See *Elixir vitriolum acidum*.

VITRIOL, GREEN. See *Ferrum vitriolatum*.

VITRIOL, ROMAN. See *Cuprum vitriolatum*.

VITRIOL, SPIRITS OF. See *Acidum sulphuricum dilutum*.

VITRIOL, SWEET ELIXIR OF. See *Elixir vitrioli dulcis*.

VITRIOL, SWEET SPIRIT OF. See *Spiritus ætheris vitriolici*.

VITRIOL, WHITE. See *Zincum vitriolatum*.

VITRIOLATED KALI. See *Kali vitriolatum*.

VITRIÖLUM, (*Vitriolum*, *i*, *n*. from *vitrum*, glass; so called from its likeness to glass. Hollandus says this word is fictitious, and composed from the initials of the following sentence: *Vade in terram rimando, invenies optimum lapidem veram medicinam*). Vitriol.

VITRIÖLUM ALBUM. See *Zincum vitriolatum*.

VITRIÖLUM CÆRULÆUM. See *Cuprum vitriolatum*.

VITRIÖLUM ROMANUM. See *Cuprum vitriolatum*.

VITRIÖLUM VIRIDE. See *Ferum vitriolatum*.

VITRUM ANTIMONII CERATUM. A diaphoretic compound exhibited in the cure of dysenteries arising from checked perspiration.

VOICE. The principal organ of the voice is the larynx; for, when it is injured, the air passes through the windpipe, without yielding any sound. By the larynx, we understand an assemblage of cartilages, joined into a hollow machine, which receives the air from the fauces, and transmits it into the windpipe, connected with it by ligaments and muscular fibres. Among the larger of these cartilages, the annular and scutiform in adults ossify internally. The anterior and larger part of the larynx, which lies almost immediately under the skin, is composed of two cartilages; the thyroid and cricoid, to which the lateral parts of the

larynx also belong in such a manner, that the portions of the cricoid cartilage always become larger, as they are higher seated. The back-part of the larynx is composed first of the said annular cartilage, and afterwards of the arytenoid cartilages, connected by muscles. The epiglottis, loosely connected with the thyroid cartilage, is either raised or inclined over the larynx. The vessels arise from the upper and lower thyroids; the nerves are numerous; the inferior ones come from the recurrents; the superior ones from the eighth pair, inosculating in various ways; some also from the intercostal. The former of these nerves is remarkable for its origin in the thorax; for its reflection round the aorta and right subclavian; for its giving rise to some of the nerves of the heart; and for the experiment, which proves, that the voice is destroyed, by tying this nerve.

All these cartilages are connected together by various muscles and ligaments, so that the whole may possess mobility, while some of its parts are firm, and others extremely moveable. The scutiform or thyroid cartilage, situated on the fore part, is composed of two, almost quadrangular, plates, inclined to each other in an obtuse angle, projecting forwards. In these plates, two apertures, one on each side for the internal vessels of the larynx, are found sometimes, though rarely. The upper processes of this cartilage, terminating in a thick point, inclining upwards and backwards, are connected with the horns of the os hyoides, by strong ligaments, sometimes mixed with bone. The lower processes are shorter, are adapted to the slightly hollowed, and almost flat surfaces of the cricoid cartilage: and are connected by a very firm articulation, on account of the shortness and strength of the cellular substance,

which unites them. The middle anterior part is joined by strong perforated ligaments, to the middle of the annular cartilage; and likewise by other superior ligaments, proceeding from the descending horn of the scutiform cartilage to the upper part of the annular cartilage.

The cricoid cartilage, anteriorly thick and hard, is increased backwards, in form of a ring unequally truncated; and, in the middle, it is divided into two cavities by a protuberant line. It is firmer than the rest of the cartilages, and forms their basis. From it longitudinal muscular fibres and ligaments descend to the windpipe. The pharynx connected with each of these cartilages by many muscular layers, receives the larynx into its cavity. From this cartilage a short ligament proceeds to the arytenoid cartilage on each side.

The figure of the two arytenoid cartilages is very complex. It spontaneously divides into two parts, of which the lower is larger, and is connected by a moderately concave base with the thick cricoid cartilage, forming a moveable articulation. It sends a process forwards, which separates the glottis, and sustains the inferior part of the ventricle of the larynx. They ascend upwards, of a triangular figure; the posterior base is hollow, and the anterior side is convex, and divided by three furrows. They are extenuated upwards, till they are at last terminated by a pretty thick, oval, cartilaginous head fixed on them. The lower part of these cartilages is connected by numerous muscular fibres, partly transverse, and partly oblique; of which the different directions are evident, though they cannot be separated. These are called the arytenoid muscles. In their upper part, the arytenoid cartilages are separated by a perpendicular chink, which has been improperly by some called the glottis.

The arytenoid cartilages are connected with the thyroid by transverse ligaments, for the most part sufficiently strong and elastic, but covered with the common mucous membrane of the larynx. These ligaments arise below the middle of the arytenoid cartilages, and are inserted into the flat angle of the thyroid cartilage, and may be separated from each other, by removing the arytenoid cartilages from being in mutual contact, and may be again brought into contiguity by the cartilages approaching each other. This constitutes the true glottis, and is continuous, but at right angles with the above mentioned chink.

From the same angle of the thyroid cartilage, under a notch, from a firm ligament, a cartilage arises, with an erect slender stalk, of an oval shape, convex before, behind concave, and with its superior extremity reflected backwards and concave. It is kept erect by its own elasticity, so that it rises upright behind the tongue; but it can be so inclined whenever the root of the tongue is pressed backward, that, having become transverse, it completely shuts up and protects the passage into the larynx, which descends between this, the epiglottis, and the arytenoid cartilages. The epiglottis is joined to the tongue by pale membranous fibres and to the os hyoides by much membranous expansion. It either has no fibres from the thyro-arytenoidal and arytenoidal muscles, or they are too minute to counteract its elasticity.

At the sides of the ligaments of the glottis, two other upper and softer ligaments, less tendinous or elastic, proceed parallel from each arytenoid cartilage to the thyroid. Betwixt these two ligaments of each side a peculiar cavity or ventricle descends, having the figure of a compressed parabolic space, extending

downwards betwixt the double membrane of the larynx, with its superior orifice, of an elliptic form, constantly open into the larynx.

Lastly, all the internal cavity of the larynx is lined with the same soft, irritable, mucous membrane, we before described in the windpipe. This membrane is moistened by a great number of glands. The uppermost are small, and composed of simple glands. They are seated on the anterior convex part of the epiglottis, and send prolongations through its various perforations and larger sinuses, to its concave side, which are there continued into similar firm glands. Moreover, upon the anterior furrowed surface of the arytenoid cartilages, there is on each side a gland, of a loose conglomerate fabric, resembling much a gnomon, composed of round acini, doubtless mucous, of which a loose portion descends on each side as far as the annular cartilage. In the ventricles, there are numerous mucous sinuses. Lastly, all the internal surface of the larynx is full of large mucous pores. All these glands secrete a thin and watery but at the same time, viscid mucous.

Has the thyroid gland any similar use? It is of the conglomerate kind, but soft, the coverings of the lobules being much more tender than in the salival glands; it is very large, is anteriorly seated upon the thyroid and cricoid cartilages and windpipe, surrounding with lateral productions the sides of the thyroid; is joined to its companion by an isthmus, which is narrow and emarginated below; and by a middle very thin process it ascends on the fore-part, almost to the os hyoides. This gland is full of a ferous, yellowish, and somewhat viscid humour. Does it discharge this fluid into the windpipe or into the œsophagus? Into neither. Are ducts certainly known to open? Does it retain its fluid entirely, and

afterwards restore it to the veins, like the thymus, which is analogous in its structure? Is it a conglobate gland? That the use of this gland is very considerable, appears from the remarkable size of the arteries which it receives from the carotids, and of its inferior ones from the subclavians. The veins return into the jugulars and subclavians. It has a peculiar muscle, not however constant, arising from the margin of the os hyoides, and sometimes from the lower edge of the thyroid cartilage towards the left, which descends without a fellow, and spreads its tendinous fibres over the gland, upon which also the sterno-hyoidei and sterno-thyroidei muscles are incumbent.

The whole larynx is suspended from the os hyoides, both by ligaments inserted into the superior horns of the thyroid cartilage, and by the middle of its basis, united to the junction of the plates, constituting that cartilage. The larynx, and os hyoides connected with it, may be raised considerably, even half an inch above its mean altitude. This is performed by the biverter muscles, together with the genio-hyoidei, genio-glossi, stylo-glossi, stylo-hyoidei, stylo-pharyngei, thyro-palatini, hyo-thyroidei; either conjunctly or partially. During its elevation, the glottis is rendered narrower, and the ligaments before mentioned approach nearer together. Thus, by the assistance of the action of the arytenoid muscles, both oblique and transverse, the glottis may be accurately closed, so as to resist with an incredible force the pressure of the whole atmosphere.

The whole larynx may also be depressed about half an inch beneath its ordinary situation, by the sterno-hyoidei, sterno-thyroidei, and coraco-hyoidei, as they are called: and, when these are in action, by the anterior and posterior crico-thyroidei. By this

motion the arytenoid cartilages remove from each other, and the glottis becomes wider, which is also drawn open by the muscles laterally inserted into the arytenoid cartilages, and by the crico-arytenoidei postici and laterales, and thyro-arytenoidei: these also, by resting upon the ventricles of the larynx, are capable of compressing them. The particular cartilages which form the larynx, can scarcely be moved separately.

From the larynx the air comes into the mouth and nostrils. By the mouth, we here mean that large and irregularly shaped cavity, situated between the soft and hard palates, both concave in the middle, and the muscles lying under them, and the lower jaw. The nostrils ascend forwards above the soft palate; they are two broad cavities, included between the septum medium, and the ossa caver-nosa, and some other parts. They are every where bony and cartilaginous.

The tongue lies in the middle of the mouth; it is a broad piece of flesh easily changeable into any kind of figure, and readily moved without delay to any part of the mouth: by its own fleshy fibres, and by the muscles attached either to itself or to the hyoides which is joined to it by many fleshy fibres and membranes, it may with great facility be made to assume any position or figure. It is drawn forwards by the genio-glossi and genio-hyoidei muscles; backwards, by the stylo-glossi, stylo-hyoidei, cerato-glossi, basio-glossi, chondro-glossi, and biventer; downwards, by the sterno-hyoidei and cerato-hyoidei: and upwards, by the stylo-glossi, stylo-hyoidei, by the biventers, and likewise by the mylo-hyoidei.

So much for the anatomy. It remains that we demonstrate what effects are produced by air, when expelled, during expiration, by the

powers above described, from the lungs through the windpipe into the larynx, and from thence forced through the glottis into the mouth variously configured. These effects are, voice, speech, and singing. Sound only is produced when the air is expelled with so great a velocity through the contracted glottis, that it impinges on the ligaments of the glottis and thus produces in the larynx that tremor, which, being vibratory on account of its elasticity, it continues and increases. Therefore, from the united vibrations of the ligaments and of the cartilages of the larynx, a sound is produced, which we call the voice, peculiar in every class of animals, and which depends entirely on the larynx and glottis. When there are no vibrations, a whisper is produced.

The strength of the voice depends upon the quantity of air expired, and the narrowness of the glottis; and therefore, upon capacious lungs easily dilatable, an ample, cartilaginous and elastic larynx and windpipe, the free resonance of the nostrils, and a powerful expiration. But the acuteness or gravity of the tones, we observe to arise from various causes. The former proceeds partly from the narrowness, and partly from the tension, of the glottis, and the latter from its relaxation and dilatation. For hence, the air, in a given time, impinges upon the ligaments of the contracted glottis with more numerous undulations, and causes more frequent vibrations; but when the glottis is dilated, the contrary of all this follows. And from the greater tension of the ligaments, the tremors in like manner become more numerous from the same stroke. Therefore to produce an acute sound, the whole larynx is drawn upwards and forwards; and with greater force as the voice is required to be sharper, inasmuch that the head itself is some-

times inclined backwards, that the muscles elevating the larynx may exert their full powers. The truth of this is confirmed by experiment; for by applying the fingers to the larynx when acute sounds are emitted the elevation of the larynx, which is about half an inch for the octave, is easily felt: and by comparative anatomy, which demonstrates the glottis to be very narrow and cartilaginous in singing birds, and wide in hoarse animals, and such as are low or are mute. This is also illustrated by whistling, where the sharpness of the sound evidently proceeds from the contraction of the mouth: and by musical instruments, in which the narrowness of the opening admitting the air, and the celerity with which it is impelled, are the causes of an acute tone.

Gravity of the voice is produced by opposite circumstances, the depression of the larynx by the causes already described; a wide glottis and a very ample larynx. This is proved by the touch, which easily perceives the descent of the larynx in persons singing, in like manner about half an inch for every octave; by the greater gravity of the voice in males, and by the lowest tones of the voice degenerating into a silent breathing.

Does every diversity of tone proceed from the length of the ligaments of the glottis, which is augmented when the scutiform cartilage is drawn forwards, and the arytenoid ones backwards? Is it according to this rule, that the most acute tones are produced, by the ligaments being rendered very tense, and therefore vibrating with great celerity? This is asserted by some late anatomists, from experiments, which have been also repeated by some eminent men; they have observed, that, when the chords or ligaments of the glottis are tense, the peculiar voice of every

kind of animal is produced by blowing air into its trachea: that this voice was rendered more acute by stretching the ligaments, and more grave by loosening them: that by shutting the whole ligament, the voice was suppressed; by shutting the half, the voice was rendered an octave higher; by shutting a third part, a fifth higher, &c. There are not wanting, however, doubts concerning this new theory, arising from the cartilaginous and bony, and consequently immoveable and inextensible, glottis of birds; from the certain production of more acute sounds, in whistling, from the mere contraction of the lips; from the example of women, in which the larynx is softer but the voice more acute, than in men; from experiments which shew, that more acute sounds are produced by bringing the ligaments of the glottis nearer into contact with each other; and from the total absence of machinery for stretching the ligaments, and drawing the thyroid cartilage forwards from the annular one. But since it appears from experiments, that the tension of the ligaments suffices for producing acute sounds, without the contraction of the glottis, it is probable that difference of tension in the glottis contributes more than a difference of its diameter to the diversity of voice.

Singing, is when the voice, modulated through various degrees of acuteness and gravity, is expelled through the larynx, while vibrating and suspended between contrary powers, which chiefly distinguishes it from speech. It is a labourious action, on account of the perpetual action of the muscles poising the larynx; and it increases the animal heat, because acute tones require a contracted glottis, which retards the expiration, and at the same time a great deal of air, to give them strength, and, therefore, deep inspirations are

necessary. It tends very much to dry the windpipe, from the accelerated passage of the air: and renders a great deal of mucus necessary, which is the reason why there are such numbers of mucous receptacles in the larynx, amongst which Haller suspects the ventricles before described ought to be numbered.

Speech is performed when the larynx is at rest, in tones differing but little in acuteness and gravity: by variously modifying the voice by the organs of the mouth. Sonorous speech has both variations in the tone, and modifications of the voice by the organs of the mouth.

All speech is reducible to the pronunciation of letters, which differ in various nations, although they agree in the greatest number over the whole world. Of these, some are called vowels, which are expressed by the mere emission of the voice through the mouth. But consonants are formed by a collision of the tongue against some part of the mouth, lips, or teeth. The nature of the work forbids us to be more particular, and prevents us from explaining a most ingenious art, which, a rare occurrence in physics, has so clearly determined all the corporeal causes of each letter, that by mere inspection and touch of the organs during their pronunciation, it has taught speech by imitation.

VOLVULUS, (*Volvulus*, *i*, m. from *volvo*, to roll up). See *Iliac passion*.

VOMER, (*Vomer*, *eris*, m. so called from its resemblance to a ploughshare). A bone of the nose situated in the cavity of the nostrils, which it divides into two parts.

VOMICA, (*Vomica*, *a*, f.). An abscess of the lungs.

VOMIC NUT. See *Nux vomica*.

VOMICA NUX. See *Nux vomica*.

VOMITING. A forceable ejection of food, or any other substance from the stomach, through the œsophagus and mouth. It is either *idiopathic* when arising from a cause in the stomach itself; or *symptomatic* when originating from diseases seated in any other part of the body. Its immediate cause is an antiperistaltic, spasmodical, convulsive constriction of the stomach, and pressure of the diaphragm, and abdominal muscles. It is an effort of nature to expel whatever molests or is troublesome in the stomach.

VOMITING OF BLOOD. See *Hæmatemesis*.

VOMITUS CRUENTUS. See *Hæmatemesis*.

VORACIOUS APPETITE. See *Bulimia*.

VULGAGO. The asarabacca was so called. See *Asarum*.

VULVA, (*Vulva*, *a*, f.). *Pudendum muliebre*. The parts of generation proper to women.

VULVARIA, (*Vulvaria*, *a*, f. from *vulva*, the womb; so named from its smell or use in disorders of the womb). See *Atriplex olida*.

W,

W A

WAKE ROBIN. See *Arum*.

WALLFLOWER. See *Cheiri*.

WALL PELLITORY. See *Parietaria*.

WALL PEPPER. See *Illecebra*.

WALNUT. See *Juglans*.

W A

WATER. *Aqua*. A transparent fluid without colour, smell, or taste; in every degree compressible; when pure, not liable to spontaneous change; liquid in the common temperature of our atmosphere, assum-

ing the solid form at 32° Fahrenheit, and the gaseous at 212° , but returning unaltered to its liquid state on resuming any degree of heat between these points; capable of dissolving a greater number of natural bodies than any other fluid whatever, and especially those known by the name of the saline; performing the most important functions in the vegetable and animal kingdoms, and entering largely into their composition as a constituent part.

Water, therefore, is found throughout the earth, not only in the uncombined states of ice, water, or steam, but permanently united to a vast number of bodies, both solid, fluid, and gaseous. For instance, the common air of the atmosphere and water are mutually soluble in each other; all natural waters containing air, and even that air which is apparently the driest, holding a portion of water in true solution. Again many solid minerals and all chrysalized neutral salts contain water in their composition, some of the latter to full half their weight; and by all these combinations water, in changing its form, loses many of its distinguishing properties.

Chemists have long been occupied in the important consideration, whether water be a simple elementary substance; and two or three totally different controversies have succeeded each other on this question. It was long since observed, even by Hippocrates, that all natural waters contain air, which is separable from them by heat or by freezing, and that, under particular circumstances, they all deposit a portion of earth. These events constantly occurring with every natural water as it springs from the soil, several ingenious men have imagined that earth and air were necessary constituent parts of perfect water, and have attempted to allot to each of them their pecu-

liar share in producing the various appearances of this fluid, and its effect on the human body: So Hoffman observes, that "water is composed of watery moisture, or water, properly so called, of a fluid expansive ether, and of earthy and saline particles." Assuming this composition as true, he goes on to assign the particular properties of each ingredient: "The ethereal part is the cause of the superior lightness, briskness, intestine motion, and exemption from putrefaction; the watery part, which is by far the greatest in quantity, is composed of very subtle and mobile particles, which insinuate into, and penetrate every substance capable of solution; whilst the earthy and saline matter is fixed, and will not rise in distillation. Hence too the quality of different waters must, according to this opinion, depend on the proportion of each ingredient.

The most salubrious waters are those which contain most of the ethereal particles, and are lighter than the others. They also heat and cool the soonest (heat being only the friction of the highly mobile ethereal parts upon each other), and hence the best waters, when shaken, shew numerous bubbles, like pearls, on the sides of the glass, and yield much ethereal spirit under the air pump. When more highly ethereal, they become acidulous, as the Seltzer and Pyrmont waters, and can with difficulty be restrained in bottles, and therefore are much more salubrious when drank at the fountain head. Hence these waters do not cool the body like common water, but increase the appetite and quicken the circulation. This ether is the universal spirit, the soul, as it were, of minerals. From the abundance of the aqueous parts, the integrity of the body is preserved, the vital juices attenuated, the extreme

vessels cleansed, and the morbid saline parts carried off by the excretories." This quotation selected from various passages in this celebrated German writer will give the reader some idea of the prevalent opinions at the time; and shew that considerable attention was paid to the gaseous bodies with which various waters are impregnated, but which were then thought to be too subtle for chemical examination, and were rather considered as essential parts of every water in the state of the highest perfection, encreasing its general salubrity as a common drink, as well as adding important medical powers. We shall presently shew the great acquisition to our knowledge on these subjects which modern chemistry has made, in distinguishing accurately the gaseous, earthy, and saline parts, from the purely aqueous, and explaining their nature and formation. The supposed conversion of water into earth, effected by the process of distillation often repeated, and independent of the acknowledged earthy residue of all natural waters, was another opinion much controverted at that time, which was apparently supported by very strong facts, and employed the skill, attention, and especially the patience, of many of the ablest chemists. A most exaggerated account of the quality of earth produced by distilling simple water a number of times successively, having been given to the world, supported by the great authority of Boyle, other chemists made various experiments to ascertain the truth of this report. The most accurate and important in support of this opinion, are those of the eminent Berlin chemist, Margraaff; he found that water, though purified by repeated distillations, if evaporated to dryness, always left a small earthy residuum. This amounted, after seventy-two distillations, to ten grains. But as

the earth thus obtained was mostly silicious, and was produced in greater quantity by violent boiling, than by a gentle heat, though the same quantity and kind of water in both cases was operated on, it was suspected, that the production of earth was entirely owing to the abrasion of the glass vessels in which the distillation was carried on. Accordingly, Lavoisier repeated the experiment with this view, and by weighing the vessel before and after the process, he found a loss of weight fully equal to that of the earth produced; and this explanation is now generally acquiesced in, and has long put an end to the controversy. Water had hardly been re-established on the list of elementary substances, before the important question of its decomposition, according to the opinion of modern chemistry, began to be agitated. It would be foreign from our present purpose to give any history of this interesting question, and the gradual advances which this opinion has made to an almost universal establishment among chemists of every country. Water is, according to this opinion, a compound fluid, made up of two substances, neither of which can be exhibited separately, except in the gaseous form; and when aeriform, they are known, the one as hydrogen gas, or inflammable air; the other as oxygen gas, or vital air. These gases, in the proportion of about three of hydrogen to eleven of oxygen, when united chemically, and reduced from the form of an air to that of a liquid, constitute the fluid, water.

It is to be observed, however, that this circumstance of the composition of water, has very little concern with the chemical knowledge of mineral waters. None of the methods of examining these waters appear in any notable degree to re-

duce simple water to its original elements, but only to separate from it the foreign contents of every description, to which it combines while flowing under the surface of the earth; no process of obtaining the adventitious gases of natural waters seem to decompose any part of this fluid, but, in all chemical enquiries connected with the analysis of mineral springs, the aqueous principle may be generally considered as acting merely as water, at least in the present state of our chemical knowledge. The principal facts, to the explanation of which the decomposition of water has materially assisted, are various circumstances in the solution and oxydation of metallic bodies; several of the most important changes that take place in the vegetable kingdom, such as that of their giving out oxygen gas in sunshine; the formation of oils, resins, and other inflammable bodies during their growth; the conversion of sugar into ardent spirit during fermentation; and the ultimate analysis by the process of spontaneous putrefaction. It still remains for chemistry to determine whether the decomposition of water performs any material part in the changes that are going on in the living animal. It is certainly by no means an improbable conjecture, since the materials of animal bodies are such as are peculiarly liable to change, and especially as the process of animal putrefaction is supposed to be principally brought about by the decomposition of water assisted by a moderate temperature, and therefore the same materials under the same circumstances of heat, may possibly undergo somewhat of a similar decomposition even during animal life. As this subject, however, is entirely confined to the regions of conjecture, and not connected with our present enquiries, we shall take no further

notice of the ultimate decomposition of water.

Of all the classes of natural bodies there are none, into which water enters so largely as a constituent part, as those of the vegetable and animal kingdoms. These are peculiarly distinguished, in a chemical view, from the mineral kingdom, by possessing a structure remarkably liable to decomposition, and in which the quiescent affinities are never so adjusted, that the constituent parts of their bodies can, for a moment during life, remain at rest without forming new compounds. Most minerals will continue for ages unaltered, when protected from external chemical agents; but an animal or vegetable is at no two periods precisely the same. This restlessness of composition is owing to two circumstances; the one, that of possessing materials highly liable to change; the other, the perpetual internal motion and reaction of parts produced by their peculiar organization. This organization, which is more or less complex in different parts and various classes, consists in all of a system of cylindrical vessels generally ramifying into minute branches and of a fluid which is constantly circulating within these vessels. Then, as all the solids are formed by decomposition from the circulating fluids, and, when rendered unfit for performing their functions, or noxious to the body, are removed by means of the fluids, it is necessary that the latter should be capable of holding in solution, or at least suspending, all the materials of which the solids are composed. This, therefore, leads to one important property in water, that of being the basis of all the fluids that are perpetually circulating through every tube of every organized and living animal or vegetable.

It would be a most valuable discovery if we were able to ascertain the precise degree of solubility of the various materials of the circulating fluid in the water which holds them suspended, and the extent to which simple chemical affinities would act independently of the circumstance of life, which appears to produce regular and important changes in a manner, and according to laws, to the explanation of which natural philosophy is inadequate. Something, however, of the chemical constitution of the fluids of the animal body we are already acquainted with, and these facts illustrate the high importance of the aqueous fluid, and the large share which it supplies of all the circulating juices. Thus we know, that the blood is a very compound liquid, consisting of animal gluten or the coagulum; of red globules, the nature of which we are but little acquainted with; of animal albumen, which is separable from the serum by heat; of animal gelly, which is easy of solution; of a number of salts of the muriatic and phosphoric kinds; but lastly and chiefly, of a very large quantity of water, which enables the other contents to assume the fluid state, and to circulate freely through very minute canals. This quantity varies at different times, but, on an average, is estimated by Haller at nearly three fourths, or as 90 to 128, or sometimes 103 to 128. Not only the quantity of the respective contents varies, but probably the state of the ingredients and the circumstances of solution. So it is found that the proportion of coagulum is greater in the robust high-fed persons, than in the weakly and ill-fed, and greater in general in the warm than in the cold blooded animals. The proportional quantity of salts has not been so well ascertained, attention having been rather paid to

their sensible or supposed qualities, such as those of acrimony, alcalescence, and the like.

The circumstances of solution deserve some notice in a chemical point of view. Of the contents of the blood, some, such as gelly and saline matter, are easily soluble in water; others, such as albumen and gluten, probably with much more difficulty; and the latter is rather suspended than truly dissolved, as it coagulates when at rest even in the body, as Mr. Hewson has observed, and without diminution of temperature or exposure to air. This property the same ingenious physiologist found to be retarded by the violent action of circulation, and thus satisfactorily explained the buffy coat on inflamed blood which had been erroneously imputed to inspissation from a loss of the watery parts.

Water is that part of the blood which appears to be the least animalized whilst performing the round of circulation, the loss of which seems to be the easier to bear, and to admit of the readiest supply; but, as there is an ample provision in the excretions for carrying off whatever portion of this fluid is superfluous, we may reasonably suppose that there is little danger, in health at least, of an excess in this most innocent of all the ingesta.

The two most abundant excretions are the perspiration and urine, and in these the aqueous ingredient predominates still more than in the circulating mass. Insensible perspiration is little else than pure water, with a very minute quantity of salt, and still less of animal matter, so little indeed, as only to be detected by the smell. The liquor that moistens the cavities of the body is nearly of the same nature. The animal matter appears to increase when the

perspiration becomes violent and sensible, and the odour proportionally stronger, and often of a very peculiar kind. The obvious uses of this copious excretion seem to be, not only to remove a superabundance of water from the system, but especially, by carrying it off in a gaseous form, to constitute the great cooling process, and thus keep in proper check the production of heat by the lungs. In the copious excretion of urine, the proportion of water, though less than in the former case, is still very great. It is calculated by Haller at about $\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{4}{5}$, and it appears to have regular variations according to the previous diet, the time which this secretion requires in forming, and the frequency of discharging. Our chemical knowledge of the other ingredients is still very imperfect, but they seem to be more various and peculiar than those of any other natural secretion. No other, likewise, shews such a total diseased change in chemical composition, as that which occurs during succharine diabetes.

On the whole, it is probable that the purely chemical properties, which water exercises when forming a constituent part of the animal fluids, may depend on the proportion it bears to the other ingredients, or the degree of temperature, and force of action to which the whole has been exposed, which will increase or diminish the true solvent power of this liquid, and possibly too on the order in which the other contents have been presented to it. This last circumstance has been but little attended to by physiologists, and yet, as we must suppose that the laws of chemical affinity are not entirely superseded by the living powers, it is certainly probable that the order of solution of the different contents of the common animal fluid may, in some degree,

affect the respective proportion of the substances dissolved.

It is not only in the animal, and still more in the vegetable fluids, that water appears the most abundant ingredient, but even the solids of both these natural productions are found, when disorganized, to have been composed most largely of aqueous fluid, but altered in its texture and deprived of its property of fluidity by the union of a very small portion of other matter, assisted by the gradual process of growth and evolution from an organized body. The experiments of Van Helmont, Tillet, and others, have abundantly proved, that by far the greater part of the nutrition of vegetables is the water which they absorb from the earth through the pores of their roots, and that, by submitting them to distillation, they are again resolvable, for the most part, in water. Some plants contain much more of this fluid than others; the aquatic more than those that grow on a dry soil, and in general all young plants more than those that are advanced in growth. The solid wood of trees is indeed composed of a considerable quantity of carbonaceous, earthy, and saline matter, and this is increasing with age; but even the driest and most compact wood, such as the heart of oak, when converted into charcoal, loses during the process full three fourths of its weight, which is almost entirely pure water. The willow and other aquatic trees, though their wood exhibits a pretty firm texture, contain only about a fourteenth part of their weight of solid matter, all the rest being resolvable into water. Grass loses, in drying into hay, about two thirds of its weight; and even the driest hay, if submitted to distillation, yields two thirds of its weight of pure water. As the animal solids are all formed out of vegetable mat-

ter directly or indirectly, we might conclude *a priori* that the aqueous fluid, the principal component part of vegetables, would also enter largely into the composition of animal substance, and this is found to be the case by actual experiment.

It appears to be a distinguishing mark of organic matter, that in it a vast proportion of mere water is capable of being so intimately united with other substances as to lose that fluidity which, in its uncombined state, it assumes at a temperature above the freezing point, and of giving that peculiar elasticity, flexibility, and cohesion, which are so necessary to a body that is to possess the powers of locomotion, or at least to be furnished with a system of vessels in which a constant re-action of parts and perpetual internal movements are going on, without destroying that juxtaposition which is necessary to an organic structure. A mineral, a simple saline body, or, in short, any substance that is not an immediate constituent part of an animal or vegetable, is scarcely ever susceptible of any intermediate state between the solid and the fluid texture produced by an union with any proportion of liquid menstruum; a chrystal of Glauber's salt, for instance, though it contains half its weight of water, is neither flexible nor elastic; and if heated, it passes immediately into the state of solution, owing to the increased solvent power of its water of chrySTALLIZATION; but the glutinous part of wheat flour, though dry and pulverulent, no sooner comes into contact with water, than it absorbs a part, becomes thereby highly ductile and tenacious, and even refuses to unite with an additional quantity of the same fluid, except by the assistance of a degree of heat, which entirely alters its original properties. If, therefore, we consider water, either

as the principal solvent for all the alimentary matter which the animal body perpetually receives from without, or as the basis of all the secretions and excretions that perform particular functions, or as a large constituent part of the solids of every denomination; if we survey its agency as diffused through every tube of the complicated system of an organized body, or condensed into firm or flexible fibres, we shall have no hesitation in allowing it a high place among those important, but simple materials, out of which is formed the curious and interesting structure of every animated being.

There is a great variety of waters employed in the preparation of food, in manufactures, and domestic purposes, where the object is to use a simple pure water; and all the foreign matter which the liquid may contain, is considered as detrimental, or, at best, useless. Some notice of these is requisite on account of the abundant daily use which we make of them; and the various substances which they contain should be noticed, as they here constitute mere impurities, some of which are innocent, others prejudicial; some may be got rid of by simple methods, others can only be removed by chemical processes which can seldom be adopted for common use. As the standard of perfectly pure water, we must have recourse to that which is artificially purified by distillation; for every natural water contains some foreign ingredients; and the excellence of these waters is directly in proportion as it approaches in properties to that which is distilled.

1. *Distilled water.* This is the lightest of all others, containing neither solid nor gaseous substances in solution, is perfectly void of taste and smell, colourless and beautifully transparent, has a soft feel, and wets the fingers more readily than any

other. It mixes uniformly with soap into a smooth opaline mixture, but may be added to a solution of soap in spirit of wine without injuring its transparency. The clearness of distilled water is not impaired by the most delicate chemical re-agents, such as lime water, a solution of barytes in any acid, nitrated silver, or acid of sugar. When evaporated in a silver vessel it leaves no residuum; if preserved from access of foreign matter floating in the air, it may be kept for ages unaltered in vessels upon which it has no action, as it does not possess within itself the power of decomposition. As it freezes exactly at 32° of Fahrenheit and boils at 212° under the atmospheric pressure of 29.8° inches, these points are made use of as the standard ones for their mometrical division; and its specific weight being always the same under light pressure and temperature, it is employed for the comparative standard of specific gravity.

Pure distilled water can only be procured from water which contains no volatile matters that will rise in distillation, and continue still in union with the vapour when condensed. Many substances are volatile during distillation, but most of the gases, such as common air, carbonic acid, and the like, are incapable of uniting with water at a high temperature: other bodies, however, such as vegetable essential oil, and in general, much of that which gives the peculiar odour to vegetable and animal matter, will remain in water after distillation. So the steam of many animal and vegetable decoctions has a certain flavour which distinguishes it from pure water; and the aqueous exhalation from living bodies, which is a kind of distillation, has a similar impregnation.

To obtain distilled water perfectly pure, much stress was laid by former

chemists on repeating the process a great number of times; but it was found by Lavoisier, that rain water once distilled, rejecting the first and last products, was as pure a water as could be procured by any subsequent distillations.

Distilled water appears to possess a higher power than any other as a solvent of all animal and vegetable matter, and these it holds in solution as little as possible altered from the state in which they existed in the body that yielded them. Hence the great practical utility of that kind of chemical analysis which presents the proximate constituent parts of these bodies, and which is effected particularly by the assistance of pure water. On the other hand, a saline, earthy, or otherwise impure water, will alter the texture of some of the parts, impair their solubility, produce material changes on the colouring matter, and become a less accurate analyser on account of the admixture of foreign contents.

Distilled water is seldom employed to any extent in the preparation of food, or in manufactures, on account of the trouble of procuring it in large quantities; but for preparing a great number of medicines, and in almost every one of the nicer chemical processes that are carried on in the liquid way, this water is an essential requisite. The only cases in which it has been used largely as an article of drink, have been in those important trials made of the practicability of procuring it by condensing the steam of sea water by means of a simple apparatus adapted to a ship's boiler; and these have fully shewn the ease with which a large quantity of fresh water of the purest kind, may be had at sea, at a moderate expence; whereby one of the most distressing of all wants may be relieved. There are one or two circumstances which seem to shew

that water, when not already loaded with foreign matter, may become as solvent for concretions in urinary passages. At least, we know that very material advantage has been derived in these cases from very pure natural springs, and hence a course of distilled water has been recommended as a fair subject of experiment.

2. *Rain Water*, is the next in purity to distilled water, is that which has undergone a natural distillation from the earth, and is condensed in the form of rain. This is a water so nearly approaching to absolute purity as probably to be equal to distilled water for every purpose except in the nicer chemical experiments. The foreign contents of rain water appear to vary according to the state of the air through which it falls. The heterogeneous atmosphere of a smoky town will give some impregnation to rain as it passes through, and this, though it may not be at once perceptible on chemical examination, will yet render it liable to spontaneous change; and hence, rain water, if long kept, especially in hot climates, acquires a strong smell, becomes full of animalcula, and in some degree putrid. According to Margraaff, the constant foreign contents of rain water appear to be some traces of the muriatic and nitric acids; but as this water is always very soft, it is admirably adapted for dissolving soap, or for the solution of alimentary or colouring matter, and it is accordingly used largely for these purposes. The specific gravity of rain water is so nearly the same as that of distilled water, that it requires the most delicate instruments to ascertain the difference. Rain, that falls in towns, requires a small quantity of sulphat of lime and calcareous matter from the mortar and plaister of the houses.

3. *Ice and Snow Water*. This equals rain water in purity, and, when fresh melted contains no air, which is expelled during freezing. In cold climates and in high latitudes, thawed snow forms the constant drink of the inhabitants during winter; and the vast masses of ice which float on the polar seas afford an abundant supply to the mariner. It is well known, that in a weak brine, exposed to a moderate freezing cold, it is only the watery part that congeals, leaving the unfrozen liquor proportionably stronger of the salt. The same happens with a dilute solution of vegetable acids, with fermented liquors, and the like; and advantage is taken of this property to reduce the saline part to a more concentrated form. Snow water has long lain under the imputation of occasioning those stumous swellings in the neck which deform the inhabitants of many of the Alpine vallies; but this opinion is not supported by any well authenticated indisputable facts, and is rendered still more improbable, if not entirely overturned, by the frequency of the disease in Sumatra, where ice and snow are never seen, and its being quite unknown in Chili and in Thibet, though the rivers of these countries are chiefly supplied by the melting of the snow, with which the mountains are covered.

4. *Spring Water*. Under this comprehensive class are included all waters that spring from some depth beneath the soil, and are used at the fountain head, or at least before they have run any considerable distance exposed to the air. It is obvious that spring water will be as various in its contents as the substances that compose the soil through which it flows. When the ingredients are not such as to give any peculiar medical or sensible properties, and the water is used for common purposes, it is dis-

tinguished as a hard or soft spring, sweet or brackish, clear or turbid, and the like. Ordinary springs insensibly pass into mineral springs, as their foreign contents become more notable and uncommon; though sometimes waters have acquired great medical reputation for mere purity.

By far the greater number of springs are cold; but as they take their origin at some depth from the surface and below the influence of the external atmosphere, their temperature is, in general, pretty uniform during every vicissitude of season, and always several degrees higher than the freezing point. Others, again, arise constantly hot, or with a temperature always exceeding the summer heat; and the warmth possessed by the water is entirely independent of that of the atmosphere, and varies little winter or summer.

One of the principal inconveniences in almost every spring water, is its hardness, owing to the presence of earthy salts, which, in by far the greater number of cases, are only the insipid substances, chalk and selenite, which do not impair the taste of the water; whilst the air which it contains, and its grateful coolness, render it a most agreeable, and generally a perfectly innocent, drink; though sometimes, in weak stomachs, it is apt to occasion an uneasy sense of weight in that organ followed by a degree of dyspepsia. The quantity of earthy salts varies considerably; but, in general, it appears that the proportion of five grains of these in the pint will constitute a hard water, unfit for washing with soap, and for many other purposes of household use or manufactures. The water of deep wells is always, *ceteris paribus*, much harder than that of springs which overflow their channel; for much agitation and exposure to air produce a gradual depo-

sition of the calcareous earth; and hence spring water often incrusts to a considerable thickness the inside of any kind of tube through which it flows, as it arises from the earth. The specific gravity of these waters is also, in general, greater than that of any other kind of water, that of the sea excepted. Springs that overflow their channel, and form to themselves a limited bed, pass insensibly into the state of stream, or river water, and become thereby altered in some of their chemical properties.

5. *River Water.* This is in general much softer and more free from earthy salts than the last, but contains less air of any kind; for, by the agitation of a long current, and in most cases a great increase of temperature, it loses common air and carbonic acids, and with this last, much of the lime which it held in solution. The specific gravity thereby becomes less, the taste not so harsh, but less fresh and agreeable, and out of a hard spring is often made a stream of sufficient purity for most of the purposes where a soft water is required. Some streams, however, that arise from a clean siliceous rock, and flow in a sandy or stony bed; are from the outset remarkably pure. Such are the mountain lakes and rivulets in the rocky districts of Wales, the source of the beautiful waters of the Dee, and numberless other rivers that flow through the hollow of every valley. Switzerland has long been celebrated for the purity and excellence of its waters, which pour in copious streams from the mountains; and give rise to some of the finest rivers in Europe. An excellent observer and naturalist, the illustrious Haller, thus speaks of the Swiss waters, “vulgaribus aquis Helvetiae super omnes fere Europae regiones excellit. Nusquam liquidas illas

aquas & crystalli simillimas se mihi obtulisse memini postquam ex Helvetia excessi. Ex scopulis enim nostræ per puros filices percolatæ nulla terra vitiantur." Some of them never freeze in the severest winter, the cause of which is probably, as Haller conjectures, that they spring at once out of a subterraneous reservoir so deep as to be out of the reach of frost, and during their short course when exposed to day they have not time to be cooled down from 53°, their original temperature, to below the freezing point.

Some river waters, however, that do not take their rise from a rocky soil, and are indeed at first considerably charged with foreign matter, during a long course, even over a rich cultivated plain, become remarkably pure as to saline contents, but often fouled with mud, and vegetable or animal exuvia, which are rather suspended than held in true solution. Such is that of the Thames, which, taken up at London at low water, is a very soft and good water, and, after rest and filtration, it holds but a very small portion of any thing that could prove noxious or impede any manufacture. It is also excellently fitted for sea store; but it here undergoes a remarkable spontaneous change. No water carried to sea becomes putrid sooner than that of the Thames. When a cask is opened after being kept a month or two, a quantity of inflammable air escapes, and the water is so black and offensive as scarcely to be borne. Upon racking it off, however, into large earthen vessels (oil jars are commonly used for the purpose), and exposing it to the air, it gradually deposits a quantity of black slimy mud, becomes clear as crystal, and remarkably sweet and palatable. The Seine has as high a reputation in France, and appears from accurate experiments to be a river of great

purity. It might be expected that a river which has passed by a large town, and received all its impurities, and been used by numerous dyers, tanners, hatters, and the like, that croud to its banks for the convenience of plenty of water, should thereby acquire such a foulness as to be very perceptible to chemical examination for a considerable distance below the town; but it appears from the most accurate examination that where the stream is at all considerable, these kinds of impurity have but little influence in permanently altering the quality of the water, especially as they are for the most part only suspended and not truly dissolved; and, therefore, mere rest, and especially filtration, will restore the water to its original purity. Probably, therefore, the most accurate chemist would find it difficult to distinguish water taken up at London, from that procured at Hampton Court, after each has been purified by simple filtration.

6. *Stagnated Waters.* The waters that present the greatest impurities to the senses, are those of stagnant pools and low marshy countries. They are filled with the remains of animal and vegetable matter undergoing decomposition, and, during that process, becoming in part soluble in water, thereby affording a rich nutriment to the succession of living plants and insects which is supplying the place of those that perish. From the want of sufficient agitation in these waters, vegetation goes on undisturbed, and the surface becomes covered with converva and other aquatic plants; and as these standing waters are in general shallow, they receive the full influence of the sun, which further promotes all the changes that are going on within them. The taste is generally vapid, and destitute of that freshness and agreeable coolness

which distinguish spring water. However, it should be remarked, that stagnant waters are generally soft, and many of the impurities are only suspended, and therefore separable by filtration; and perhaps the unpalatableness of this drink has caused it to be in worse credit than it deserves, on the source of salubrity. The decidedly noxious effects produced by the air of marshes and stagnant pools, have been often supposed to extend to the internal use of these waters; and often, especially in hot climates, a residence near these places has been as much condemned on one account as on the other, and, in like manner, an improvement in health has been as much attributed to a change of water as of air.

WATER-BRASH. See *Pyrosis*.

WATER-CRESS. See *Nasturtium aquaticum*.

WATER-DOCK. See *Hydrolapathum*.

WATER-FLAG, YELLOW. See *Iris palustris*.

WATER-GERMANDER. See *Scordium*.

WATER-HEMP. See *Eupatorium*.

WATER LILLY, WHITE. See *Nymphaea alba*.

WATER LILLY, YELLOW. See *Nymphaea lutea*.

WATER PARSNIP. See *Sium*.

WATER ZIZANIA. A reed like plant, *zizania aquatica* of Linnæus, which grows in the swampy parts of Jamaica and Virginia. The Indians are exceedingly fond of its grain, and account it more delicious than rice.

WATERS MINERAL. See *Mineral waters*.

WAX. See *Cera*.

WHEAT. The seeds of the *Triticum hybernum*, and *aestivum* of Linnæus, are so termed. It is to these plants therefore we are indebted for

our bread, and the various kinds of pastry. Wheat is first ground between mill stones, and then sifted to obtain its farina or flour. The flour of wheat may be separated into its three constituent parts, in the following manner. The flour is to be kneaded into a paste with water in an earthen vessel, and the water continue pouring upon it from a cock which, as it falls upon the paste, takes up from it a very fine white powder, by means of which it acquires the colour and consistency of milk. This process is to be continued till the water run off clear, when the flour will be separated into three distinct parts. 1. A grey elastic matter that sticks to the hand, and on account of its properties has gained the name of the glutinous, or aegeto-animal part. 2. A white powder which falls to the bottom of the water, and is the *faculum* or starch. 3. A matter which remains dissolved in the water, and seems to be a sort of mucilaginous extract.

Flour from whatever species of corn obtained, is likewise disposed to vinous fermentation, on account of its saccharine contents, the aptitude for fermentation of these mealy seeds increases if they be first converted into malt; inasmuch as by this process, the gluten which forms the germ is separated, and the starchy part appears to be converted into saccharine matter. The making of malt, for which purpose barley and wheat are generally chosen is as follows: The grains are put in the malling tub, and immersed in cold water, in a temperate and warm season, changing this fluid several times, especially in hot weather, and they are thus kept soaking till they be sufficiently soft to the touch. Upon this they are piled up in heaps on a roomy, clean, airy floor, where, by the heat spontaneously taking place,

the vegetation begins and the grains germinate. To cause the germination to go on uniformly, the heaps are frequently turned. In this state the vegetation is suffered to continue till the germs have about $\frac{2}{3}$ or $\frac{3}{4}$ of the length of the corn. It is carried too far when the leafy germs have begun to sprout.

For this reason limits are set to the germination by drying the malt, which is effected by transferring it to the kiln, or by spreading it about in spacious airy lofts. Dried in the last way it is called air dried malt, in the first kiln malt. In drying this latter care must be taken that it does not receive a burnt smell, or be in part converted into coal.

From this malt, beer is made by extraction with water and fermentation.

With this view a quantity of malt freed from its germs, and sufficient for one intended brewing, is coarsely bruised by grinding, and in the mash tub first well mixed with some cold, then scalded with hot water drawn upon it from the boiler. It is afterwards strongly and uniformly stirred. When the whole mass has stood quietly for a certain time, the extract, (mash), or sweet wort, is brought into the boiler, and the malt remaining in the tub is once more extracted by infusion with hot water.

This second extract treated in like manner, is added to the first, and both are boiled together.

This clear decoction is now drawn off, and called boiled wort. To make the beer more fit for digestion, and at the same time to deprive it of its too great and unpleasant sweetness, the wort is mixed with a decoction of hops, or else these are boiled with it. After which it ought to be quickly cooled, to prevent its transition into acetous fermentation, which

would ensue, if it were kept too long in a high temperature.

On this account the wort is transferred into the cooler, where it is exposed with a large surface to cold air, and from this to the fermenting tub, that by addition of a sufficient portion of rescent yeast it may begin to ferment. When this fermentation has proceeded to a due degree, and the yeast ceases to rise, the beer is conveyed into casks (casked), placed in cool cellars, where it finishes its fermentation, and where it is well kept and preserved, under the name of barrelled beer, with the precaution of filling up occasionally the vacancy caused in the vessels by evaporation; or the beer is bottled before it has done fermenting, and the bottles are stopped a little before the fermentation is completely over. By so doing the bottled beer is rendered sparkling. In this state it frequently bursts the bottles, by the disengagement of the carbonic acid gas which it contains, and it strongly froths, like Champaign, when brought into contact of air on being poured into another vessel.

Beer well prepared should be limpid and clear, possess a due quantity of spirit, and excite no disagreeable sweet taste, and contain no disengaged acid. By these properties it is a species of vinous beverage, and is distinguished from wine, in the strict sense, and other liquors of that kind, by the much greater quantity of mucilaginous matter which it has received by extraction from the malted grains, but which also makes it more nourishing. Brown beer derives its colour from malt strongly roasted in the kiln, and its bitterish taste from the hops. Pale beer is brewed from malt dried in the air, or but slightly roasted, with but little or no hops at all.

WHEAT, BUCK. See *Buck wheat*.

WHEAT, EASTERN BUCK. See *Buck wheat eastern.*

WHEAT, INDIAN. See *Zea mays.*

WHEAT, TURKEY. The turkey wheat is a native of America, where it is much cultivated, as it is also in some parts of Europe, especially in Italy and Germany. There are many varieties, which differ in the colour of the grain, and are frequently raised in our gardens by way of curiosity, whereby the plant is well known. It is the chief bread corn in some of the southern parts of America, but since the introduction of rice into Carolina, it is but little used in the northern colonies. It makes a main part too of the food of the poor people in Italy and Germany. This is the sort of wheat mentioned in the book of Ruth, where it is said that Boaz treated Ruth with parched ears of corn dipped in vinegar. This method of eating the roasted ears of Turkey wheat is still practised in the East; they gather in the ears when about half ripe, and having scorched them to their minds, eat them with as much satisfaction as we do the best flour bread.

In several parts of South America, they parch the ripe corn, never making it into bread but grinding it between two stones, mix it with water in a calabash, and so eat it. The Indians make a sort of drink from this grain, which they call bici. This liquor is very windy and intoxicating, and has nearly the taste of four small beer: but they do not use it in common, being too lazy to make it often, and therefore it is chiefly kept for the celebration of feasts and weddings, at which times, they mostly get intolerably drunk with it. The manner of making this precious beverage, is to steep a parcel of corn in a vessel of water, till it grows sour, then the

old women, being provided with calabashes for the purpose, chew some grains of the corn in their mouths, and spitting it into the calabashes empty them spittle and all into the four liquor, having previously drawn off the latter into another vessel.

The chewed grain soon raises a fermentation, and when this ceases, the liquor is let off from the dregs, and set by till wanted. In some of the islands in the South Sea, where each individual is his own lawgiver, it is no uncommon thing for a near relation to excuse a murderer, for a good drunken bout of ciri.

WHITES. The vulgar name for a *fluor albus*. This disease is marked by the discharge of a thin white or yellow matter from the uterus and vagina, attended likewise with some degree of fœtor, smarting in making water, pains in the back and loins, anorexia and atrophy. In some cases, the discharge is of so acrid a nature, as to produce effects on those who are connected with the woman, somewhat similar to venereal matter, giving rise to excoriations about the glans, penis, and preputium, and occasioning a weeping from the urethra.

To distinguish leucorrhœa from gonorrhœa, it will be very necessary to attend to the symptoms. In the latter; the running is constant, but in a small quantity; there is much ardor urine, itching of the pudenda swelling of the labia, increased inclination to venery, and very frequently an enlargement of the gland in the groin; whereas in the former the discharge is irregular, comes away often in large lumps, and in considerable quantities, and is neither preceded by, nor accompanied with any inflammatory affection of the pudenda.

Immoderate coition, injury done to the parts by difficult and tedious labours, frequent miscarriages, in

moderate flowings of the menses, profuse evacuations, poor diet, an abuse of tea and other causes giving rise to general debility, or to a laxity of the parts more immediately concerned, are those which usually produce the whites, vulgarly so called, from the discharge being commonly of that colour.

Fluor albus, in some cases, indicates that there is a disposition to disease in the uterus, or parts connected with it, especially where the quantity of the discharge is very copious, and its quality highly acrimonious. By some the disease has been considered as never arising from debility of the system, but as being always a primary affection of the uterus. Delicate women with lax fibres, who remove from a cold climate to a warm one are, however, very apt to be attacked with it, without the parts having previously sustained any kind of injury.

The disease shews itself by an irregular discharge from the uterus and vagina, of a fluid, which in different women varies much in colour, being either of a white, green, yellow, or brown hue. In the beginning it is however, most usually white and pellucid, and in the progress of the complaint acquires the various discolourations, and different degrees of acrimony, from whence proceeds a slight degree of smarting in making water. Besides the discharge, the patient is frequently afflicted with severe and constant pains in the back and loins, loss of strength, failure of appetite, dejection of spirits, paleness of the countenance, chilliness, and languor. Where the disease has been of long continuance, and very severe, a slow fever, attended with difficult respiration, palpitations, faintings, and anasarcaous swellings of the lower extremities, often ensues.

A perfect removal of the disorder will at all times be a difficult matter

to procure; but it will be much more so in cases of long standing, and where the discharge is accompanied with a high degree of acrimony. In these cases, many disorders, such as prolapsus uteri, ulcerations of the organ, atrophy and dropsy, are apt to take place, which in the end prove fatal.

Where the disease terminates in death, the internal surface of the uterus appears, on dissection, to be pale, flabby, and relaxed; and where organic affections have arisen, much the same appearances are to be met with as have been noticed under the head of menorrhagia. See *Leucorrhæa*.

WHITE SWELLING. See *Arthropusis* and *Hydarthrus*.

WHORTLEBERRY BEARS. See *Uva ursi*.

WHORTLEBERRY, RED. See *Vitis idæa*.

WIDOW-WAIL. See *Mexercum*.

WILD CARROT. See *Daucus sylvestris*.

WILD CUCUMBER. See *Cucumis agrestis*.

WILD NAVEW. See *Napus*.

WILLOW, CRAK. See *Salix*.

WILLOW, SWEET. See *Myrtus brabantica*.

WILLOW, WHITE. See *Salix*.

WILLOW-HERB. See *Lythymacha purpurea*.

WILLOW-HERB, ROSEBAY. See *Rosebay willow herb*.

WILLOW LEAVED OAK. See *Quercus phellos*.

WINE, (*Vinum, i, n.*). The fermented juice of the ripe fruit of the *Vitis vinifera* of Linnæus. *Vitis foliis lobatis sinuatis nudis*. Class *Pentandria*. Order *Monogynia*. The wines principally used in medicine are, the *vinum album hispanicum*, or mountain wine, *vinum canarium*, canary or sack wine, the *vinum rhenanum*, or rhenish wine, and the *vinum rubrum*, or port wine. On a chemi-

cal investigation all wines consist chiefly of water, alkohol, a peculiar acid, the carbonic acid, tartar, and an adstringent gummi-resinous matter in which the colour of the red wine resides, and which is expressed from the husks of the grape. They differ from each other in the proportion of these ingredients, and particularly in that of alkohol, which they contain. The qualities of wines depend not only upon the difference of the grapes, as containing more or less of saccharine juice and the acid matter which accompanies it, but also upon circumstances attending the process of fermentation. New wines are liable to a strong degree of acescency when taken into the stomach, and thereby occasion much flatulency and eructations of acid matter; heartburn and violent pains in the stomach from spasms are also often produced; and the acid matter, by passing into the intestines and mixing with the bile, is apt to occasion colics or excite diarrhoeas. Sweet wines are likewise more disposed to become aced in the stomach than others: but as the quantity of alkohol which they contain is more considerable than appears sensibly to the taste, their acescency is thereby in a great measure counteracted. Red port and most of the red wines have an adstringent quality, by which they strengthen the stomach, and prove useful in restraining immoderate evacuations; on the contrary, those which are of an acid nature, as rhenish, pass freely by the kidneys, and gently loosen the belly. But this, and perhaps all the thin or weak wines, though of an agreeable flavour, yet as containing little alkohol, are readily disposed to become acid in the stomach, and thereby to aggravate all arthritic and calculous complaints, as well as to produce the effects of new wine. The general effects of wine are, to stimulate the stomach, exhilarate the spirits, warm

the habit, quicken the circulation promote perspiration, and, in large quantities, to prove intoxicating, and powerfully sedative. In many disorders wine is universally admitted to be of important service, and especially in fevers of the typhus kind, or of a putrid tendency; in which it is found to raise the pulse, support the strength, promote a diaphoresis, and to resist putrefaction; and in many cases it proves of more immediate advantage than the Peruvian bark. Delirium, which is the consequence of excessive irritability, and a defective state of nervous energy, is often entirely removed by the free use of wine. It is also a well-founded observation, that those who indulge in the use of wine are less subject to fevers of the malignant and intermittent kind. In the putrid sore throat, in the small-pox when attended with great debility and symptoms of putridity, in gangrenes, and in the plague, wine is to be considered as a principal remedy; and in almost all cases of languor, and of great prostration of strength, wine is experienced to be a more grateful and efficacious cordial than can be furnished from the whole class of aromatics.

Method of discovering whether wine has been adulterated with any metals prejudicial to the health.

The property which liver of sulphur, the *alkali sulphuratum*, and hepatic air, or sulphurated hydrogen, possess of precipitating lead in a black form, has been long ago made public; and this property has been employed to determine the quality of wines by means of the liquor probatorius Wirtembergensis, or Wirtemberg proving liquor. But in trying wines supposed to have been adulterated, this proof does more harm than service, because it precipitates iron of the same colour as the pernicious lead. Many wine-

merchants of the greatest respectability rendered by these means suspected, have been ruined. There was wanting then a re-agent, which should discover in wine those metals only which are prejudicial to the health of man.

The following liquor which precipitates lead and copper in a black form, and arsenic of an orange colour, &c. but does not precipitate iron. The last, which is not noxious, and rather salutary to the constitution, frequently gets into wines by accident.

Method of preparing the proving liquor.

Mix equal parts of oyster shells and crude sulphur in a fine powder, and put the mixture into a crucible; heat it in a wind furnace, and increase the fire suddenly, so as to bring the crucible to a white heat, for the space of fifteen minutes; pulverize the mass, when it is cold, and preserve it in a bottle closely stopped. To prepare the liquor, put 120 grains of this powder and 120 grains of cream of tartar (acidulous tartrate of potash) into a strong bottle, fill the bottle with common water, which boil for an hour, and then let it cool; close the bottle immediately and shake it for some time; after it has remained at rest to settle, decant the pure liquor, and pour it into small phials, capable of holding about an ounce each, first putting into each of them 20 drops of muriatic acid. They must be stopped very closely with a piece of wax, in which there is a small mixture of turpentine. One part of this liquor mixed with three parts of suspected wine, will discover by a very sensible black precipitate the least traces of lead, copper, &c. but will produce no effect upon iron if it contains any of that metal. When the precipitate has fallen down, it may still be discovered whether the wine contains

iron, by saturating the decanted liquor with a little salt of tartar (tartareous acidulum of potash), by which the liquor will immediately become black. Pure wines remain clear and bright after this liquor has been added to them.

WINTER BARK. See *Winteranus cortex*.

WINTER CHERRY. See *Alkengi*.

WINTERA AROMATICA. The systematic name of the winter bark tree. See *Winteranus cortex*.

WINTERANUS CORTEX, *Winteranus cortex mugellanicus*. The bark of the *Wintera aromatica pedunculis aggregatis terminalibus, pifillis quatuor*; it is very much allied in its properties to the *canella alba*. See *Canella alba*.

WINTERANUS SPURIUS. See *Canella alba*.

WISPERING. A lowness of speech caused by uttering the words so feebly as not to produce any vibration of the larynx.

WOLFS BANE. See *Aconitum*.

WOLFS BANE, BLUE. See *Aconitum*.

WOMB. See *Uterus*.

WOMB, INFLAMMATION OF. See *Hysteritis*.

WOOD LOUSE. See *Millepedes*.

WOOD SORREL. See *Luzula*.

WOODY NIGHTSHADE. See *Dulcamara*.

WORM BARK. See *Geoffrea*.

WORMGRASS, PERENNIAL. See *Spigelia*.

WORM GUINEA. *Dracunculus*. A singular worm which insinuates itself under the skin, and creeps along the cellular membrane. It is peculiar to Africa and warm climates.

WORM RING. A species of herpes. See *Herpes*.

WORM SEED. See *Santonium*.

WORMWOOD. See *Abfynthium vulgare*.

WORMWOOD MOUNTAIN. The

Artemisa glacialis of Linnæus, which is common about the Alps, and similar in its virtues to the common wormwood.

WORMWOOD, ROMAN. See *Ab-sinthium vulgare*.

WORMWOOD, SEA. See *Ab-sinthium maritimum*.

WORMWOOD, TARTAREUM. See *Santonium*.

WORMS. *Vermes*. There are several kinds of animals which infest the human body. Their usual division is into those which inhabit only the intestinal canal, as the ascarides, &c.; and those which are found in other parts, as hydatids, &c. Such is the nature and office of the human stomach and intestines, that insects and worms or their ovula, may not unfrequently be conveyed into that canal with those things, that are continually taken as food, but such insects or worms do not live long and seldom, if ever, generate in a situation so wide from their natural one. Besides these there are worms, that are never found in any other situation than the human stomach or intestines, and which there generate and produce their species. Thus it appears that the human stomach and intestines are the seat for animalculæ, which are translated from their natural situation, and also for worms proper to them, which live in no other situation.

First Class.—This contains those which are generated and nourished in the human intestinal canal, and which there propagate their species.

Second Class, comprehends those insects or worms, that accidentally enter the human primæ viæ ab extra, and which never propagate their species in that canal, but are soon eliminated from the body; such are several species of *Scarabæi*, the *Lumbricus terrestris*, the *Fasciola*, the *Gordius intestinalis*, and others. The

second class belongs to the province of natural history. The consideration of the first class to the physician which, from the variety it affords, may be divided into different orders, genera, and species.

Order I. Round worms.

Genus I. Intestinal ascarides.

Character. Body round, head obtuse, and furnished with three vesicles.

Species I. *Ascaris lumbricoides*. The long round worm or lumbricoid ascaris.

Character. When full grown 1 foot in length. Mouth triangular.

II. *Ascaris vermicularis*. The thread or maw worm.

Character. When full grown, half an inch in length, tail terminates in a fine point.

Genus II. Intestinal trichurides.

Character. Body round, tail three times the length of the body, head without vesicles.

Species. *Trichuris vulgaris*. The trichuris or long thread worm.

Character. The head furnished with a proboscis,

Order II. The flat worms.

Genus I. Intestinal tape worm.

Character. Body flat and jointed.

Species I. *Tania osculis marginalibus*. The long tape worm.

Character. The oscula are situated upon the margin of the joints.

II. *Tania osculis superficialibus*. The broad tape worm.

Character. The oscula are placed upon the flattened surface.

These worms were all known to the ancients, the trichuris only excepted, and are mentioned in the works of Hippocrates, Galen, Celsus, Paulus Ægineta, and Pliny.

WORT. An infusion of malt. This has been found extremely useful in the cure of the scurvy.

Dr. Macbride, in his very ingenious experimental essays, having laid down as a principle, "that the cure of the scurvy depends on the

fermentative quality in the remedies made use of," was led to enquire after a substance, capable of being preserved during a long sea voyage, and yet containing materials by which a fermentation might occasionally be excited in the bowels. Such an one appeared to him to be found in malt, which is well known to be the grain of barley, brought suddenly to a germinating state by heat and moisture, and then dried, whereby its saccharine principle is developed, and rendered easy of extraction by watery liquors. The sweet infusion of this he proposed to give as a dietetic article to scorbutic persons, expecting that it would ferment in their bowels, and give out its fixed air, by the antiseptic powers of which the strong tendency to putrefaction in this disease might be corrected.

It was some time before a fair trial of this proposed remedy could be obtained; and different reports were made concerning it. By some cases, however, published in a postscript of the second edition of the Doctor's work in 1767, it appears that scorbutic complaints of the most dangerous kind have actually been cured at sea by the use of wort. Its general effects were to keep the patients open, and to prove highly

nutritious and strengthening. It sometimes purged too much, but this effect was easily obviated by the tinctura thebaica. Other unquestionable cases of its success in this disease are to be seen in the London Medical Essays and Inquiries.

The use of wort has hence been adopted in other cases where a strong putrid disposition in the fluids appeared to prevail, as in cancerous and phagadenic ulcers; and instances are published in the fourth volume of the work above mentioned of its remarkable good effects in these cases.

As the efficacy of the malt infusion depends upon its producing changes in the whole mass of fluids, it is obvious that it must betaken in large quantities for a considerable length of time, and rather as an article of diet than medicine. From one to four pints daily have generally been directed. The proportion recommended in preparing it, is one measure of ground malt to three equal measures of boiling water. The mixture must be well stirred, and left to stand, covered, three or four hours. It should be made fresh every day.

WOUNDWORT. See *Panax*.

X.

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XANTHIUM, (*Xanthium*, i. n.). The lesser burdock. This herb, *Xanthium strumarium* of Linnæus, was once esteemed in the cure of scrophula but like most other remedies against this disease proves ineffectual. The seeds are administered internally in some countries against erysipelas.

XANTHIUM STRUMARIUM. The systematic name of the lesser burdock. See *Xanthium*.

XERASIA, (*Xerasia*, æ, f. from

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ξηρος, dry). An excessive tenuity of the hairs similar to down.

XIPHOID, (*Xiphoides*, from *ξίφος*, a sword, and *ειδος*, likeness). A term given by anatomists to parts which had some resemblance to an ancient sword, as the xiphoid cartilage.

XIPHOID CARTILAGE. See *Cartilago ensiformis*.

XYLOALOEES. See *Lignum aloes*.

XYLOBALSAMUM, See *Balsamum gilcadensis*.

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YAMS. An esculent root obtained principally from three species of *Dioscorea*, the *alata*, *bulbifera*, and *sativa*. They grow spontaneously in both Indies, and their roots are promiscuously eaten as the potatoe is with us. There is great variety in the colour, size, and shape of yams; some are generally blue or brown, round or oblong, and weigh from one pound to two. They are esteemed when dressed as being nutritious and easy of digestion, and are preferred to wheaten bread. Their taste is somewhat like the potatoe, but more luscious. The negroes, whose common food is yams, boil and mash them. They are also ground into flour, and made into bread and puddings.

Y O

When they are to be kept for some time, they are exposed upon the ground to the sun as we do onions, and when sufficiently withered they are put into dry sand in casks, and placed in a dry garret, where they remain often for many seasons without losing any of their primitive goodness.

YARROW, COMMOM. See *Millefolium*.

YAWS. The African name for raspberry. See *Frambæsia*.

YELLOW FEVER. See *Febris continua*.

YELLOW SAUNDERS. See *Santalum album*.

YORKSHIRE SANICLE. See *Pinguicula*.

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ZARZA. An ancient and provincial name of the sarsaparilla.

ZEA MAYS. The systematic name of the Indian wheat plant, a native of America, and cultivated in Italy and several parts of Europe, for its grain, which is ground for the same purposes as our wheat, to which it is very little inferior.

ZEDOARIA, (Zedoaria, æ, f. vox sinensis). Zedoary. The roots of this plant, *Kempferia rotunda* of Linnæus, *foliis lanceolatis petiolatis*. Class *Monandria*. Order *Monogynia*, are brought to us in long pieces about the thickness of the little finger, two or three inches in length, bent, rough, and angular, or in roundish pieces about an inch in diameter, of an ash

ZI

colour on the outside and white within. They have an agreeable camphoraceous smell, and a bitterish aromatic taste. Though formerly much esteemed against rheumatic affections, they are at present thought to possess very little medicinal powers, although they have a place in the confectio aromatica of the London pharmacopœia.

ZEDOARIA LONGA. The long roots of the *Zedoaria rotunda* of Linnæus.

ZEDOARIA ROTUNDA. The systematic name of the zedoary plant. See *Zedoaria*.

ZEDOARY. See *Zedoaria*.

ZIBETHUM, (Zibethum, i, n. ζιβηθον, from Zobeth. Arab). *Civetta*, *Civet*.

A soft unctuous odoriferous substance about the consistence of honey or butter, of a whiteish, yellowish, or brownish colour, and sometimes blackish, contained in some excretory follicles near the anus of the *Viverra zibetha* of Linnæus. It has a grateful smell when diluted, and an unctuous subacid taste, and possesses stimulating, nervine, and antispasmodic virtues.

ZINC, (*Zincum*, i, n. *Zinc* Germ.).

A brilliant, blueish, white semimetal substance, crystallized in narrow plates, without taste or smell. It is brittle, yet yields with a degree of elasticity under the hammer, is very fusible, and of all metals the most inflammable; when red hot, it burns with a beautiful yellowish white flame; it decomposes water with great energy. Zinc is said to be next to iron, the most common of all metals. It is found some times in a state of pure native zinc in its perfect metallic form, sometimes and most frequently in a state of oxyd, when it is called lapis calaminaris; see *Calamine* *stone*; and sometimes mineralized by sulphur forming what is called *aliphur*, of zinc or blend. Great quantities are found in Germany, France, Britain, Norway, and Italy. Zinc exposed to heat in vessels melts and volatilizes without being decomposed. Cold sulphuric acid diluted with water, possesses the power of dissolving zinc. The sulphate of zinc which is the product of this composition is crystallizable in tetrahedral prisms terminating in prisms that have also four sides. See *Zincum vitriolatum*. Cold nitric acid diluted with water combines with zinc with great rapidity, and affords nitrate of zinc. The muriatic acid acts on this metal with as much energy as the nitric, and the solution affords by distillation muriate of zinc. The carbonic acid diluted in water, also dis-

solves zinc, and the solution being exposed to the air affords carbonate of zinc. All the solutions of this metal in acids, are precipitated by lime-water, magnesia, fixed alkali, and ammoniac.

If melted zinc be exposed to intense heat, it becomes oxydated, and the oxyd is volatilized by the current of the flame, ascends, and is afterwards condensed into little white flakes called *flores zinci*, or flowers of zinc, which are exhibited internally as a powerful antispasmodic. The use of zinc in the arts is very considerable. In medicine the sulphate of zinc, or white vitriol, as it is called, is given internally in the dose of from ℥j to ʒss, as a vomit. In small doses it cures dropsies, intermittent head-achs, and some nervous diseases, and is a powerful antispasmodic and tonic. A solution of white vitriol is also used to remove gleet, gonorrhœas, and for cleaning foul ulcers.

ZINC, VITRIOLATED. See *Zincum vitriolatum*.

ZINCUM. See *Zinc*.

ZINCUM CALCINATUM. *Flores zinci*. *Nihilum album*. Flowers of zinc. This preparation of zinc is called in the new chemical nomenclature, *oxydum zinci sublimatum*. It possesses styptic qualities, and is administered as an antispasmodic in spasmodic asthma against ascarides, epilepsy, hysterical spasms, and whooping cough.

ZINCUM VITRIOLATUM. Impure white vitriol.

ZINCUM VITRIOLATUM PURIFICATUM. *Oxydum zinci vitriolatum*. *Vitriolum album*. *Vitriolum zinci*. *Sulphas zinci*. White vitriol. This preparation of zinc is given internally as a styptic, emetic, astringent, and tonic, in cases of hæmorrhage, intermittents, and diarrhœas; and is employed externally in the

form of lotion, bath, or ointment in the cure of gleet, ophthalmia, hæmorrhoids, prolapsus, diseases of the skin, and aphthæ.

ZINGI. An antient name of the stellated anniseed. See *Anisum stellatum*.

ZINGIBER, (*Zingiber*, is, n. ζῖγγερίς, Indian). *Zingiber album*. *Zingiber nigrum*. *Zingiber commune*. Ginger. *Amomum zingiber* of Linnæus. The white and black ginger are both the produce of the same plant, the difference depending upon the mode of preparing them. Ginger is generally considered as an aromatic, and less pungent and heating to the system than might be expected from its effects upon the organ of taste. It is used as an antispasmodic and carminative. The cases in which it is more immediately serviceable are flatulent colics, debility, and laxity of the stomach and intestines; and in torpid and phlegmatic constitutions to excite brisker vascular action. It is seldom given but in combination with other medicines. In the pharmacopœias it is directed in the form of a syrup and condiment; and in many compositions ordered as a subsidiary ingredient.

ZINGIBER ALBUM. The root of the *amomum zingiber* of Linnæus is so termed when deprived of its radicles and fordes.

ZINGIBER COMMUNE. Common ginger. See *Zingiber*.

ZINGIBER NIGRUM. The root of the *Amomum zingiber* of Linnæus is so called when suffered to dry with its radicles and the fordes which usually hang to it.

ZIZANIA AQUATICA. The systematic name of a reed whose grain is much esteemed. See *Water zizania*.

ZIZYPHUS. The jujubes were so formerly called. See *Jujuba*.

ZŌNA, (*Zona*, *z*, f. from ζώνω, to surround). *Zoster*. The shingles.

ZOOLOGY, (*Zoologia*, *z*, f. from ζῷον, an animal, and λόγος, a discourse). That part of natural history which treats on animals.

ZOONŌMĪA, (*Zoonomia*, *z*, f. from ζῷον, an animal, and νόμος, a law). The laws of organic life.

ZOOTOMY, (*Zootomia*, *z*, f. from ζῷον, an animal, and τέμνω, to cut). The dissection of animals.

ZYGŌMA, (*Zygoma*, *z*, f. from ζυγόν, a yoke; because it transmits the tendon of the temporal muscle like a yoke). The cavity under the zygomatic process of the temporal bone and os malæ.

ZYGOMATIC PROCESS. An apophysis of the os jugale and another of the temporal bone are so called.

ZYGOMATIC SUTURE. *Sutura zygomatica*. The union of the zygomatic process of the temporal bone to the cheek bone.

A

GLOSSARY

OF

OBSOLETE TERMS.

A B

ABAM. Lead.

ABACTUS. *Abactus venter.* A miscarriage procured by art.

ARACUS MAJOR. A trough used in the mines wherein the ore is washed.

ABAISIR. See *Spodium.*

ABALIENATUS. Corrupted. A part so destroyed as to require immediate extirpation; also, the fault or total destruction of the senses, whether external or internal, by disease.

ABARTAMEN. Lead.

ABAS. The epilepsy.

ABDUCTIO. A species of fracture, when a bone is divided transversely near a joint, so that each part recedes from the other. In Cœlius Aurelianus it signifies a strain; and is mentioned as one of the causes of ischiadic and psoadic pains. *Morb. Chron. lib. v. cap. i.*

ABEBÆOS, ἀβεβαιός. Infirm, weak, inconstant.

ABESSI. The alvine excrements.

ABEVACUATIO. A partial or incomplete evacuation of the peccant humours, either naturally or by art.

ABLATIO, the taking away from the body whatever is useless or hurtful; it comprehends all kinds of eva-

A B

cuations. Sometimes it signifies the subtraction of a part of the diet, with a medical view; and sometimes it expresses the interval betwixt two fits of a fever, or the time of remission. Chemical *ablation* is the removal of any thing that is either finished or else no longer necessary in a process.

ABRASA. Ulcers attended with abrasion of part of the substance.

ABROTONITES. A wine mentioned by Dioscorides, impregnated with *Abrotanum* or southernwood, in the proportion of about one hundred ounces of the dried leaves, to about seven gallons of must.

ABSCEDENTIA. Decayed parts of the body, which in a morbid state are separated from the sound.

ABSTENTIO. Cœlius Aurelianus uses this word to express a suppression or retention. Thus, *abstentio stercoreum*, a retention of the excrements, which he mentions as a symptom very frequent in a satyriasis. In a sense somewhat different, he uses the word *abstenta*, applying it to the pleura, where he seems to mean, that the humour of the inflamed pleura is prevented, by the adjacent bones, from extending itself.

ABSTINENCE. It is either ge-

neral, from all sorts of aliment, or particular, from some kinds of food only. Erasistratus made a strict *abstinence* supply the place of bleeding, in inflammations and fevers.

Besides the usual senses of *abstinence*, Cœlius Aurelianus uses it to signify a suppression. Thus, Chron. lib. ii. cap. 9. *Abstinencia hæmorrhoidarum veterum*, signifies a suppression of habitual hæmorrhoids. Sometimes in this author, it signifies a compression: thus, Acut. lib. iii. cap. 17. *Spiritus ob abstinentiam clausus*, means the wind shut up in the intestines by compressure, thereby causing the iliac passion. The verb *abstinere* also, in the above mentioned author, frequently signifies to *restrain*, or *suppress*.

ABSTRACTITIOUS, (from *abstraho* or *altrabo*, to draw from), is used by Ludovicus, and some other writers in pharmacy, to distinguish the natural spirit of aromatic vegetables, from that artificial one which is procured from them by fermentation.

ACACALIS. Goræus says it is supposed to take its name from the nymph *Acacalis*, who was ravished by Apollo. Dioscorides says it is the fruit of an Egyptian shrub like a tamarisk, the infusion of which is mixed with collyria, to sharpen the sight. Dioscorides, lib. i. cap. 118. Dale relates that the pods are in use, and are astringent. Hesychius explains *ακααλις*, the flower of the narcissus.

ACAIROS, (from *α* priv. and *καιρος*, time). Unseasonable. It is applied to any thing that is unseasonable.

ACAMATOS, (*ακαμυτος*, from *α* priv. and *καμνω*, to labour). By this Galen seems to signify, that position of a limb, which is equally distant from flexion and extension, which situation the part can longest bear without weariness. Thus when we sleep, the knees are bent, that nei-

ther the flexors nor extensors of the legs may be upon the stretch. In like manner the arm is generally laid spontaneously in the most easy position, or such a one as can be longest supported without fatigue.

ACANTABOLUS, from *ακανθα*, *spina*, a thorn, and *βαλλω*, *jacio*, to throw away. A surgeon's instrument, called also *Volsella*, like a pair of pincers, used to take out any prickly substance that shall chance to stick to the œsophagus, or gullet; as also the fragments of corrupted bones, hair, or any thing that by chance remains in a wound. It is also used for that instrument where-with people pull out the hairs of their eye-brows.

ACARDIOS, *ἀκαρδιος*. Fearful, depressed, faint-hearted.

ACARI. A small creature bred in wax, said by Aristotle to be the least object of the human sight. It also signifies a particular kind of lice that lodge in the cuticle and cutis.

ACATALEPSIA, *ἀκαταληψία*. Incomprehensibility, or uncertainty in science; the contrary of which is *catalepsis*, certain knowlege. This word is taken notice of by Castellus, and it occurs in Galen.

ACATASTATOS, (*ἀκατάστατος*, from *α* priv. and *καθιστημι*, which amongst other significations, implies to fix, establish, or render certain). Inconstant. This word is applied to regular fevers, where the periods of exacerbation are uncertain, and the appearances in the urine are perpetually changing. It is also applied to shivering fits in fevers, which return at irregular periods; sometimes every day, sometimes every other day, or every third day. Or it is applied to urines which are turbid, but do not deposit any regular sediment.

ACATHARSIA, (from *α* priv. and *καθαρω*, to purge). It signifies an impurity of the humours. It is also

applied to the fordes or impurities of wounds.

ACEDIA, (*ακηδία*, from *α* priv. and *κηδος*, care). Carelessness, neglect. Hippocrates sometimes uses this word, in his Treatise on the Glands, to signify fatigue or trouble.

ACERATOS, (from *α* priv. and *κεραω*, or *κεραυνωμι*, to mix). Unmixed, uncorrupted. It is applied sometimes to the humours of the body by Hippocrates. Paulus Ægineta mentions a plaster of this name, but probably means *Aceron*. See *Acerides*.

ACERIDES, (from *α* priv. and *κηρος*, wax. Plasters made without wax are thus called.

ACESIS, *ακσις*. A remedy or cure.

ACESTA. Distempers which are curable.

ACESTORIS, (*ακεστορις*, from *ακος*, a cure). It signifies strictly a female physician, and is used for a midwife.

ACESTRIDES, (*ακεστριδες*, from *ακεομαι*, to cure). Midwives were so called amongst the Greeks. Hippocrates uses the word in this sense, at the latter end of his treatise *De Carnibus*.

ACHEIR, (from *α* priv. and *χειρ*, a hand). Without hands.

ACHICOLUM. By this word Cælius Aurelianus, *Acut. lib. iii. cap. 17.* expresses the fornix, tholus, or sudatorium of the ancient baths, which was a hot room where they used to sweat.

ACHLYS, *αχλυσ*. Darkeness, cloudiness, and is generally applied to a close, foggy air, or a mist. Hippocrates in his *De Morb. Mulier. lib. ii.* signifies by this word condensed air in the womb. Galen interprets it of those, who, during sickness, lose that usual lustre and loveliness observed about the pupil of the eye, during health. Others express it by an ulcer on the pupil of the eye, or the scar left there by an ulcer. It means also an opacity of the cornea;

the same as the caligo cornea of Dr. Cullen.

ACHNE, *αχνη*, chaff; the froth of the sea; or water in general: or any thing that is light and soft. It also sometimes signifies lint.

ACHORISTOS, (*αχωριστος*, from *α* priv. and *χωρι*, separate). Inseparable. It is understood of accidents, symptoms, or signs, which are inseparable from particular things. Thus, a pungent pain in the side is an inseparable symptom of a pleurisy.

ACHREION, (from *α* priv. and *χρηια*, usefulness). Useless. It is applied by Hippocrates to the limbs, which, through weakness, are become useless.

ACHROI, (*αχροι*, from *α* priv. and *χρος*, colour). Pale.

ACHYRON, *αχυρον*. This properly signifies bran or chaff, or straw.

Hippocrates, *De morbis mulierum*, most probably means by this word, bran. Achyron also signifies a straw, hair, or any thing that sticks upon a wall.

ACICYS, (*ακις*, from *α* priv. and *ικυς*, strength, vigour). It signifies weak, infirm, or faint, and in this sense it is used by Hippocrates. *De morb. lib. iv.*

ACMASTICOS, *ακμαστικος*, the same as homotonos, is a species of a synochus, wherein the febrile heat continues of the same tenor to the end.

ACMELLA. A species of verbenina.

ACNE, *ακνη*. A small pimple, or hard tubercle on the face. Fœsius says, that it is a small pustule or pimple, which arises usually about the time that the body is in full vigour.

ACNESTIS, (from *α* priv. and *κναιεν* to scratch). That part of the spine of the back, which reaches from the metaphrenon, which is the part betwixt the shoulder blades, to the loins. This part seems to have been originally called so in quadru-

pedes only, because they cannot reach it to scratch.

ACOE, ακοε. The sense of hearing.

ACOELIOS, (ακοιλις, from α priv. and κοιλος, the belly). Without belly. It is applied to those who are so wasted, as to appear as if they had no belly. Castellus from Galen.

ACOITUS, ακοιτος. An epithet for honey, mentioned by Pliny, because it has no sediment, which is called κοιτη.

ACONION, ακονιον. A particular form of medicine among the ancient physicians, made of powders levigated, and probably like *collyria* for the disorders of the eyes.

ACOPON, (ακοπον, from α priv. and κοπος, weariness). It signifies originally whatever is a remedy against weariness, and is used in this sense by Hippocrates, Aph viii. lib. ii. But in time, the word was applied to certain ointments.

ACOPA. According to Galen and Paulus, the *Acopa Pharmaca* are remedies for indispositions of body which are caused by long or vehement motion. So are medicines against lassitudes.

ACOR. It is sometimes used to express that sourness in the stomach contracted by indigestion, and from whence flatulencies and acid belching arise.

ACORDINA. Indian tutty.

ACORIA, (ακορια, from α priv. and κορεω, to satiate). Insatiability. In Hippocrates it means a good appetite and digestion.

ACORITES VINUM. A wine mentioned by Dioscorides made with acorns, liquorice, &c. infused with wine.

ACORTINUS. A lupin.

ACOSMIA, (ακοσμία, from α priv. and κοσμος, order.) Irregularity, principally in fevers, with respect to the crisis and critical days. Castellus

from Pollux says, they who were bald used to be called *Acosmoi*, because they had lost their great ornament their hair; for κοσμος signifies ornament as well as order.

ACRACY, ακρασια. Debility or impotency, from relaxation, or a lost tone of the parts.

ACRAI. An Arabic word which seems to mean the same as *satyriasis* in men, and *furor uterinus* in women.

ACRÆPALOS, (ακρα παλος, from α priv. and κραπαλη). *Crapula*, a surfeit of drunkenness. Medicines are thus named which either prevent or cure surfeits or drunkenness.

ACRASIA, (ακρασια, from α priv. and κραννυμι to mix). Intemperance. But this word is often used by Hippocrates to signify weakness or inability for motion.

ACRATIA, (from α priv. and κρατος, strength.) Inability for motion.

ACRATISMA. A breakfast among the old Greeks, consisting of a morsel of bread, soaked in pure unmixed wine. The derivation of this word is the same as *Acrasia*, because the wine used on this occasion was not mixed with water.

ACRATOMELI, the same as *Mulsu*, i. e. wine mixed with honey.

ACRE, (ακρος, extreme). It signifies the end or extremity of the nose.

ACREA, ακρος. The extremities, among which are reckoned the arms, legs, nose, and ears.

ACRISIA, (from α priv. and κρινω, to judge or separate). A turbulent state of a disease, which will scarce suffer any judgment to be formed thereof.

ACROBYSTIA. The extremity of the prepuce; from ακρος, extreme, and βυν, to cover.

ACROCHEIRIA, (from ακρος, extreme, and χειρ, a hand). An ex-

ercise among the ancients. Probably a species of wrestling, where they only held by the hands.

ACROCHEIRIS, (from *ακρος*, extreme, and *χειρ*, a hand). Gorræus says, it signifies the arm from the elbow to the ends of the fingers; *χειρ* signifying the arm, from the scapula to the fingers ends.

ACROCHORDON, (*ακροχορδων*, from *ακρος*, extreme, and *χορδη*, a string). Galen describes it as a round excrescence on the skin, with a slender base; and that it hath its name because of its situation on the surface of the skin. The Greeks call that excrescence an *acrochordon*, where something hard concretes under the skin, which is rather rough, of the same colour as the skin, slender at the base, and broader above. Their size rarely exceeds that of a bean.

ACROCOLIA, (from *ακρος*, extreme, and *καλον*, a limb). These are the extremities of animals, which are used in food, as the feet of calves, swine, sheep, oxen, or lambs, and of the broths of which, jellies are frequently made. Castellus from Budæus adds, that the internal parts of animals are also called by this name; in English *giblets*.

ACROLENION. Castellus says it is the same as *Oliceranon*.

ACROPATHOS, (from *ακρος*, extreme, and *παθος*, a disease). It signifies literally a disease at the top or superior part. Hippocrates in his treatise *De Superfætatione* applies it to the internal orifice of the uterus; and in *Prædict.* lib. ii. to cancers, which appear on the surface of the body.

ACROPOSTHIA, (from *ακρος*, extreme, and *ποσθον*, the prepuce). The extremity of the prepuce: that part which is cut off in circumcision.

ACROSPELOS. A Greek name of

the *Bromus Dioscoridis*, or wild oat-grass.

ACROTERIA. The extreme parts, as hands, feet, ears, nose, &c.

ACROTERIASMUS. The amputation of an extremity, from *ακρατηρια*, extremities, and this from *ακρος*, *summus*.

ACROTHYMION, (from *ακρος*, extreme, and *θυμος*, thyme). A sort of wart, described by Celsus, as hard, rough, with a narrow basis, and broad tops; the top is of the colour of thyme; it easily splits and bleeds. This tumor is also called *Thymus*.

ACMO. Red coral.

ACTE. The elder tree.

ACTINE. The herb *Bunias* or *Napus*.

ACTINOBOLISMUS. Irradiation. It is applied to the spirits, conveying the inclinations of the mind to the body: it is also called *Diradiatio*.

ACTUATION. That change wrought on a medicine, or any thing taken into the body, by the vital heat, which is necessary, in order to make it act and have its effect, is called its actuation.

ACUITAS. Acrimony.

ACUITIO. To acuate, from *acuo*, to sharpen, the sharpening an acid medicine by an addition of something more acid; or, in general, the increasing the force of any medicine, by an addition of something that hath the same sort of operation in a greater degree.

ACULON, or *Aculos*. The fruit or acorn of the ilex, or scarlet oak.

ACUPUNCTURA. Acupuncture, bleeding performed by making many small punctures.

ACURER. Lead.

ACURON. A name of the *Alisma*.

ACUS PASTORIS. A name of the *Scandix*, the shepherd's needle, or Venus's comb.

AGUS MOSCHATA. The *Geranium Moschatum*.

ACUSTO. Nitre.

ACYISIS. In Vogel's Nosology it is a defect of conception, or barrenness in women.

ACYRUS. German leopard's bane.

ADAMITA. So Paracelsus calls the stone in the bladder.

ADAMITUM. A name for the hardest white stones, which Paracelsus says are a species of *Tartar*.

ADARCES. A saltish concretion found about the reeds and grass in marshy grounds in Galatia. It is lax and porous like bastard sponge. It is used to clear the skin with in leprosy, tetters, &c. Dr. Plot gives an account of this production in his *Natural History of Oxfordshire*.

ADAIGES. Sal ammoniac.

ADARNECH. Orpiment.

ADARTICULATIO. Arthrodia.

ADDEPHAGIA, (*ἀδδὲφαγία*, from *ἀδδ*, abundantly, and *φαγῆν*, to eat). Insatiability, a voracious appetite. The same as *Bulimia*.

ADEC. Sour milk, or butter-milk.

ADECTOS, (from *α* priv. and *δαρνα*, to bite). An epithet of those medicines which relieve from pain, by removing the uneasy situation caused by the stimulus of acrimonious medicines, &c.

ADELPHIA, *ἀδελφία*, a relation; so Hippocrates calls distempers that resemble each other.

ADEMONIA, (of *α* priv. and *δαίμων*, a genius or divinity or fortune). Hippocrates uses this word for uneasiness, restlessness, or anxiety felt in acute diseases, and some hysteric fits.

ADENES CANADENSES. Potatoes.

ADEPTA MEDICINA. So Paracelsus calls that which treats of the diseases that are contracted by celest-

tial operations, or communicated from heaven.

ADEPTA PHILOSOPHIA. Adept philosophy. It is that philosophy, whose end is the transmutation of minerals, and an universal remedy.

ADEPTS. Such are called so as pretend to some extraordinary skill in chemistry, from *adipiscor*, to obtain; but these have too often proved either enthusiasts or impostors: and such Paracelsus, Helmont, and their followers have been thought. The professors of the *Adepta Philosophia* are also called adepts.

ADHATODA. So Tournefort called the *Jussicia*; it is the Malabar nut tree, which is a species of *Jussicia*.

ADIACHYTOS, (from *α* neg. and *διχυνω*, to diffuse, scatter, or be profuse). Decent in point of dress. Hippocrates thinks the dress of a fop derogatory from the physician; though thereby he hides his ignorance, and obtains the good opinion of his patients.

ADIAPHOROUS. A term which implies the same with neutral; and is particularly used of some spirits and salts, which are neither of an acid nor alkaline nature.

ADIAPNEUSTIA, (from the privative particle *α* and *διαπνεα*, *perspiro*). A diminution or obstruction of natural perspiration, and that in which the ancients chiefly placed the cause of fevers.

ADIARRHŒA, (from *α* priv. and *διαρρῆω*, to flow out or through). A total suppression of all the necessary evacuations.

ADIBAT. Mercury.

ADICE. A nettle.

ADIPSAN. So the Greeks called medicines, &c. which abate thirst. Hippocrates applied this word to oxymel.

ADIPSOS. So the Greeks called the Egyptian palm-tree, whose fruit,

before it is ripe, is said to be the *Myrobalans*. The tree is called *adip-sos* because its fruit quencheth thirst. Theophrastus calls this tree *Balanos*. *Adip-sos* is also a name for liquorice.

ADJUTORIUM, (from *ad* and *juvo*, to help). A name of the *humerus*, from its usefulness in lifting up the fore-arm.

ADOC. Milk.

ADOR. A sort of corn called also *Spelta*.

ADOS. Water in which red-hot iron is extinguished.

ADRA RHIZA. Blancard says the root of the *Aristolochia* is thus named.

ADRACHNE, *Arbutus Andrachne*. The strawberry-tree.

ADRAM. *Sal Gem*.

ADRARAGI. Garden saffron.

ADROBOLON, (from *αδρος*, large, and *βωλος*, a globe, bole, or mass). Indian bdellium, which is coarser than the Arabian.

ADUSTION. Also called *Syriasis*; an inflammation about the brain, and its membranes, with an hollowness of the eyes, a pale colour, and a dry body.

ÆDOIA, (from *αἰδώς*, modesty). The same as *Pudenda*, by which is meant the parts subservient to generation in both sexes.

ÆDOPSOPHIA, (from *αἰδοῖα*, *pudenda*, and *ψοφω*, *peditum edo*). Sauvage and Sagar use this term to signify a flatus from the bladder, or from the womb, making its escape through the urethra or the vagina.

ÆGAGROPILUS, (from *αἰγυγος*, *rupicapra*, a wild goat, and *πῖλος*, *globulus*, a ball). Hieronymus Vel-schius wrote a treatise on the virtues of this. It is a ball found in the stomach of deer, goats, hogs, horned cattle, as cows, &c. It consists of hairs which they have swallowed from licking themselves. They are

of different degrees of hardness, but have no medicinal virtues. Some rank these balls among the *Bezoars*. A species of conserva found in Wal-lenfenmoor, from its resembling these concretions, is also so named.

ÆGEDES. A disorder of the eyes mentioned by Hippocrates. Foesius thinks the disease consists of small cicatrices in the eye, caused by an afflux of corrosive humours upon the part. But in one passage of Hippocrates, Foesius says it signifies small white concretions of humours which stick upon the pupil, and obscure the sight.

ÆGILOPS. Wild fescue grass. It is called *agilops* from its supposed virtue in curing the disorder so named. See Dioscorides, lib. iv. cap. 139. It is a species of *Bromus* in the Lin-næan system.

ÆGINETIA. Malabarian broom-rape. A species of *Orobanche*.

ÆGIS. A film on the eye.

ÆGOCERAS, (from *αιξ*, a goat, and *κερας*, a horn). Fœnugreek, so called, because the pods were supposed to resemble the horns of a goat. Also a name of *Bouceras*.

ÆGOLETHRON, (from *αιξ*, a goat, and *ολεθρος*, destruction). Tournefort says it is the *Chamerododendron*.

ÆGONYCHON. Gromwell, from *αιξ*, a goat, and *ονυξ*, a hoof, because of the hardness of the seed.

ÆGOPROSOPON, the name for a collyrium for the eyes when inflamed.

ÆON. The spinal marrow.

ÆONION. The *Sedum Majus*, or common house-leek.

ÆORA, (from *αιωρεω*, to lift up; to suspend on high). Gestation. A species of exercise used by the ancients, and of which Aëtius gives the following account. Gestation, while it exercises the body, the body seems to be at rest. Of the motion there are several kinds. First, swing-

ing in a hammock, which at the decline of a fever is beneficial. Secondly, being carried in a litter, in which the patient either sits or lies along. It is useful when the gout, stone, or such other disorder, attends, as does not admit of violent motions. Thirdly, riding in a chariot, which is of service in most chronical disorders; especially before the more violent exercises can be admitted. Fourthly, sailing in a ship or boat. This produces various effects, according to the different agitation of the waters, and in many tedious chronical disorders is efficacious beyond what is observed from the most skilful administration of drugs. These are instances of a passive exercise.

ÆRA. Darnel.

ÆRITIS. The *Anagallis*.

ÆROMELI. Honey; also a name for manna, from *αηρ*, air, and *μελι*, honey.

ÆROPHOBIA, (from *αηρ*, air, and *φοβος*, fear. According to Cælius Aurelianus, some phrenetic patients are afraid of a lucid, and others of an obscure air: and these he calls *ærophobi*.

ÆROPHOBIA. A symptom of the phrenitis; also a name of the *Hydrophobia*.

ÆROSUS LAPIS. So Pliny calls the *Lapis Calaminaris*, upon the supposition that it was a copper ore.

ÆSTATES. Freckles in the face.

ÆSTPHARA. Incineration, or burning of the flesh, or any other part of the body.

ÆSTUARIUM. Æstuary, or stoves for conveying heats to all parts of the body at once; a kind of vapour-bath. Amb. Parey calls an instrument thus, which he describes for conveying heat to any particular part; and Palmarius De Morb. Contag. gives a contrivance under this name for sweating the whole body.

Stoves, for preserving tender exotic plants from inclement seasons, are also so named.

ÆSTUATIO. The boiling up or rather the fermenting of liquors when mixed.

ÆSTUS VOLATICUS. Sudden heat, which soon goes off, but which for a time reddens the face. Vogel and Cullen place this word as synonymous with *Phlogosis*, or external inflammation. Sauvage ranks it as a variety of the erythrematous inflammation.

ÆTHALES, (from *αει*, always, and *θαλλω*, to be green). House leek.

ÆTHERIA HERBA. *Eryngo*.

ÆTHNA. Subterraneous, invisible, sulphureous fire, which calcines rocks in the earth. The igneous meteors about burning mountains are called *Ethnici*.

ÆTHOLICES, (from *αιθα*, to inflame, or burn). Superficial pustules in the skin, raised by heat, as boils, fiery pustules.

ÆTOI PHLEBES. Eagle veins. According to Ruphus Ephesius, the veins that pass through the temples to the head, were thus called.

ÆTOLION. The *Gratum cnidium*.

ÆTONYCHUM, (from *αετος*, an eagle, and *ονυξ*, a claw, or nail). *Lithospermum*.

AFFION. An Arabic name for opium.

AFFRODINA. Venus.

AFFUSIO, pouring a liquor upon something; but sometimes it means the same as *suffusio*, a cataract.

AFIUN. Opium.

AGA CRETENSIIUM. The small Spanish milk-thistle.

AGALUGI. A name of the *Agalolobum*.

AGEN. Persian lilac.

AGER. The common earth or soil.

AGER NATURÆ. The womb.

AGERATUS LAPIS. A stone used

by cobblers to polish women's shoes. It is gently astringent.

AGES. The palm or hollow of the hand.

AGIS. The thigh.

AGITATORII. Convulsive diseases, or those called clonic.

AGLACTATIO. Defect of milk.

AGLAXIS. Defect of milk.

AGLIA. The same as *Ægides*.

AGLIHES. The division or segments of a head of garlick, which we call cloves.

AGNINA MEMBRANA, *vel Pellisula*. Aetius calls one of the membranes which involve the fœtus by this name, which he derives from its tenderness.

AGNOIA, (from α priv. and $\gamma\iota\gamma\omega\sigma\kappa\alpha\iota$, to know). It is when a patient in a fever forgets his acquaintance.

AGONE. Henbane.

AGONIA, (from α priv. and $\gamma\omicron\sigma\iota\varsigma$, an offspring). Sterility.

AGONOS, (from α priv. and $\gamma\omicron\sigma\iota\varsigma$, an offspring, or $\gamma\omicron\sigma\iota\varsigma$, barren). Hippocrates calls those women so who have not children, though they might have if the impediment were removed.

AGOSTOS, (from $\alpha\gamma\omega$, to bring, or lead). That part of the arm from the elbow to the fingers; also the palm or hollow of the hand.

AGRESTA. Verjuice.

AGRIA. Holly. Also a malignant pustule, of which there are two sorts; one is small, and casts a roughness or redness over the skin, slightly corroding it, smooth about its centre, spreads slowly, and is of a round figure; this sort is cured by rubbing it with the fasting spittle. The second ulcerates, with a violent redness and corrosion, so as to make the hair fall off; it is of an unequal form, and turns leprous; its cure is the application of pellitory of the wall in the manner of a poultice.

AGRIAMPELOS, (from $\alpha\gamma\omicron\iota\varsigma$, wild, and $\alpha\mu\pi\epsilon\lambda\omicron\varsigma$, a vine). The wild vine. Gerard says it is the black briony.

AGRIELÆA, (from $\alpha\gamma\omicron\iota\varsigma$, wild, and $\epsilon\lambda\alpha\iota\alpha$, an olive). The wild olive.

AGRIOCARDAMUM. *Sciatica creffes*.

AGRIOCASTANUM. Earth-nut, or pigaut.

AGRIOCOCCIMELA, (from $\alpha\gamma\omicron\iota\varsigma$, wild, $\kappa\omicron\kappa\kappa\omicron\varsigma$, a berry, and $\alpha\mu\lambda\epsilon\alpha$, an apple-tree). The *prunus sylvestris*.

AGRIOMELA. The crab-apple.

AGRIORIGANUM. Wild origanum, or wild marjoram.

ACRIOSTARI. A sort of wheat, called *Triticum creticum*.

AGRIPALMA. Mother-wort.

AGRIPALMA GALLIS. Mother-wort.

AGRUMINA. Onion. Leeks.

AGRYPNOCOMA. A species of coma.

AGYRTÆ, (from $\alpha\gamma\upsilon\epsilon\iota\varsigma$, a croud of people, or a mob; or from $\alpha\gamma\epsilon\iota\varsigma\alpha$, to gather together). It formerly expressed certain strollers who pretended to strange things from supernatural assistances; but of late it is applied to all quack and illiterate dabblers in medicine.

AHAMELLA. The same as *Zemella*.

AHIUS. Salt-stone.

AHMELLA. The same as *Azmella*.

AHUSAL. The sulphur of arsenic.

ALIES. Potatoes.

AILMAD. An Arabian name for antimony.

AIFI. Cassada.

AIPIMA COXERA. Cassada.

AIPIPOCA. Cassada.

AISTHETERIUM, (from $\alpha\iota\sigma\theta\eta\tau\iota\varsigma$, to perceive). The common sensory. Cartesius and others say, it is the pineal gland; Willis says it is where the nerves of the external

senses are terminated, which is about the beginning of the medulla oblongata, (or top of the spinal marrow), in the corpus striatum.

AIZOON. A species of sedum.

AKON. A whetstone.

AL. The Arabian article which signifies *the*; it is applied to a word by way of eminence, as the Greek *o* is. The Easterns express the superlative by adding *God* thereto, as *the mountain of God*, for the highest mountains; and it is probable that *Al* relates to the word *Alla*, God, so *alchemy*, may be *the chemistry of God*, or the most exalted perfection of chemical science.

ALABARI. Lead.

ALACAB. Sal ammoniac.

ALASI, ALAFOR, ALAFORT. Alkaline salt.

ALAI A PHTHISIS, (from *αλαιο*, blind). A washing from a flux of humours from the head.

ALAMED. Antimony.

ALANDAHAL. An Arabian name for bitter apples.

ALANFUTA. A vein betwixt the chin and upper lip.

ALARIS VENA. The inner of the three veins in the bend of the arm.

ALARTAR. Burnt brass.

ALASALET. Sal ammoniacum.

ALATON. Litharge of gold.

ALATERNUS. A species of *Rhamnus*.

ALATI. Those who have prominent scapulæ are so called.

ALAU RAT. Nitre.

ALBA TERRA. The matter of the philosopher's stone is so called.

ALBADARA. An Arabic name of the sesamoid bone of the first joint of the great-toe. See *Sesamoides*.

ALBAGIAZI. An Arabic name of the os sacrum.

ALBAMENTUM. The white of an egg.

ALBANUM. Salt of urine.

ALBARA. A species of white leprosy.

ALBAGRAS NIGRA. So Avicenna names the *Lepra Ichthyosis*. Others name the *Lepra Græcorum* thus.

ALBATIO. A chemical term which signifies whitening, called blanching of metal.

ALBERAS. An Arabic name for the *Staphis agria*.

ALBESTON. Quick-lime.

ALBETAD. Galbanum.

ALBIMEC. Orpiment.

ALBINUM. Gnaphalium.

ALBIR. Pitch got from the bark of yew-trees.

ALBOR. Urine.

ALBORA. A sort of itch; or rather of leprosy. Paracelsus says, it is a complication of the morpew, serpigo, and leprosy. When cicatrices appear in the face like the serpigo, and then turn to small blisters of the nature of the morpew, it is the albora. It terminates without ulceration, but by fetid evacuations in the mouth and nostrils; it is also seated in the root of the tongue.

ALBORCA. Mercury.

ALBOT. A crucible.

ALBOTAT. Cerufs.

ALBOTIM. Turpentine.

ALBUGINOUS HUMOUR. So the aqueous humour of the eye hath been called.

ALBUGO OCULORUM. The white speck on the eyes. The Greeks named it *Leucoma*; the Latins, *Albugo*, *Nebula*, and *Nubecula*; some ancient writers have called it *Pterygium*, *Pannus Oculi*, *Onyx*, *Unguis*, and *Ægides*. It is a variety of Cullen's *Caligo Corneæ*. With us it hath various appellations, as a cicatrice, film, haw, a dragon, pearl, &c. Some distinguish this disorder by *nubecula* when it is superficial; and *albugo* when it is deep. Others make the following distinctions, viz.

when the speck is of a shining white, and without pain, it is called a cicatrice; when of an opaque whiteness, an albugo; seated superficially it hath been called a speck; and more deeply a dragon; if an abscess was the cause, its contents hardening between the laminae of the cornea, causes it to project a little, and then it is called a pearl.

ALBUM BALSAMUM. The balsam of Capivi.

ALBUM CANIS. *Album græcum.*

ALBUM GRÆCUM. The white dung of dogs. It was formerly applied as a discutient, to the inside of the throat, in quinies, being first mixed with honey.

ALBUM HISPANIÆ. *Album hispanicum.*

ALBUM HISPANICUM. It is made from tin, in the same manner as Ceruse is made from lead.

ALBUM OLUS. Lamb's lettuce, or corn-sallad.

ALBUM NIGRUM. Mouse dung.

ALBUM JUS. White broth. Boil whiting, haddock, cod, or any such white-grained fish, in water, with a little oil; also a small quantity of anise and leeks. When this is par-boiled, add a little salt.

ALCA. The bird called Auk, or Razor-bill.

ALCAHEST. An Arabic word to express an universal dissolvent, which was pretended to by Paracelsus and Helmont. Some say that Paracelsus first used this word, and that it is derived from the German words *al* and *geest*, i. e. *all spirit*. Van Helmont borrowed the word, and applied it to his invention which he called the universal dissolvent. If Helmont had an universal dissolvent, what held it?

ALCAHEST. A name of the liquor of flints.

ALCAHEST GLAUBERI. Fixed vegetable alkaline salt.

ALCAOL. The *lac acetosum*, *sive mercurius*, *vel philosophorum*; so the solvent for the preparation of the philosopher's stone is called.

ALCARA. A cucurbit.

ALCEBRIS VIVUM. *Sulphur vivum.*

ALCHABRIC. *Sulphur vivum.*

ALCHACHIL. Rosemary.

ALCHARITH. Quicksilver.

ALCHERON LAPIS. The stone in the gall-bladder of a bull, cow, or ox, called *Bezoar bovinus*.

ALCHIEN. This word occurs in the *Theatrum Chymicum*, vol. v. and seems to signify that power in nature by which all corruption and generation are effected.

ALCHIMELECH. The Egyptian melilot.

ALCHITRAN. Oil of juniper. Also the name of a dentifrice of Mesue's.

ALCHYMY. A composition of copper with a small quantity of arsenic, which mixture resembles silver.

ALCHYS. A speck on the pupil of the eye, somewhat obscuring vision.

ALCIMAD. Antimony.

ALCOB. Sal ammoniac, also burnt brass.

ALCOCALUM. Artichoke.

ALCOFOL. Antimony.

ALCOHOL MARTIS. The filings of iron rusted by adding wine to them. When the whole is rusted, pure water is added to it, until all that is vinous is washed away, and the remaining powder is the alcohol.

ALCOHOL. Vinegar.

ALCOLA. *Aphthæ*. Paracelsus says it is the tartar or excrement of urine, whether it appears as sand, mucilage, or otherwise.

ALCOLITA. Urine.

ALCOLISMUS. Reducing any thing to powder by corrosion.

ALCONE. Brass.

ALCOOL. Alcohol.

ALCOR. Burnt copper.

ALCORE. A sort of stone with spots resembling silver.

ALCTE. Hippocrates mentions a plant by this name, and Foësius thinks it is the elder.

ALCUBRITH. Sulphur.

ALCYONIUM. Bastard sponge, a spongy plant-like substance, which is met with on the sea-shore: it is of different shapes and colours. It is difficult to say what the Greeks called by this name. Dioscorides speaks of five sorts of it.

ALBADARA. An Arabic name of the sesamoid bone of the great-toe.

ALEC, ALECH. Vitriol.

ALECHARITH. Quicksilver.

ALECTOROLOPHUS. Yellow-rattle.

ALEION, ἄλειον, copious. Hippocrates uses this word as an epithet for water.

ALEIPHA, ἄλιφα. Any medicated oil.

ALELAION. It is oil beat up with salt, to apply to tumors. Galen frequently used it.

ALEMA, ἄλμα. Meal.

ALEMBIC. Quicksilver.

ALEMBROTH. A Chaldee word importing the key of art. Some explained it by *sal mercurii*, or *sal philosophorum & artis*; others say it is named *alembrot* and *sal fusionis*, or *sal fixationis*. *Alembroth desiccatum* is said to be the *sal tartari*; hence this word seems to signify alkaline salt, which opens the bodies of metals by destroying their sulphurs, and promoting their separation from the ores.

ALEMZADAR. *Sal Ammon. Crud.*

ALEMZADAT. *Sal Ammon. Crud.*

ALEPENSIS. A species of ash-tree which produces manna.

ALES. The name of a compound salt. When this word is used as an adjective, it signifies heaped, or

crowded, or condensed. Sometimes it signifies contracted, as *the uterus being contracted*.

ALES CRUDUM. Crude ales, those drops which often fall in the night in June.

ALESCH. The *Alumen Pluvisum*.

ALETON, ἄλητον. Meal, (from ἄλεα, to grind).

ALEURON, ἄλευρον. Meal. (from ἄλεω, to grind). Strictly, it is the meal of wheat, though commonly applied to other sorts.

ALEXICACA. An antidote.

ALEXICACON, (from ἀλέξω, to repel, and κακον, an evil). An amulet against poison.

ALEXIPYRETICUM, ἀλεξιπυρετικός, *Alexipyrëtos*, or *Alexipyretum*, (from ἀλέξω, to drive away, and πυρετός, fever). A remedy for a fever.

ALEXIR. An elixir.

ALEXITERIA, ἀλεξιτηρία. Alexiterials, (from ἀγέξω, and τηρεω, preservative from contagion). Hippocrates used the word to express help, or remedies; but latter writers use it to express remedies against the poisonous bites of animals. By Castillus this word is considered as synonymous with *Alexipharmaca*.

ALFACTA. Distillation.

ALFADIDOM. The scoria of gold, iron, or copper. Also burnt copper.

ALFATIDE. *Sal ammoniac*.

ALFIDES. *Ceruse*.

ALFOL. *Sal ammoniac*.

ALFUSA. *Tutty*.

ALGALI. *Nitre*.

ALGALI. A catheter.

ALGARAH. *Anchilops*.

ALGEROT. See *Algerothi Pulvis*.

ALGEROTHI PULVIS. *Algeroth's powder*, so called from *Victorius Algeroth*, a physician of Verona, and its inventor. It is the same as the *Mercurius Vita*. It is only the

antimonial part of the butter of antimony, separated from some of its acid by washing it in water. It is tasteless, but violently emetic: or, as Mr. Beaumé observes, it is the reguline part of the antimony deprived of all acid and almost of all its phlogiston. The small portion of phlogiston which it still contains is the cause of its emetic quality.

ALGATA. Civet.

ALGEMA, αλγημῶν, or *Algematodes*. Uneasiness, pain. Hippocrates often used the word αλγημῶν to signify the disease whence the pain proceeds.

ALGERIÆ, *Algerie*. Lime.

ALGEROTH. See *Algerothi Pulvis*.

ALGIBIC. *Sulphur vivum*.

ALGIDA. Algid, numb, chill, withered.

ALHAGI. A species of *Hedysarum*.

ALHANDALA. An Arabian name for colocynth.

ALHASEF. A sort of pustule, called also *Hydroa*.

ALICA, χοιράκιον. In general signification, a grain, a sort of food admired by the ancients; it is not certain whether it is a grain or a preparation of some kind thereof.

ALICES. Little red spots in the skin, which precede the eruption of pustules in the small-pox.

ALINDESIS, ἀλινδῆσις. A bodily exercise, which seems to be rolling on the ground, or rather in the dust, after being anointed with oil. Hippocrates says it hath nearly the same effect as wrestling.

ALKALIA. A vessel.

ALKARA, *Alcara*. A cucurbit.

ALKASA. A crucible.

ALKERMES. A confection made of the juice of *Kermes* berries, &c. whose first prescribed it.

ALKERVA. An Arabian name for the *Palma Christi*, and also for the *Ol. Ricini*.

ALKES. Burnt brass.

ALKETRAN. An Arabian name for the oil of *Cedar*.

ALKIN. Pot-ash.

ALKITRAM. Tar.

ALCOL. *Alcohol*.

ALKOSOR. Camphor.

ALKI PLUMBI. It seems to be the *Sacch. Saturni*.

ALLIAR ÆRIS. Philosophical copper. It is a term used in preparing the philosopher's stone.

ALLOITICUM, ἀλλοιωτικόν, (from ἀλλοιῶν, to alter, or vary; an alterative medicine.

ALLOCHOOS, ἀλλοχοῦς. One who talks deliriously.

ALLOGNOON, (from ἄλλος, another, and γινω, to know). To be delirious.

ALMA. Water; and the first motion of a foetus to free itself from its confinement.

ALMABRI. A stone-like amber.

ALMAGRA. Red earth. Rulandus says it is the same as *Lotio*. In the *Theatr. Chym.* it is a name for the white sulphur of the alchemists.

ALMAKANDA. Litharge.

ALMARCARIDA. Litharge of silver.

ALMARGEN, ALMARAGO. Coral.

ALMARKASITA. Mercury.

ALMARTAK. Powder of litharge.

AMATATICA. Copper.

ALMECASITE, ALMECHASITE. Copper.

ALMELILETU. A word used by Avicenna, to express a preternatural heat less than that of a fever, and which may continue after a fever.

ALMENE. Sal lucidum, or sal gem.

ALMISA. Musk.

ALMISADIR. Prepared sal ammon. Also verdigris.

ALNEC. Tin.

ALNERIC. *Sulphur vivum*.

ALOEDARIA, ἀλοεδάρια. Compound purging medicines, so called from having aloes as one ingredient.

ALOGOTROPHIA, (from αλογος, disproportionate, and τρεφω, to nourish). Unequal nourishment, as in the rickets.

ALOHAR. Quicksilver.

ALOHOC. Quicksilver.

ALOMBA. Lead.

ALOOC. Lead.

ALOPECES. The muscles called *Psoæ*.

ALOPECIA. Baldness, or the falling off of the hair, from α. ὠ. τηξ, a fox, because the fox is subject to a distemper that resembles it: or, as some say, because the fox's urine will occasion baldness.

ALOSAT. Quicksilver.

ALOSOHOC. Quicksilver.

ALOSANTHI. Flower of salt.

ALPHABETICUM CHYMICUM. Raymond Lully hath given the world this alphabet, but to what end is difficult to say.

A significat Deum.

B ——— Mercurium.

C ——— Salis Petram.

D ——— Vitriolum.

E ——— Menstruale.

F ——— Lunam claram.

G ——— Mercurium Nostrum.

H ——— Salem purum.

I ——— Compositum Lunæ.

K ——— Compositum Solis.

L ——— Terram compositi Lunæ.

M ——— Aquam compositi Lunæ.

N ——— Æram compositi Lunæ.

O ——— Terram compositi Solis.

P ——— Aquam compositi Solis.

Q ——— Ærem compositi Solis.

R ——— Ignem compositi Solis.

S ——— Lapidem Album.

T ——— Medicinam corporis rubei.

— Calorem sumi secreti.

— Ignem siccum cineris.

— Calorem balnei.

Z ——— Separationem Liquorum.

Z ——— Alembicum cum cucurbita.

ALPHENIC. An Arabian word for barley-sugar, or sugar-candy.

ALPHITA. Pl. of ἀλφιτον, the meal of barley in general. By Hippocrates this term is applied to barley-meal either toasted or fried. Galen says that κριμα is coarse meal, ἀλευρον is fine meal, and ἀλφιτα is a middling sort.

ALPHITEDON. It is when a bone is broken into small fragments like *Alphita*, i. e. bran.

ALPINI BALSAMUM. Balm of Gilead.

ALQUIFON. A sort of lead ore which, when broken, looks like antimony. It is used by potters to glaze their coarser earthen wares and is called from thence, potter's ore. The potters mix a small portion of manganese with it, and thus give a blackish hue to the glazing.

ALRACHAS. Lead.

ALRATICA. A word used by Albucasis, to signify a partial or total imperforation of the vagina. It is an Arabic word.

ALSAMACH. An Arabic name for the great hole in the os petrosum.

ALSURENGIAM. An Arabic name for Hermodactyls.

ATAFOR. Camphor.

ALTHANACA. *Althanacha*. Opiment.

ALTHEBEGIUM. An Arabic name for a sort of swelling, such as is observed in cachectic and leucophlegmatic habits, and such as is seen under the eye-lids of those who sleep too much.

ALTHEXIS, (from αλθεειν, to cure or heal). Hippocrates often uses this word to signify the cure of a distemper.

ALTIHIT. So Avicenna calls the *Laserpitium* of the ancients.

ALTIMER. Burnt copper.

ALTIMIO. The scoria of lead.

ALTINCAR. A sort of factitious salt used in the separation of metals.

ALTINGAT. Rust of copper, or flowers of copper.

ALTINURAUM. Vitriol.

ALITH. Asafoetida.

ALTUS. When this word is joined to *sopor*, it means sound sleep, as in a lethargy.

ALNACH. Pure tin.

AL-UD. An Arabic name of *Agallochum*.

ALUDIT. Mercury.

ALUMHAIR. Butter.

ALUMBOTI. Calcined lead.

ALUMEN CATENUM. *Alumen Catinum*. Potash.

ALUMEN GLACIALE. So alum that appears like ice was called by the ancients.

ALUTA ÆGYPTIA. Leather so prepared as to be fit to spread plasters on.

ALYCE, *αλυειν*. Anxiety. That anxiety which is attendant on fevers.

ALYPIA, *Alypias*. The *Alyium*.

ALYPTUM, (from *a* priv. and *λυπν*, pain). The herb terrible, a species of *Globularia*.

ALYSMOS, (from *αλυσμος*, uneasiness, or anxiety). Hippocrates uses to express that uneasiness that is attendant on acute diseases, which makes patients toss about, and prevents their resting long in the same posture. Duretus distinguishes between the *αλυσμος ανεμετος*, and the *αλυσμος ναυτιδος*. The first is caused by an oppression of the vital powers; the latter by sickness in the stomach; but of this alysmos (i. e. anxiety) there are reckoned four sorts; two with, and two without fever. 1. Without fever, from something uneasy in the stomach. Uneasiness of the stomach by sympathy, from a stone in the kidneys, &c.

produce this disorder. 2. Without fever, from vapours or spasm in the stomach, or other viscera in the belly. 3. With fever, from a difficulty of the blood passing through the lungs. 4. With fever, from a stricture of the vena portarum.

ALYSSOIDES, from its resemblance to *Alyssum*.

ALYSSON. A name of some species of *Veronica*.

ALYSSON. Madwort, a species of *Marrubium*.

ALYSSUM. Madwort, a genus in Linnæus's botany. He enumerates seventeen species. The alyssum of Galen is thought to be a species of *Marrubium*. The *alyssum* of Pliny is supposed to be the *Mollugo*.

AMALAGO. Jamaica long-pepper tree, a species of *Piper*.

AMANITA. The fungous productions called mushrooms, truffles, &c.

AMARACUS. *Majorana*.

AMARANTOIDES. A species of *Axyris*.

AMARANTHOIDES, (from *αμαρανθιν*, *amaranthus*, and *ειδος*, *forma*). Globe-amaranth, or everlasting flower.

AMARELLA. A species of *Gentiana*.

AMARELLA. So Gesner names the *Polygala*.

AMATORIA. *Febris Amatoria*. The fever of lovers: also the *Chlorosis*. Vogel defines it to be a fever of a few hours continuance, beginning with a great degree of coldness, and arising from eager expectation.

AMBA. A name of the mango-tree.

AMBARUM. Ambergris.

AMBARVALIS, (from the Latin word *ambire*). A name of the *Polygala*, or milk-wort.

AMBE, (*αμβν*, a lip, edge, or border). An instrument used in dissections of the humerus. Gale

plains the word *ambe*, by *οφρυωνος επιρυς*, an eminence like a border, and says that the whole machine takes that name, because its extremity runs out with an edge like the lip or brim of a pot, towards the interior cavity, which, as well as the edge or border of any thing on the top or extremity, are signified by the word *ambe*.

AMBE. A name of the tree called *Manga*.

AMBFLA. A Turkish, Arabian, and Persian name for a tree called *Charamais*; in English the purging cornered hazel-nut.

AMBERBOI, ferrated-leaved, fistulous-flowered, sweet sultan, a species of *Centaurea*.

AMBIA MONARD, a yellow liquid bitumen, smelling *Tacamabacca*. It flows from a fountain near the Indian sea; its medicinal properties are the same as those of *tacamahacca*, or of *coranna*.

AMBLYOGMOS, from *αμβλυ*, dull, dullness of sight. Hippocrates uses this word, and *Amblyosmos*, to express the same thing.

AMBON, *αμβον* the edge of the sockets in which the heads of the large bones are lodged.

AMBOINENSIS, a species of *Rumphia*.

AMBROSIA. A sounding title given to medicines which were pretended of uncommon efficacy for supporting the principles of life, and procuring a kind of immortality.

AMBULO. The name of a disease, called also *flatulentus*, and *furius*, and *flatus furiosus*. It is a distention or inflation attended with pain, and variously periodical.

AMBUTUA. *Pareira Brava*.

AMADANUS. The common *Alnus*.

AMELANCHIER. A sort of bilberry; the *Vitis Idea tertia Clusii* of infon.

ELANCHIER. A species of

Mespilus. Also a variety of *Cydonia*.

AMENENOS, (from *α* priv. and *μενος*, strength, weak, feeble). In this sense Hippocrates often uses this word.

AMENTUM. *Scissile alum*.

AMERI. A name for indigo.

AMERICANUM TUBEROSUM. The potatoe.

AMETHYSTAPHARMACA, (from *α* priv. and *μεν*, wine). Medicines which either prevent, or take away the inebriating effects of wine.

AMICULUM. A covering for the pubes, when the boys exercised in the Gymnasium. It is also used in the same sense as the word *Amnios*.

AMIDUM. *Amylum*.

AMINÆ GUM. *Gum Anime*.

AMINIA. The name of a sort of cotton-tree.

AMISADU. Prepared sal ammoniac.

AMMA. The name of a girdle or truss, used in ruptures to hinder the intestines from bearing down too much.

AMMOIDES. A species of *Seseli*.

AMMION. Cinnabar.

AMMITOS. *Ammonites*, (from *αμμος*, sand, a sandy stone). Some are small as poppy-seed: others large as a hazel nut. When as large as a pea they are called *Mineral bezoar*. They are found near Bern in Switzerland.

AMMOCHOSIA. A remedy for drying the body by covering it with hot sand or salt. It is of the same efficacy as insolation. Salt is better than sand.

AMMONITRUM, (from *αμμος*, sand and *νιτρον*, nitre). In our glass-house this is called *frit*.

AMMA ALCALIZATA. Paracelsus says it is water which runs through lime-stones, and so is impregnated with lime. Rulandus calls it *Amni Alcalizatus*.

AMOGABRIEL. Cinnabar.

AMOMIS. A fruit resembling *Amomum*; it is also called *Pseudo-amomum*.

AMOMUM PLINII. The *Pseudo-Nappicum*.

AMOR INSANUS. The same as *Erotomania*.

AMORGE. The fæces of oil.

AMOSTEUS. Osteocolla.

AMOTES. Potatoes.

AMPAR. Amber.

AMPELION. Vine-leaves, or the tendrils of vines. Hippocrates recommends them for making into pessaries, to promote the menses with.

AMPELITES. Canal-coal. It is more bitumous than that in common use with us.

AMPELOPRASUM. Great round-headed garlic, a species of allium.

AMPELOS. Briony.

AMPHIERANCHIA, (from *αμφι*, about, and *βραγχια*, the gills of a fish). The fauces, or parts about the tonsils.

AMPHICAUSTIS. A sort of wild barley. Some, but not medical writers, use this word to express the *rudenda muliebria*.

AMPHIDEON OR AMPHIDEUM, *αμφιδιον*. The *Os tinca*, or mouth of the womb.

AMPHIMETRION, (from *αμφι*, about, and *μετρα*, the womb). The parts about the womb.

AMPHIPLEX. According to Rufus Ephesius, it is the part situated betwixt the *Scrotum*, *Anus*, and internal part of the thighs.

AMPHIPNEUMA, (from *αμφι*, about, and *πνευμα*, the breath). A difficulty of breathing.

AMPHISMILA. An anatomical knife, that is edged on both sides, (from *αμφι*, *utrinque*, on both sides, and *σμιλην*, *cultellus*, a knife).

AMPHODONTA, (from *αμφι*, on both sides, and *οντα*, a tooth) By this word Hippocrates expresseth animals that have teeth in both jaws.

AMPHORA, *αμφορεα*. A measure

mentioned by ancient physical writers, containing eight gallons; of oil 72 pounds; of wine 80 pounds; and of honey 180 pounds, as Castellus informs us.

AMPOTIS, *αμπωτις*. The recess or ebb of the tide. Hippocrates uses this word to express the recess of the humours from the circumference to the center of the body.

AMUCTICA, (from *αμυσσω*, to vellicate). Remedies that by vellicating, and stimulating the bronchia raise a cough, and so contribute to the discharge of what is in the lungs.

AMULETUM. An Amulet. Amulets and charms are so nearly allied, that they may be considered as being the same. They are formed of any materials that fancy suggests. They seem to have been artfully introduced, to impose a belief in those not in the secret, that those who were exercising them were in particular favour with some superior being. This gave the people a venerable idea of the practitioner, and so the vulgar were more easily prevailed on to submit implicitly to them; and as the mind affects the body, so in some cases the persuasion of the patient might contribute to a cure.

AMURCA, *αμοργη*. The sediment from olive oil, after being new pressed from the fruit.

AMYCHE, *αμυχη*. A superficial exulceration, laceration, or scarification of the skin; (from *αμυσσω*, to scratch).

AMYCTICA. Stimulating, vellicating.

AMYGDALIA. So Hippocrates calls the tonsils.

AMYGDALUS ÆTHIOPICA. A species of *Brabejum*.

AMYLEON. Starch.

AMYLION. Starch.

AMYON, (from *α* priv. and *μυς*, a muscle). A limb so emaciated that the muscles scarce appear.

ANABASIS, (αναβασις, from αναβαινω, to ascend). It is sometimes used for the height of a continued fever *Febris anabaptica* is the same as *Erasmassica*.

ANABEXIS, αναβηξις. A word used by Galen for a ptyalism.

ANABOLE, (αναβολη, from αναβαλλω, to cast up). The discharging any thing as by vomit.

ANABROCHISMOS, or **ANABROCHISMUS**, (αναβροχισμος, from ανα, sursum, and βροχος, a noose). An operation which was used to be performed on the hair of the eye-lids when they are offensive to the eye.

ANABROSIS, (αναβρωσις, from αναβρωσκω, to devour). A corrosion of the solid parts by sharp humours. The same as *Diabrosis*. It occasions a discharge of blood, and often happens in the lungs.

ANACATHARTICA. Anacathartic, is what works upwards, (from ανα, supra, upwards, and καθαιρω, purgo, to purge); and by Hippocrates and Galen was strictly confined to spitting, with whom Blasius pretty much agrees in restraining it to expectoration only; though Blanchard uses it for all things which work by the glands of the head, as well as to vomits and sternutatories.

ANACPREPSIS, (αναχρηψις, from ανα for ανα, upwards, and χρεμπιτομαι, to hawk). The hawking up any thing from the lungs.

ANACLISIS, (ανακλισις, from ανακλιω, to recline). Hippocrates uses this word to express the decubiture of the sick.

ANACOELIASMUS. A remedy used by Diocles, which seems to have been gentle purges, with a view to relieve the lungs.

ANACOLLEMA, (ανακολλημα, from ανακολλαω, to agglutinate). It is the same as frontale, only that it is always made of glutinants.

ANACOMIDE, ανακομιδη, from ανακομιζω, to repair, or recover a person after sickness.

ANACTORION. - A name of the corn flag.

ANACTORIUM. Mugwort.

ANACYCLEON, (ανακυκλεω, from κυκλω, to wander about). It answers to the word *Circulator*, a mountebank.

ANADIPLOSIS, αναδιπλωσις. A frequent reduplication of fevers.

ANADOSIS, (αναδοσις, from αναδωμι, to distribute). The distribution of the aliment over all the body.

ANADROME, (αναδρομη, from δρεμω, to run). Hippocrates uses this word to signify pains from the lower to the upper parts of the body.

ANAGARGALICTA, αναγαργαλιχτα. Gargarisms.

ANAGARGARISTON, αναγαργαριστον. A gargarism for the throat.

ANAGLYPHE, (from αναγλυφω, to engrave). Herophilus calls a part of the fourth ventricle of the brain thus. Anatomists now call it *Calamus scriptorius*, from its resemblance to a pen.

ANALENTIA. A species of epilepsy mentioned by Paracelsus.

ANALEPSIA. Johannes Anglicus calls that species of epilepsy thus, which proceeds from the stomach being disordered.

ANALGESIA, (from α priv. and αλγος, pain or grief). Indolence or absence of pain and grief. A state of ease.

ANALTHES, (αναλθεις, from α priv. and αλθεω, to cure). Incurable.

ANAMNESTICA, αναμνηστικα. Medicines which restore the memory.

ANAMNESTICA SIGNA, (from ανα, and μεταομαι, to remember). Commemorative signs, i. e. signs which discover the preceding state of the body, as demonstrative signs shew the present, and prognostics shew the future state. Blanchard explains this word as expressing remedies which restore the memory.

ANAPHALANTIASIS, αναφαλαντιασις. A thinness of the hair upon the eye-brows.

ANAPHORA, (αναφορα, from αναφερω, to bring up, or upwards). In a medical sense it imports spitting of blood if joined with αιματος.

ANAPHORICOI, αναφορικοι. Those who spit blood; or according to Actuarius, those who spit difficultly.

ANAPHRA, (αναφρα, from α priv. and αφρος, froth). Hippocrates uses it as an epithet for stools, to express that they are not frothy.

ANAPHROMELI, (from α priv. and αδρος, froth, and μελι, honey). It is honey so despumated that it will not froth.

ANAPLASIS, (αναπλασις, from αναπλασσω, to restore to the original form). Hippocrates uses this word for the replacing a fractured bone, and for a restoration of flesh.

ANAPLEROSIS, (αναπληρωσις, from αναπληρωα, to fill up). The restitution of any wasted part. Incarnatives are called *Anapleurotica*. Barbet frequently mentions this term.

ANAPLEUSIS, (αναπλευσις, from αναπλευω, to fluctuate, or float upon, or to wash out). Hippocrates uses this word to express when faulty humours rot the bone, so that it falls out of its joint, as happens to the jaw sometimes. Vogel expresses by this word, the scaling or separation of the carious parts of a bone.

ANAPNEUSIS, (αναπνευσις, from αναπνεω, to respire, respiration, transpiration). Aretæus uses it to express a truce from pain.

ANAPODOPHYLLON. Duck-foot, or May apple. The Americans call it black-snake root.

ANAPSYXIS, αναψυξις. Refrigeration.

ANARRHINUM, αναρρινον. Returning by the nostrils.

ANARRHŒA, (from ανα, upwards, and ρεω, to flow). A flux of humours from below upwards. A species of fluxion opposite to a catarrh,

when humours regurgitate upwards, used by Schneider de Catarrho, lib. i. cap. 3. Hippocrates expresses the same by *Anarrhopia*, αναρροπια, and Linden uses it for an inversion of the intestines, and a regurgitation of the fæces.

ANARRHOPIA, (αναρροπια, from ανα, upwards, and ρεπω, to verge). A tendency of humours to verge or incline upwards, or towards the superior parts.

ANARTHROI, (αναρθροι, from α priv. and αρθρον, a joint). Fat, even to be bloated, so that the joints are obliterated.

ANASPASIS, (ανασπασις, from ανα, and σπaw, to draw). Hippocrates uses this word to express a contraction in the stomach.

ANASSUTOS, (ανασουτος, from ανω, upwards, and σουταμι, to shake). Hippocrates uses this word as an epithet to air, when speaking of the suffocation observed in hysseric fits, and the air rushing out with violence upwards.

ANASTALTICA, (ανασταλτικα, from αναστελλω, to contract). Styptic or restraining medicine.

ANASTOMOTICA. Medicines are thus called that open the mouths of the vessels.

ANATES. A disease of the anus.

ANATHRON. A salt found on rocks in the form of white stoney moss.

ANATHYMIASIS, (from θυμιaw, to fumigate). It signifies evaporation.

ANATRESIS, (from αν, and τραω, to perforate). Galen uses this word to express trepanning.

ANATRIS. Mercury.

ANATRON. The natron of the Egyptians. It is the mineral alkaline salt.

ANATROPE, (ανατροπη, from ανα-τροπω, to subvert). A subversion or relaxation of the stomach, with loss

of appetite and nausea. It is a species of indigestion. Vogel says it is a want of appetite with nausea.

ANATUM. Egg-shells.

ANAUDIA. A name of the *Catalepsis*.

ANAUDOS, (*αναυδος*, from *a* priv. and *αυδη*, speech). Galen says it means one who hath lost the use of speech, but retains his voice; whereas *aphonia* signifies the loss of the voice.

ANAXIRIS. A name of the *Lathyrus agrestis*.

ANBLATUM. A species of *Lathyrus*.

ANCHA. The *Coxa*.

ANCHÆLOS. The thigh-bone.

ANCHYLOMERISMA. In Sagar's Nosology it signifies a concretion, or growing together of the soft parts.

ANCHYNOPES. A name of ray-grass.

ANCI. Weasel-elbowed, (from *γαλη*, a weasel, and *αγκων*, an elbow). As when of the head of the humerus or shoulder bone is in the arm-pit. These patients are also called *Musellanea*.

ANCINAR. Borax.

ANCORA. Lime.

ANCOSA. Lacca.

ANCTER, *αγκτηρ*. The Greek term for the fibula, or button, by which the lips of wounds are held together, which operation Galen calls *Anderiaismus*, *αγκτηριασμος*.

ANCUBITUS. That affection of the eyes in which they seem to contain sand. It is also called *Petrification*.

ANCUS. A name for such as have an arm bent, so that they cannot extend it; from *αγκων*, an elbow.

ANCYLE, *αγκυλη*. Strictly signifies a constriction upon the joints, which renders their motion difficult: in which sense Galen uses it. Celsus expresses by it, that hindrance to motion which proceeds from a fresh

cicatrix upon the part; and Hippocrates applies it to indurated joints from any cause.

ANCYLOGLOSSUM, (*αγκυλοβλεφαρον*, from *αγκυλος*, crooked, and *γλωσσα*, the tongue). A contraction of the ligaments of the tongue (called its *frænum*); tongue-tied.

ANCYLOTOMUS, (from *αγκυλος*, crooked, and *τεμνω*, to cut). Any crooked knife used in surgery.

ANCYROIDES, *αγκυροειδης*. A process of the scapula, so called from *αγκυρα*, anchor, *ευγχος*, a beak, or fluke, and *ειδος*, form. See *Coracoid Process*.

ANDRACHNE. Eastern strawberry-tree; a species of *Arbutus*.

ANDRANATOME, (from *ανης*, a man, and *τεμνω*, to cut). The dissection of a human body, especially a male.

ANDRIA, (from *ανης*, a man.) An hermaphrodite.

ANDROGYNI, (*ανδρογυναι*, from *ανης*, a man, and *γλυ*, a woman). Effeminate men, and hermaphrodites.

ANDROSACEUS. A species of *Agaricus*.

ANDROSAMOIDES. A species of *Myrtus*.

ANDSJUDAEN. So Avicenna calls the *Assafetida*.

ANEBION. Alkanet root.

ANECPYETUS, (*ανεκπυετος*, from *a* priv. and *εκπυετος*, suppurated). That which will not suppurate.

ANEILEMA, (*ανειλημα*, or *Aneilefis*, *ανειλησις*, from *ανειλεα*, to roll up, or involve). An involution, such as is caused by flatulence and gripes.

ANEMIA. Thus Hippocrates names a disease; but it is not known what.

ANENCEPHALOS, (*ανεγκεφαλος*, from *a* priv. and *εγκεφαλος*, the brain). Brainless, or those who are born without brains. Also those who are foolish or mad.

ANEPITHYMIÆ. Error of ap-

petite by deficiency, as in instances of *Anorexia*.

ANERIC, ANERIT. *Sulphur vivum*.

ANEROTOMY, (from *ανηρ*, a man, and *τεμνω*, to cut). It is strictly the dissection of human bodies.

ANET. *Anethum*.

ANETHOXYLA. The woody root of dill.

ANFAKA. A coagulum.

ANFIAN. An Arabian word for *Opium*.

AN-FIR-FILIUS. Mercury.

ANGI. So Fallopius, in his *De Morbo Gallico*, calls the venereal buboes in the groin.

ANGIGLOSSI. Stammerers.

ANGIOPTERIS. A name of the *Onoclea*.

ANGONE. In Vogel's genera of diseases, it is an acute choaking or suffocation, without inflammation. According to some, it is a nervous quinsy.

ANGOR, *αγωνα*. Is defined a shrinking inwards in the native heat of the body, or its retiring to the centre, upon which follows a pain and palpitation of the heart, attended with sadness. It is esteemed a very bad symptom when it happens in the beginning of acute fevers.

ANGOS, *αγγος*. A vessel, a receptacle of humours.

ANGUILLARE. A species of *Pimpinella*.

ANGUSTIA. Anxiety, restlessness in distempers; also a narrowness in the vessels.

ANHUIRA. Sassafras.

ANIADA. The astral and celestial powers which promote in us long life.

ANIADON, *Aniadum*, *Aniadus*. Words used by Paracelsus; and mean the same with *Aniada*.

ANICETUM. Insuperable; a name of the *Anise*.

ANIDROS, (from *α* priv, and *ιδρω*, to sweat). Sweatless.

ANIDROSIS, *ανιδρωσις*. A privation of sweat.

ANIMA HEPATIS. Salt of steel; esteemed as the soul of the liver, which this name imports, for its prevalence against its distempers.

ANIMA MUNDI. The soul of the world, an ubiquitarian principle, supposed by Plato to do the same feats as Des Cartes's æther, pervading and influencing all parts and all places.

ANIMA PULMONUM. A name given to saffron, on account of its use in asthmas.

ANIMELLÆ. The glandules underneath the ears, and all along under the lower jaw, have been thus named.

ANNETESTES. So Paracelsus calls the Galenists, by way of derision, because he thought them ignorant of the causes and principles of things.

ANNORA. Calcined egg-shells or quick-lime.

ANNOTATIO. The very beginning of a febrile paroxysm, called also the attack of the paroxysm. There is another *annotatio* or *epifemasia*, which is proper to hectic fevers happening an hour or two after eating: in this there is no shivering with cold, as in the other sort.

ANNUENS MUSCULUS. The *Rectus Capitis Internus Minor*.

ANNULUS. This is variously applied by physical writers: Quercetan in his *Med. Hermet.* describes some *Annuli purgatorii*; Libavius treats of *Annuli* as charms against colics and epilepsies: Scultetus gives this appellation to instruments contrived to hold open the eye or like parts in some operations; and Zecchini *De Morbo Gallico* directs an *annulus aureus* to be held in the mouth to draw away the quicksilver that has been used in venereal cures. The *Cricoides* is also by some called *Annuliformis Cartilago*.

ANO, *ανω*, is used for upwards, in

opposition to *κατω*, downwards, and is often joined by Hippocrates to *χειλια*, *venter*, to signify the mouth of the stomach, or *oesophagus*. It is also applied to things which work upwards, as vomits.

ANOCATHARTICA. Medicines which purge upwards, as emetics.

ANOCHEILON, (from *ανω*, and *χειλος*, a lip). The upper-lip.

ANODMON, (*ανωδμος*, from *α* neg. and *οδμη*, a smell). Without smell. It stands opposed to *fetid*.

ANODUS. A word used by the chemists for what is separated from the nourishment by the kidneys. The Greek word *ανωδης*, from *α* priv. and *οδης*, a tooth, signifies toothless.

ANODYNIA, *ανωδυνια*, A loss of feeling, synonymous with *Anesthesia*.

ANODYNUM MINERALE, i. e. *Sal Prunellæ*, also *Nitrum Stibiatum*.

ANOEA, (*ανοια*, from *α* priv. and *νοος*, the mind). Madness.

ANOMÆOS, *ανομοιος*. Dissimilar or heterogeneous. Hippocrates uses this word for viscous or unnatural humours.

ANOMPHALOS, (from *α* priv. and *ομφαλος*, a navel). Without a navel; and is applicable only to our first parents, as they were created without want of nourishment that way; for which reason, as Paulus Ammianus says, they are so distinguished in paintings and drawings.

ANORECTI, *ανωρεκτοι*. Those who have no appetite.

ANOSIA, (*ανοσια*, from *α* priv. and *νοσος*, a disease). The absence of disease.

ANOTASIER. Sal ammoniac.

ANOTHEN, *ανωθεν*, the same as *Ano*.

ANPATER. Sulphur.

ANTACHATES. A bituminous stone, which in burning smells like myrrh.

ANTATROPHON, (from *αντι*

against, and *ατροφια*, a consumption). Medicines against consumptions.

ANTALABIA. The extremities of the lips.

ANTENDEIXIS, (*αντενδειξις*, from *αντι*, against, and *ενδεικνυμι*, to indicate). A contra-indication. As when one symptom requires a remedy which another symptom forbids the use of.

ANTANEASMUS, *Anteneasnum*. A particular kind of madness; in it the patient is furiously irritated, and endeavours to lay violent hands upon himself.

ANTHEREON, *ανθερων*. Hippocrates uses this word to express the chin, and all that part of the face where the beard grows.

ANTHRACOSIS OCULI, *ανθρακωσις*. A scaly corrosive ulcer of the eye, attended with a defluxion.

ANTHROPE, (from *ανθρωπος*, a man). Thus Herodotus calls the human skin.

ANTIADDES, (*αντιαδες*, the tonsils). It sometimes signifies the tonsils when inflamed.

ANTIAGRI, (from *αντιαδες*, the tonsils, and *αγρα*, a prey). Tumors of the tonsils.

ANTIAS. The tonsils.

ANTICADMIA. A species of *Cadmia*, also called *Pseudocadmia*.

ANTICAR. Borax.

ANTICARDIUM, (from *αντι*, against, and *καρδια*, the heart). It is that part commonly called the *scrobiculus cordis*, or pit of the stomach.

ANTICHEIR, (from *αντι*, against, and *χειρ*, the hand). The thumb of a person's hand.

ANTICNEMION, (from *αντι*, over against, and *κνημιον*, the calf of the leg). Hippocrates uses this word to express that part of the tibia which is bare of flesh.

ANTIDINICA, (from *αντι*, against, and *δινω*, circumgyration). Medicines against a vertigo.

ANTIFIDES. The calx of metals.

ANTIHECTICUM. The name of a medicine invented by Poterus, called also *Antimonium diaphoreticum joviale*.

ANTILOMICA, (from *αντι*, against, and *λοιμ*, the plague). Remedies against the plague.

ANTIPERISTASIS, (*αντιπερισταςις*, from *αντι*, against, and *περιστημι*, to stand about). An opposition from all around. The philosophers who first coined this term, expressed by it a certain invigoration of internal warmth by the repulsion of external cold, which they called also concentration of the internal heat, from driving it to the centre. Or, it is a compressing on all sides, as the air presses.

ANTIPHATE. Black coral.

ANTIPTHORA, (from *αντι*, against, and *φθορα*, corruption). A species of wolf's-bane, which resists corruption.

ANTIPHYSICA, (*αντιφυσικα*, from *αντι*, against, and *φυσικω*, to inflate). Remedies against wind, also called carminatives.

ANTIPHYSON. Load-stone.

ANTIPTAXIA, (from *αντι*, against, and *πρασσω*, to work). A contrariety of functions and temperaments in different parts: and was used by the ancients to express the variety of concurring, and often contrary, symptoms.

ANTISCOLICA, (from *αντι*, against, and *σκωληξ*, a worm, the same as *An. helmintica*).

ANTISCORODON, (from *αντι*, against, and *σκοροδον*, garlick). A large species of garlick called *Allium Ulpicum*.

ANTISPASIS, (*αντισπασις*, from *αντι*, against, and *σπασω*, to draw). A revulsion; the turning of the course of the humours, whilst they are actually in motion. The doctrine of revulsion is the invention of Hippocrates.

ANTISPASMOIDES, from *αντι*, against, and *σπασμ*, a convulsion). A remedy against convulsions.

ANTISPASTICON, *αντισπαστικον*. A general epithet for any medicine that works by way of revulsion.

ANTISTERNON, (*αντιστερον*, from *αντι*, against or opposite to, and *στερον*, the breast). The back is so called, because it is opposite to the breast-bone.

ANTITASIS, (*αντιτασις*, from *αντι*, against, and *τεινω*, to extend). A contra-extension.

ANTIZEUMICS. Preventers of fermentation in general.

ANTIZYMICS. Antiputrescents.

ANTOPHYLLON, *Antophyllus*. The male *Caryophyllus*.

ANTRUM BUCCINOSUM. So Bartholine calls the cochlea of the ear.

ANUCAR. Borax.

ANYDRION. A species of *Solanum*.

APAGMA, *απαγμα*. The thrusting of a bone or other part out of its place.

APARTHROSIS, (*απαρθρωσις*, from *απο*, ab, and *αρθρον*, a joint). A dislocation.

APECHEMA, *απηχημα*, from *απω*, and *ηχος*, a sound). Properly a re-sounding, or the repercussion of sound, i. e. an echo; but in a medical sense it signifies a contra fissure.

APELLA. It is when the glans penis lies bare, either by means of a distemperature, when it is called a paraphymosis; or by circumcision; for which last reason, any circumcised person is thus named.

APEPSIA, (*απεψια*, from *α* priv. and *πεπω*, to digest). Indigestion.

APEPTON, *απεπτον*. Crude or undigested.

APEUTHYSMENOS, (*απευθυσμενος*, from *ευθυς*, straight). A name of the intestinum rectum.

APHÆRESIS, (from *αφαιρω*, to

take away). In surgery it signifies the amputation of whole members, or parts become diseased.

APHILANTHROPIA, (from α neg. and $\phi\iota\lambda\alpha\theta\rho\omega\pi\iota\alpha$, the love of mankind). So Wedelius calls the first approaches of melancholy, when persons begin to dislike company and conversation.

APHONI. So Hippocrates calls those who labour under a caros.

APHRAINON, (from α priv. and $\phi\rho\omega\iota\alpha$, to be wise). One who hath lost the use of his reason.

APHROGALA, ($\alpha\phi\rho\omega\gamma\alpha\lambda\alpha$, from $\alpha\phi\rho\omega\varsigma$, froth, and $\gamma\alpha\lambda\alpha$, milk). No writer hath described this; but what the Romans used under this name seems to be something like what we call syllabub.

APHRONITRUM, ($\alpha\phi\rho\omega\iota\tau\rho\omega\nu$, from $\alpha\phi\rho\omega\varsigma$, spume, and $\iota\tau\rho\omega\nu$, nitre). Spume of nitre. Salts formed of the vitriolic acid, and a terrene or gypseo-calcareous element, are thus called. It is a name also of the *Natron*.

APHROSCORODON, (from $\alpha\phi\rho\omega\varsigma$, spume, or froth). It is a name of the *Allium Ulpicum*.

APHROSELENOS, ($\alpha\phi\rho\omega\sigma\epsilon\lambda\eta\nu\omega\varsigma$, from $\sigma\epsilon\lambda\eta\nu\eta$, the moon). A kind of selenite; so called from its representing the moon as it were in a glass.

APHROSYNE, (from $\alpha\phi\rho\omega\nu$, filly). Folly or dotage.

APNŒA, $\alpha\pi\nu\omega\iota\alpha$. A defect of respiration; such as happens in a cold, an apoplexy.

APOBAMMA, $\alpha\pi\omicron\beta\alpha\mu\mu\alpha$. Water in which hot iron has been quenched.

APOCAPNISMUS, ($\alpha\pi\omicron\kappa\alpha\pi\nu\iota\sigma\mu\omega\varsigma$, from $\kappa\alpha\pi\nu\omega$, smoke). A fumigation.

APOCATHARSIS, $\alpha\pi\omicron\kappa\alpha\theta\alpha\rho\sigma\iota\varsigma$, is used for purging upwards and downwards, either with or without the help of medicines.

APOCAREMMA, $\alpha\pi\omicron\chi\epsilon\mu\mu\alpha$. The matter of spit hawked up.

APOCHREMP SIS, $\alpha\pi\omicron\chi\rho\epsilon\mu\phi\iota\varsigma$. A hawking up of spit.

APOCHYLISMA. The same as the rob of any fruit.

APOCHYMA, $\alpha\pi\omicron\chi\upsilon\mu\alpha$. The pitch which is scraped from ships, formerly esteemed in medicine.

APOCLASMA, $\alpha\pi\omicron\kappa\lambda\alpha\sigma\mu\alpha$. The same as *Abduēio*, or rather *Aragma*.

APOCLEISIS, $\alpha\pi\omicron\kappa\lambda\epsilon\iota\sigma\iota\varsigma$. An exclusion: but Hippocrates uses the word, from whence it is derived, to express a loathing of food.

APOCRUSTICON, ($\alpha\pi\omicron\kappa\rho\upsilon\sigma\tau\iota\kappa\omega\nu$, from $\alpha\pi\omicron\kappa\rho\upsilon\omega$, to repel). An epithet for a remedy of a repelling and astringent quality.

APOCYESIS. A birth, or bringing forth of a child.

APOCYNON. A little bone in the left side of a frog, formerly held in great esteem.

APODACRYTICA, $\alpha\pi\omicron\delta\alpha\kappa\rho\iota\tau\iota\kappa\alpha$. Medicines which first excite, and then evacuate, the superfluous moisture of the eyes, and thus preventing preternatural moisture there. Such are onions, hellebore, &c.

APŒUM, $\alpha\pi\omicron\iota\omega\nu$. Insipid, or void of all sensible qualities, as water is. Galen thinks that insipid aliments are more nourishing than the acrimonious and bitter are.

APOGALACTISMUS, $\alpha\pi\omicron\gamma\alpha\lambda\alpha\kappa\tau\iota\sigma\mu\omega\varsigma$, i. e. *Ablactatio*.

APOGEUSIA. Depraved taste.

APOGEUSIS. Loss of taste.

APOLEPSIS, $\alpha\pi\omicron\lambda\eta\psi\iota\varsigma$. An interception, suppression, or retention, which may be of urine or any other natural evacuation.

APOLEXIS, $\alpha\pi\omicron\lambda\eta\chi\iota\varsigma$. A decaying time of age, and opposed to the flower of age.

APOLINOSIS, ($\alpha\pi\omicron\lambda\iota\nu\omega\sigma\iota\varsigma$, from $\lambda\iota\nu\omega\nu$, flax). So P. Aegineta calls the method of curing a fistula by raw flax.

APOLYSIS, $\alpha\pi\omicron\lambda\upsilon\sigma\iota\varsigma$. A solution or release; such as the exclusion of

a child, the solution of a disease, or untying of a bandage.

ΑΡΟΜΑΘΗΜΑ, (αρομαθημα, from αρι, priv. and μαθανω, to learn). Hippocrates expresses by it, a forgetfulness of all that hath been learnt.

ΑΡΟΜΕΛΙ, αρομελι. It is simple oxymel.

ΑΡΟΝΕΝΟΜΕΝΟΣ, αρονενομενος. An adverb importing an utter aversion to any thing.

ΑΡΟΠΑΛΛΕΣΙΣ, or *Aropalsis*, (αροπαλλεις, αροπαλλεις, from αροπαλλω, to throw off in a hasty manner). An expulsion of the foetus, as in abortion.

ΑΡΟΦΛΕΓΜΑΤΙΣΜΟΣ, (αροφλεγματος, of αρι, from, and φλεγμα, phlegm). A medicine which, by holding it in the mouth, promotes a discharge of phlegm, such as pellitory root, horse radish, &c. When solid, it is called *Masticatorium*.

ΑΡΟΦΡΑΔΕΣ, (αροφραδες, from the singular αροφρας, unfortunate). Those days in which an acute distemper comes to a fatal crisis, or no crisis at all.

ΑΡΟΦΘΑΡΜΑ, αροφθασμα. A medicine to procure abortion.

ΑΡΟΦΥΑΣ, (αροφυαι, of αρι, from, and φυαι, to grow). An appendix. Any thing that grows to or proceeds from another.

ΑΡΟΠΛΕΚΤΑ. A name for the internal jugular vein which ascends by the side of the *Aspera arteria*.

ΑΡΟΠΛΕΚΤΙΚΑ. Medicines against the apoplexy. Vogel says it is a continued fever coming on upon an apoplexy.

ΑΡΟΠΛΕΚΤΙΚÆ. Thus Bartholine calls the internal jugular veins, from an opinion of their being particularly concerned in the disease called *Apoplexy*.

ΑΡΟΨΥΧΙΑ, αροψυχια. The greatest degree of fainting.

ΑΡΟΡΕΞΙΣ. A play with balls, in the gymnastic exercises.

ΑΡΟΡΗΘΕΑ, αρορηθια. Contagion, effluviū.

ΑΡΟΡΡΗΟΕΣ, (from αρορρην, defluo, to flow from). It signifies sulphureous vapours and exhalations from the earth, and subterraneous bodies, as also any kind of infectious steams.

ΑΡΟΣΚΕΠΑΡΝΙΣΜΟΣ, (αροσκεπαρνισμος, from αρο, from, and σκεπαρνιζω, to strike with a hatchet). A species of fracture; and is when part of a bone is chipped off.

ΑΡΟΣΧΑΣΙΣ, αροσχασιν. A scarification; a slight superficial incision of the skin.

ΑΡΟΣΧΑΣΜΟΣ, αροσχασμος, i. e. *Aroschasis*.

ΑΡΟΣΙΤΙΑ, αροσιτια. A loathing of food.

ΑΡΟΣΙΤΟΙ, αροσιτοι. Those who are averse to food.

ΑΡΟΣΦΑΚΕΛΙΣΙΣ, (αροσφακελισις, from αρι, from, and σφακελος, a sphachelus). A mortification of the flesh in wounds or fractures, caused by too tight bandage.

ΑΡΟΣΤΑΓΜΑ, αροσταγμα. The sweet liquor that distils from grapes before they are pressed.

ΑΡΟΣΤΑΛΑΓΜΑ, αροσταλαγμα, i. e. *Aroslagma*.

ΑΡΟΣΤΑΣΙΣ, (αροστασις, from αροστημι, to abscede). It is when a fragment of bone comes away by a fracture. Hippocrates uses the word also, first, when a distemper passes off by some outlet, and this is an *arostasis* by exertion: secondly, when the morbid matter, by its own weight, falls and settles on every part, this is an *arostasis* by settlement: thirdly, when one disease turns to another this is an *arostasis metastasis*. So Pliny calls the *Arostemata*.

ΑΡΟΣΤΑΞΙΣ, αροσταξις. Hippocrates uses this word to express a distillation of blood from the nose. It means any distillation or defluxion of humours.

ΑΡΟΣΤΕΜΑΤΙΑΙ. So Aretzus

calls those who, from an inward abscess, void pus downwards.

APOSTROPHE, (ἀποστροφή, from ἀποστρέφω, to turn away). Thus P. Ægineta expresses an aversion to food.

APOSYRMA, ἀποσυρμα. Abrasion and laceration of the cutis.

APOTHECA, (ἀποθήκη, from ἀποτίθημι, to lay aside, or reposit). It formerly signified a wine-cellar, but now a shop where medicines are sold.

APOTHERAPIA, ἀποθεραπεία. A perfect cure; also a particular sort of exercise used for health.

APOTHURAPEUTICA. That part of medicine which teaches concerning the *Apothepia*.

APOTHESES, (ἀποθέσεις, from ἀποτίθημι, to place). The reduction of a dislocated bone.

APOTHLIMMA, ἀποθλίμμα. The dregs of the expressed juice of a plant.

APOTROPÆA, Ἀποτροπαία. A kind of *Amulets*.

APOZYMOS, (ἀποζυμος, from ζυμη, a ferment). Fermented.

APPENSIO. The suspension of a broken arm in a scarf.

APPREHENSIO. A name of the *Catalepsy*.

APRONIA. Black briony.

APSYCHIA, ἀψυχία. *Lipothymia*.

APTYSTOS, (ἀπτυστος, from ἀ priv. and ὠναι, to spit). An epithet for disorders in which spitting, though an unusual symptom, is yet wanting, as in what is called a dry asthma, a dry pleurisy, &c.

APULOTICUS. The same as *Epu-lotic*.

APYETOS, (from ἀ priv. and πυον, pus). An epithet for a tumor, that will not suppurate.

APYROMELE, ἀπυρομένη. A probe without a button.

APYRON, (ἀπυρον, from ἀ priv. and πῦρ, fire). A name of *Sulphur vivum*; also of the *Æthiops mineralis*, when prepared without fire.

APYROTHIUM. A name of *Sulphur vivum*.

APYROTI. A name of the stone called a carbuncle, from its being without heat, although it appears very fiery.

AQUEOLA. So Sennertus calls that species of sty on the eye-lid, which Sauvage terms *Hordeolum hydatidosum*.

AQUILA ALBA. A name for the *Mercurius dulcis*; for *Sal ammoniac*, &c.

AQUILA CELESTIS. It is the panacea, or cure for all diseases. It is prepared of mercury essentiated.

AQUILA NIGRA. It is the spirit of cobalt.

AQUILA VENERIS. A preparation made with verdigris and sublimed sal ammoniac.

AQUILÆ. The veins were so called which pass through the temples into the head.

AQUILENA. Lark-spur.

AQUULA. A disorder of the eye-lid is thus named by P. Ægineta. He says it is a pinguious substance under the skin of the eye-lid. To cure it, an incision is to be made through the skin, and the cyst is to be dissected out.

ARACOS. Brass.

ARACUS. The wild vetch.

ARACUS AROMATICUS. The *Vanilla*.

ARADOS, ἀραδος. Hippocrates means by it, the perturbation excited in the stomach by digesting the aliment there. It also signifies any perturbation in the body.

ARÆON. Thin, rare, slow. It is applied to breathing, as when we say, the breathing is not frequent, nor thick.

AREOTICA, ἀραιωτικά. Things or medicines which rarefy or attenuate.

ARALDA. A name of the herb called *Fox-glove*.

ARALIA HUMILIS. *Ginseng*.

A R

ARANEOSA URINA. Urine in which is something like spider-webs, with a fatness at the top. It indicates a colliquation.

ARATICU APE. The custard-apple.

ARBOR TRISTIS. Sorrowful tree, a species of *Nyctanthes*.

ARCANNE. Red chalk or ruddle.

ARCHÆUS, (from *αρχαίος*, signifying ancient). As applied in medicine, denotes the ancient practice concerning which in his time Hippocrates wrote a whole treatise. And sometimes it is used in that natural state which preceded any disease. This by some likewise is used for

ARCHEUS. A Term much used by Helmont to express an internal efficient cause of all things; which seems no other than the *Anima Mundi* of his predecessors; and as he applies it to particular animated beings, it differs not from the *divinus*, or *Vis plastica* of the old philosophers.

ARCHE, *αρχή*. The first attack of a disease, its first stage; that time of the disorder in which the patient first takes to his bed, or in which help might be effectual.

ARCHEOSTIS. White-briony.

ARCHIDOXIS. Is a title given to a book of chemistry, wrote by Paracelsus, and which Libavius in *Exam. Phil. Novæ*, says, looks more like magic than knowledge; but those who understand it, tell us it contains some very remarkable secrets; and is highly prized by the adepts.

ARCHIGENI MORBI. Acute diseases; so called from *αρχή*, the chief, and *γίνομαι*, to be, because they hold the chief rank amongst diseases.

ARCHIMAGIA. A name for chemistry, because by it gold is attempted to be made.

ARCHIMA. The art of changing imperfect into perfect metals.

ARCHOPTOMA. Bearing down of the *Rectum*.

A R

ARCHOS. The *Anus*, also the *Intestinum Rectum*.

ARCOS. Burnt copper.

ARCTATIO. It is when the intestines are constipated, from an inflammation. Also a preternatural straightness of the *Pudendum Muliebre*.

ARCTOSCORDERON. Bear garlic.

ARCTOSTAPHYLUS. A species of *Vaccinium*.

ARCTURUS. Cretan vervain, a species of *Verbascum*.

ARCUALIA OSSA. The scaput. Some say, the temple bones.

ARCUALIS SUTURA. *Sutura Coronalis*.

ARCUATIO. A gibbosity of the fore parts, with a curvation of the bone of the *Sternum*.

ARCUATUS MORBUS. The jaundice.

ARCULÆ. The caverns in which the eyes are lodged.

ARDABAR. A species of arum.

ARDUINI. A species of *Tenucrium*.

ARE-ALU. A species of fig-tree.

AREMAROS. Cinnabar.

ARENAMEN. Bole armeniac.

ARENARMEI. *Arenamen*. Bole armeniac.

ARENATIO. It is the casting of hot sand on the bodies of patients.

ARENTES. A sort of cupping glasses used by the ancients.

ARES. A word of Paracelsus's, by which he would express that power of nature in the whole material world, by which species are distributed into individuals.

ARSAR. Arsenic.

ARGAL. Tartar.

ARGEMA, or *Argemon*, (*αργεμα*, from *αργος*, white). A disorder of the eye, called *Albugo*. Vogel defines it, an ulceration of the *cornea*.

ARGURIA. A species of *Messer-schmidia*.

ARGYRITIS. Litharge.

ARGYRITIS TERRA. A sort of earth taken out of silver mines, bespangled with many particles of silver.

ARGYRODAMAS. A kind of talc, of the colour of silver, that will not yield to the force of fire.

ARGYROLITHOS. A sort of talc, so called from its silver colour.

ARHEUMATISTOS. An epithet given to the external parts, particularly the joints, while free from gouty rheums.

ARIDURA. Wasting or leanness, such as appears in hectic or in consumptive habits: or, according to some, the withering of a limb, or of any particular part.

ARIMASPES. A name of the ancient people of Scythia, who are fabulously said to have had but one eye. In the Scythian language, *Ari* signifies alone, and *Maspe*, the eye. This word is also synonymous with *Monopia*.

ARISTIONIS MACHINAMENTUM. A machine for restoring luxations, invented by Ariston.

ARMALGAL. Coral.

ARME, *αρμη*. A coalition of wounds, also the joining of the futures of the head.

ARNABO. Zedoary.

ARÆIRA. A species of lentisk.

AROHOT. Mercury.

AROMA, *αρωμα*. It seems to be compounded of *αg* and *αρι*, an intensive particle, and *οζω*, to smell any thing fragrant or odorous: sometimes it is taken for myrrh.

AROMA PHILOSOPHORUM. Saffron; also the saffron coloured flowers raised from *Lapis hematitis*.

ARONIA. The Neapolitan medlar.

AROAH. A contraction of *Aroma Philosophorum*, a name given to saffron. Also a name which Paracelsus gave to the flowers raised by sublimation from *Lap. Hematitis*.

ARQUATUS MORBUS. The jaundice.

ARRAPHON. Without future. The word is applied to the *Cranium*, when naturally without futures.

ARRHÆA, *αρρηα*. The stoppage of a flux: and by Hippocrates appropriated to the suppression of the menses.

ARRHOSTIA, *αρρηωστια*. Infirmary, ill-health.

ARSAG. Arsenic.

ARSALTOS. *Asphaltos*.

ARSANECK. Arsenic sublimed.

ARTERIACA, *αρτηριακα*. Medicines against disorders of the voice.

ARTETISCUS, One who suffers the loss of a limb, or who hath a very defective one.

ARTHOICUM, (from *αρτος*, bread). An oil formerly made by digesting several roots with bread.

ARTHREMEOLUS, (from *αρθρον*, a joint, and *εμβαλλω*, to impel). An instrument for reducing luxated bones.

ARTHROFACE. An ulcer in the cavity of a bone, with caries. Dr. Cullen makes it a synonym with *Spina ventosa*.

ARTIA. According to some it is the same as *Arteria*; others say it is only the *Asperia Arteria*.

ARTISCUS, (from *αρτος*, bread). Troches are thus called because formed like a loaf.

ARTIPOCHROS COLOR. A palish yellow colour which attends a disorder of the spleen.

ARYTMUS, (*αρυθμος*, from *α priv.* and *ρυθμος*, a modulation or modification of time and sound in music). Galen applies it to the pulse not modulating according to nature. It is opposed to *Eurythmus*. The pulse *Arythmus* is, 1. If it transgresses into a modulation proper to the next age, it is *pulsus pararythmus*. 2. If it changes to a pulse proper for any other age it is called *pulsus hetero-*

rythmus. 3. If it passes into a modulation proper to no age, it is then a *pulsus ecrythmus*.

ASA. Healer.

ASA DULCIS. The sweat healer; the gum Benjamin, and its tree.

ASA ODORATA. Gum Benjamin, and its tree.

ASABA HERMES, hermodactyls, or the flowers of the *Surengiam*.

ASABON. Soap.

ASAGAR. Verdigris.

ASAGEN. Dragon's blood.

ASAGI. Vitriol or calcined vitriol.

ASAMAR. Verdigris.

ASAMAZ. Vitriol.

ASANON. Prepared sal ammoniac.

ASAPHEIS, (*ασαφης*, from *α* priv. and *σαφης*, clear). Such patients as do not utter their words distinctly are thus named.

ASAPHIA, *ασαφεια*. It is the *Paraphonia Palatina* of Cullen. It is an indistinct utterance, as if the tongue was muffled; a confusedness of voice. This word sometimes expresses a dubious kind of delirium, or a state which is difficult to call delirious, and yet not clearly free from delirium.

ASARCON. Void of flesh.

ASCARDAMYCTES, *ασκαρδαμυκτης*. One who keeps his eyes long fixed and immoveable without twinkling.

ASCIA. The simple bandage is so called when the rounds ascend or descend upon each other in the form of a screw: the French call it *doires*.

ASCOMA, (from *ασκος*, a bottle). The eminence of the pubes at the years of maturity.

ASCYRON. Canadian spreading utsan, a species of *Hypericum*.

ASEDENIGI. The blood stone.

ASE, *αση*. Hippocrates means by his word, a loathing of food from a conflux of humours in the stomach.

ASEF. Alum.

ASEDENIGI. The blood stone.

ASEF. *Hydroa*.

ASEGEN. Dragon's blood.

ASEMOS, (*ασημος*, from *α* priv. and *σημασιον*, a sign). An epithet applied to events that fall out contrary to all appearance, without any manifest cause: a crisis happening beyond hope.

ASEPH. Plumous alum.

ASEPTA, (*ασηπτα*, from *α* priv. and *σηπω*, to putrefy). Unputrefied; but Hippocrates used this word to signify unconcocted or undigested.

ASIGI, *Asingar*. Verdigris.

ASITI, or *Asilia*, *αστια*. Those who take no food for want of appetite.

ASOPER. Soot.

ASPADIALIS. A suppression of the urine from the urethra being imperforated.

ASPASIA. A medicine formerly used to constrict the vagina; it consisted of wool moistened with an infusion of galls.

ASPERATUM SPECILLUM. The rasp-like probe; the same as *Blepharoxylum*.

ASPERMATISMUS. *Dyspermatismus*.

ASPERSIO. A sprinkling. Medicines administered this way, were called by the Greeks *Sympasnuata*, and by the Latins *Aspergines*.

ASPIDION, a diminutive of *ασπις*, a buckler. A name of the *Alysson* of Dioscorides, because it hath small round pods resembling a buckler.

ASPIDISCOs, (from *ασπις*, a buckler). By metaphor it was applied to the sphincter muscle of the anus, as we are informed by Cælius Aurelianus.

ASSAC. Gum *Ammoniacum*.

ASSADA. A nutmeg.

ASSERVATIO. In pharmacy it is the same as *Conversatio*, or the repositing things ready for use.

ASSIDENTIA SIGNA. Are such

symptoms, according to Galen, as are sometimes present to a disease, but not always so, which latter are called *Pathognomonic*.

ASSIDUUS. Some use this word instead of *continuus*, to say *assidua febris*, instead of *continua febris*.

ASSODES. An ardent kind of tertian fever, attended with great inquietudes, nausea, vomitings, thirst, and raving: the outward parts are moderately warm, but inwardly there is great heat.

ASSOS. Alum.

ATACHILLOS. So Paracelsus names a malignant gangrenous ulcer, which spreads from the feet upwards. Some call it *Araneus*.

ASTER PERUANUS. Potatoes.

ASTERICOIDES. A species of *Osmites*.

ASTEROCEPHALUS. *Scabiosa*.

ASTRAPE, αστραπη. Lightning. Galen reckons it among the procatastic causes of an epilepsy; and it is doubtless a cause of disease in lesser degrees of its influence, as well as of death in its greater.

ASTRICTA. When applied to the belly, it signifies costiveness.

ASTRICTORIA. Astringents.

ASTROBLES, (αστροβλης, from αστρον, a star, and βλλα, to strike). Blasted or planet struck. When applied to human bodies, it signifies apoplectic, or sphacelated.

ASTROCYNOLOGIA, (from αστρον, a star, κυων, a dog, and λογος, a dissertation). The name of a treatise on the dog-days.

ASUGAR. Verdigris.

ASULCI. The *Lapis Lazuli*.

ASUOLI. Soot.

ATAC. Talc or nitre.

ATEBRAS. A subliming vessel.

ATECHNIA, (ατεχνια, from α priv. and τεχνη, an art). Want of art. When this word is used as expressive of disease; it is synonymous with *Anaphrodisia*,

ATER SUCCUS. *Atrabilis*.

ATERAMNIA, ατεραμνια. This word occurs in Hippocrates De Aere Locis & Aquis, and is expounded by Galen as signifying difficulty of concoction and hard. He observes that the ancients called bad waters thus, and that, as joined with other words, it hath other significations.

ATHANASIA, αθανασια. Signifying immortal, hath been a term affectedly given to some medicines to express their extraordinary efficacy, as the *Athanasia magna* of Nicolaus, &c.

ATHANASIA, (αθανασια, from α priv. and θανατος, death). Immortality. It is a name of several ancient compositions; as antidotes, collyriums, &c. Also of the herb tansy, because when stuffed up the nostrils of a dead corpse, it is said to prevent putrefaction.

ATHANOR. Is a digesting furnace, contrived to keep a constant heat for some time together, so that it may be augmented or diminished at pleasure, by opening or shutting some apertures made on purpose with sliders over them, called registers.

ATHERA, αθηρα. A sort of food made with wheat flour, like the pap-meal which is given to children. Pliny says it is an Egyptian invention.

ATHROOS, or Athroon, αθροον. In medicinal authors it imports copious, accumulated, or sudden; and is the reverse of by degrees.

ATHYMIA, (αθυμια, from α priv. and θυμος, courage). Pusillanimity. In medicinal authors it usually signifies that dejectedness, despondency, anxiety, and despair, which often occurs in distempers. Some use this word as synonymous with *Melan cholia*.

ATINCAR, Atinkar. Borax.

ATOCHIA. Preternatural labour

ATOCIUM. A name of the *Lych nis sylvestris*.

ATOLLI. A sort of pap made of

the meal of maize and water, which the Indians mix with their chocolate.

ATRABILARIOUS HUMOUR, may very well be understood of the thick part of the blood deprived of its due proportion of serum, or finer and more volatile parts, whereby it is rendered gross, black, unctuous, and earthy. The same may not improperly be called by the name of *Succus Melancholicus*, which we meet with in some authors. See *Atrabilis*.

ATRA BILIS. Black bile, or melancholy. According to the ancients, it hath a two-fold origin. 1. From the grosser parts of the blood, and this they called the melancholy humour. 2. From yellow bile being highly concocted. Dr. Percival, in his *Essays*, Med. and Exp. suggests, that it is the gall rendered acrid, by stagnation in the gall-bladder, and rendered viscid by the absorption of its fluid parts.

ATRACHELUS, (*ατραχηλος*, from *α* priv. and *τραχηλος*, the neck). Short-necked.

ATRAMENTUM SUTORIUM. A name of the green vitriol, of the *Chalcanthum* and *Melanteria*.

ATRESIA, (from *α* priv. and *τρεω*, to perforate). Imperforation.

ATRETARUM. A suppression of urine from the menses being retained in the vagina.

ATRETI, (*ατρητοι*, from *α* priv. and *τρητος*, perforate). Those of either sex are thus called, when their anus, or other natural aperture, is closed.

ATRICES. Small tubercles about the anus, which recede and return again, especially at the first.

ATRICI. Small sinuses in the intestinum rectum, which do not reach so far as to perforate into its cavity.

ATTA. Festus says it is one who by reason of the tenderness or other defect in his feet, touches the ground rather than treads on it.

ATTINCAR VENERIS. The whit-

ening of copper to transmute it into silver.

ATTONITUS MORBUS. A name of the *Apoplexy*, and of the *Epilepsy*.

ATTONITUS STUPOR. *Apoplexy*.

ATTRACTIVUS, *Attrahorius*, *Attrahens*. Remedies that have a power of attracting.

ATTRITA. Galls from attrition, or rubbing one part against another.

ATYPOS, (*ατυπος*, from *α* priv. and *τυπος*, a form or tenor.) Irregular. It is applied to diseases which have no regularity in their periods. Also to deformity in the limbs.

AUANTE, *Auapse*, *αυαντη*. The dry disease. Hippocrates describes it thus: the patient cannot bear either abstinence or eating. Fasting causes flatulence and pain in the stomach. He vomits up various matters, and after vomiting he is easy. After eating there are eructations, an inflammatory heat and redness; a tenesmus, and great discharge of wind: head-ach; a sense of pricking in different parts of the body; the legs grow feeble and small, and become weak. In order to a cure, Hippocrates directed a purge, and then an emetic; afterwards abstinence from fat food, temperance, bathing, unctions, and moderate exercise.

AUCHMOS, (*αυχμος*, from *αυω*, to dry). The Latins call it *squalor*. It is hot, dry, sultry weather.

AUDACIA. In a medical sense is that sort of boldness which we meet with in deliria or madness.

AUBLETIA. A species of *Verbena*.

AULISCOS, *αυλισκος*. A catheter, or clyster pipe.

AULOS. The onyx.

AURATOS GERMANORUM. It is an oleo-saccharum with the oil of cinnamon.

AUREUS RAMUS. The art of making gold.

AURICHALCUM. The ancients

thus named a composition of copper and zinc, which was similar to our brass and pinchbeck.

- AURICULA LEPORIS. *Bupleurum*.

AURIGA. A name of the fourth lobe of the liver. Also a sort of bandage for the sides, described by Galen.

AURIGO. The same as *Isterus*.

AURORA CONSURGENS. A whimsical phrase by which the alchemists express the vegetation of their gold.

AURUM HORIZONTALE. It is an *Oleosaccharum*, made with the oil of cinnamon.

AURUM LEPROSUM. A name of *Antimony*.

AURUM VEGETABLE. A name given to saffron.

AUTHEMERON, (*αὐθήμερον*, from *αὐτ*, the same, and *μερον*, a day). The very same day. A medicine is thus called that gives relief on the same day it is taken.

AVICULÆ HERMATICÆ. The universal salt which is said to be found in dew.

AVICULARIA SYLVIA. A name for the greater Venus's looking-glass.

AVORNUS. A name of the black alder.

AVRANCUM. Egg-shells.

AVRARIC. Mercury.

AXEA COMMISSURA. A sort of articulation.

AXIRNACH. Superfluous fat, found sometimes in the upper eyelids of children.

AYBORZAT. Galbanum.

AYCAPHER. Burnt copper.

AYCOPHOS. Burnt brass.

AZAA. Red mail.

AZAC. An Arabian name for *Gum Ammoniacum*.

AZADIRACHTA. A species of *Melia*.

AZAGOR. Verdigris.

AZAMAR. Vermillion, or native cinnabar.

AZANE. A drop.

AZAR. A drop.

AZARNET. *Auripigmentum*.

AZEDARACH. The bread tree, a species of *Melia*.

AZEDEGRIN. *Lapis Hematidis*.

AZEFF. Scissile alum.

AZEG. Vitriol.

AZEMAFOR. Red lead.

AZEMASOR. Native cinnabar.

AZIMAR. Burnt copper.

AZOB. *Alumen Saccharinum*.

AZUCH. A name given by Paracelsus to the *Mercurius Philosophorum*, that is, to quicksilver extracted from any metalline body.

AZUM. Boiled butter.

AZOTH, the same as *Azuch*. Paracelsus also signifies by it, the universal remedy prepared of the sun, moon, and mercury. *Azoth* is also taken for the liquor of sublimed mercury or quicksilver mixed with vitriol and salt, and so sublimed which is also called *Aqua permanens*, *Crystalli philosophorum*, and *Luna physica*. *Azoth* is a name for brass. It sometimes signifies the mercury of any metallic body.

AZRAGAR. Verdigris.

AZUB. Alum.

AZUR. Red coral.

AZURIUM. A chemical preparation described by Albertus Magnus. It consists of mercury two parts, sulphur one-third, sal ammoniac one-fourth, mixed in a mortar, set in a vessel over the fire till a bluish smoke arises, it is then to be taken from the fire, the glass to be broken, and the contents are to be powdered.

AZUTUM. The Armenian stone.

AZYMAR. Native cinnabar.

AZYMOS, (*αζυμος*, from *a* priv. and *ζυμ*, ferment). Unfermented bread, as sea-biscuit, which as Galen says, is not very wholesome, except where the digestive powers are too strong.

B.

BABUZICARIUS (from *βαβυζι-απο:*, from *βαβαζω*, to speak inarticulately). The incubus or nightmare.

BACANON. Cabbage seed.

BACCAR. A name of the *Baccharis*.

BACCHIA. So Linnæus calls the *Gutta Rosacea*.

BACCHIA. A name of the ivy.

BACCINIA. *Vaccinia*.

BACCULI. Is used by some writers for a particular kind of lozenges shaped into little short rolls. Hilanus likewise uses it for an instrument in surgery.

BACOA. The *Banana*.

BADATIS. A name of the herb *Clava Herculis*.

BADIZA AQUA. Bath water.

BADUCCA. A species of *Capbaris*.

BADUKKA. The *Baducca*.

BÆOS, βαιος. In Hippocrates it means few; but in P. Ægineta, it is an epithet for a poultice.

BÆOTHRYON. A species of *Scirbus*.

BAGNIO. A sweating-house.

BAHEI COYOLLI. Ray takes it to be the *Areca*, or *Faufel*.

BAILLEMENT. Yawning and stretching.

BALANGHAS. A species of *Sterculia*.

BALANNIUM. Oil of the ben nut.

BALANOCASTANUM. The *Bulbocastanum*.

BALANOS. See *Adipfos*.

BALANOS, βαλανος. Properly it is an acorn; but Hippocrates, in his treatise *De Affectionibus*, expresses by it an oak. Theophrastus uses it sometimes to express any glandiferous tree. From the similitude of form, this word is used to express suppositories and pessaries. It is a name of the glans penis.

BALANUS. The glans or nut of the yard.

BALASIUS. A sort of gem of the carbuncle kind.

BALBUTIES. A defect of speech; properly that sort of stammering, where the patient sometimes hesitates, and immediately after, speaks precipitately. It is the *Psellismus Balbutiens*, of Cullen.

BALLIA MUCCA PIRA. The *Momordica*.

BALISTÆ OS. The *Astragalus*; from *εαλλω*, to cast.

BALNEABILIS. An epithet for such waters as are proper for bathing.

BALSAMELÆON. Balm of Gilead.

BALSAMI OLEUM. Balm of Gilead.

BALSAMINA. A species of *Impatiens*.

BALSAMINA. Male balsam-apple, a species of *Momordica*.

BALSAMITA. Oriental ox-eye daisy; a species of *Chrysanthemum*.

BALUX. A name for the sand of some rivers which is mixed with gold.

BAMBALIO. A man who stammers or lisps.

BAMBAX. Cotton.

BAN ARBOR. The coffee-tree.

BANANIERA. A name of the *Ficus Indica*.

BAPTICA COCCUS. Kermes berries.

BAPTUS. A bituminous soft fossil, of an agreeable smell, mentioned by Agricola.

BARACH PANIS. Rulandus explains it by *Nitrum Salis*.

BARAMETZ. The *Agnus Scythicus*.

BARAS. In M. A. Severinus, it is the same as *Alphus* or *Leuce*.

BARBA ARONIS. *Arum*.

BARBA CAPRÆ. *Ulmaria*.

BARBA HIRCI. *Tragopogon*.

BARBA JOVIS. The silver bush ; also a name of the *Sempervivum Majus*, and a species of *Anthyllis*.

BARBARIA. Rhubarb.

BAROMETZ. Chinese polypody, a species of *Poypodium*. Also a name of the *Agnus Scythicus*.

BARONES. Small worms, called also *Nepones*.

BAROS, *Βαρος*. Gravity. Hippocrates uses this word to express by it an uneasy weight in any part.

BAROS. An Indian name for that species of camphor which is distilled from the roots of the true cinnamon-tree.

BARRELIRI. American red oxalis ; a species of *oxalis*.

BARRELIERI. Spanish rocket ; a species of *Sisymbrium*.

BASILICON, *Βασιλικον*. Thus an ointment is named, from *Βασιλικος*, royal, the royal ointment, or from *Βασιλευς*, a king, derived from *Βασικ*, a foundation, and *λαος*, the people. It was so called from its supposed kingly virtues. Mesue is supposed to be the inventor, but long before him Aëtius described it in his *Tetrabib. iv. Serm. iii. cap. xxi.*

BATCIA. A name of the *Passinaca Sylvestris*.

BATHMIS, *Βαθμης*. A seat, basis, or foundation, from *βαινω*, to enter. Hippocrates and Galen use it to express a sinus or cavity of a bone which receives the protuberance of another at the joints, particularly those at the articulation of the *Humerus* and *Ulna*.

BATHRON, *Βαθρον*, or *Batbrum*, a seat, or support. It is also the *Scamnum* of Hippocrates, that is an instrument invented for the extension of fractured limbs. Oribasius and Scultetus both describe it.

BATHYPICRON. A name of the *Absinthium Latifolium*.

BATHYS, *Βαθυς*. A sort of cheese formerly used in Rome.

BATIA. A retort.

BATICULÆ. The greater *Samphire*.

BATINON MORON. The raspberry.

BATRACHIOIDES. A sort of *Geranium*.

BATRACHITES, *Βατραχιτης*. Toadstones.

BATRACHIUM. Crow-foot, crane's bill.

BATRACAUS, (*Βατραχος*, a frog). An inflammatory tumor which arises under the tongue, especially of children. Aëtius says it is a tumor under the tongue, especially in the veins. See *Ranula*.

BATTARISMUS. Stammering with hesitation, or difficulty to begin a word.

BATTISECULA. The lesser blue-bottle.

BATTITURA. The squamous scales of metals which fly off whilst under the hammer.

BAUDA. A vessel of distillation is thus named.

BAURAC. A name for the mineral fixed alkaline salt. It is the Arabic name for nitre, or for any salt ; and hence it is, that borax took its name, which is also thus called.

BAZCHER. A Persian name for antidote.

BDELLA. A horse-leech. Dioscorides uses this word to express a varicose vein.

BDELLERUM. A horse-leech.

BECHICA, (*Βηχικα*, from *βηξ*, a cough, or from *βησιω*, to cough). Any medicine designed to relieve a cough. It is of the same import as the word *pectorat*.

BECHION, or *Bechium*. *Tussilago*.

BECHITA. Expectorating medicines.

BEESHA. A species of *Bambu*.

BEGMA, (*Βηγμα*, from *βηξ*, a cough). Hippocrates means by this word, both a cough, and the spit brought up with it.

BEHEM, or *Behemen*. These words

are erroneously put for the *Balanus Myrepfica*. The glans unguentaria, is the Arabian *Ben*.

BEJUJO. The bean of Carthage.

BELEMNOIDES, (from *βελωνιον*, a dart, and *ειδος*, shape). A name for the *Processus Styloides*. It is also a name of the process at the lower end of the ulna.

BELLIDIASTRUM. A species of *Doronicum*; also a species of *Osmites*.

BELMUSCUS. *Abelmosch*.

BELULCUM, (*βελυλλοι*, from *βελος*, an arrow or a dart, and *ελλα*, to draw). An instrument for extracting darts and arrows.

BELUZAAR. The Chaldee word for antidote.

BELZOE. Gum benjamin, and its tree.

BELZOINUM. Gum benjamin and its tree.

BEM-TAMARA. The Egyptian bean.

BENATH. The Arabic name for small pustules which rise in the night after sweating.

BENEDICTA AQUA. Formerly the *Aq. Calcis Sim.* was thus named. Also a water distilled from *Serpillum*.

BENECICTUM VINUM. *Vinum Antimoniale*.

BENEDICTUS LAPIS. A name for the philosopher's stone.

BENEOLENTIA. Sweet smelling medicines.

BENGI-EIRI. A species of evergreen Indian *Ricinus*, which grows in Malabar.

BENIVI ARBOR. *Benivifera*. The benjamin tree.

BENJUI. The benjamin tree.

BERENICE. Amber.

BERENICIUM, *Βερενικιον*. A species of nitre mentioned by Galen.

BERIBERIA. Dr. Aitken uses this word as synonymous with *Contractura*. Linnæus defines it as being a tumor of the limbs and body, with

contracted knees, attended with stupor and hoarseness.

BERIBERI. It seems to be the same with *Berberia*. Bontius says it is a species of palsy, common in some parts of the East Indies. The name in the language of the country signifies a sheep. In this disease the patients lift up their legs very much in the same manner as is usual with sheep. Bontius adds, that this palsy is a kind of trembling, in which there is deprivation of the motion and sensation of the hands and feet, and sometimes of the body.

BERRIONIS. Colophony, gum juniper, or vernice.

BERULA. Brooklime.

BES. An eight ounce measure.

BESACHAR. A fungus or sponge.

BESASA. Wild rue.

BESENNA. Rulandus explains it by *Muscarum Fungus*. Probably he means a sponge, which is the nidus of some sorts of flies.

BESSANEN. In Avicenna it is a redness of the external parts, resembling that which precedes the leprosy; it occupies the face and extremities. Dr. James thinks it is what we call chilblains.

BESTO. A name in Oribasius for *Saxifrage*.

BETLE. Indian betle. A species of *Piper*.

BEX, *Βεξ*. A cough.

BEXUGO. The root of the *Æmatitis Peruviana* of C. B. one dram of which is sufficient for a purge.

BEXAGUILLO. The Peruvian ipecacuanha.

BEZAHAN. The fossile bezoar.

BEZOARDICUM JOVIALE. *Bezoar* with tin. It differs very little from the *Antihæticum Poterii*. It is a mere calx.

BICHICHIT. An epithet of certain pectorals, or rather troches, described by Rhazes; which were made of liquorice, &c.

BICHOS. A Portuguese name for the worms which get under the toe

of the people in the Indies, which are destroyed by the oil of the cashew-nut.

BIHAI. A species of *Musa*.

BILADEN. Iron or steel.

BINOCULUS. A bandage for both the eyes is thus named.

BINSICA. A Rabinical term, signifying a disordered imagination.

BIOLYCHNIUM; (*Βιολυχνιον* from *βίω*, *vita*, life, and *λυχνιον*, *lumen*, light). Is a term much used by some writers to signify the same as *Vital Flame*; but, it is too figurative an expression to convey any clear and determinate idea.

BIOS, *βίω*. Life, and its course. But sometimes it only means vic-tuals.

BIOTE, *βιοτη*. Life. In an affected sense it signifies the time of continuance of aliment in the body thus weak food hath a short life annexed.

BIO THANATI, *βιοθανατοι*. A term applied to those who die a violent death.

BIPULA. A sort of worm mentioned by Aristotle.

BIRAO. The true *Amomum*.

BIRSEN. An Arabian or Persian word, signifying an inflammation, or an abscess in the breast.

BISEMATUM. The lightest, basest, and palest lead.

BLACCIE. A name which Rhazes gives to the measles.

BLÆSITAS. Stammering or lisping.

BLÆSUS, *βλαυσος*. A Greek primitive, the same as *Valgus*, a bandy-legged person, or, one whose legs are bent outwards; one whose backbone is bended either forward or backward; also, a paralytic person, and one who hath an impediment in his speech.

BLANCNON. A name in Oribasius for fern.

BLAPTISECULA, (from *βλαπτω*, to hurt, and *seco*, to cut). A name for the *Cyanus*; because it injures the

mowers' scythes.

BLASTEMA, (*βλαστημα*, from *βλαστανω*, to germinate, a bud, or off-set, or shoot of a plant: but Hippocrates expresses by it a cutaneous eruption or pimple.

BLATTA BYZANTIA, *βλαττιον* *βυζαντιον*, or *Byzantina*, called also *Unguis odoratus*, and Constantinople sweet hoof. The purple fish, the welk, and other fishes of the same kind, i. e. that have wreathed shells, have also operculæ or lids. These lids are of various shapes, and different substances: the matter of some of them resembles shells, others are like leather, and a third kind are horny. The horny and leathery kinds have a greasiness or unctuousity, which, when they are burnt, exhales a strong smell; sometimes agreeable, but most generally very fetid. The *Blatta Byzantia*, or *Unguis Aromaticus* vel *Odoratus* of the ancients, was of the leathery or horny kind. It was called *Unguis* from its likeness to a man's nail in its shape and colour.

BLATTARIOIDES. A species of *Hieracium*.

BLATTI. The wild Malabar plum-tree.

BLECHNON. The lesser branched fern.

BLECHUM. A species of *Ruellia*.

BLENNA, *βλεννα* or *Blena*, a thick phlegm descending from the brain, through the nostrils; which shews a beginning recovery.

BLEPHARIDES, (from *βλεφαρον*, an eye-lid). The hairs on the edges of the eye-lids; also that part of the eye-lids themselves on which the hairs grow.

BLEPHAROXYSTON, *βλεφαροξυστον*. So Paulus Aegineta calls the *Specillum Asperatum*, from *βλεφαρον*, an eye-lid, and *ξεω*, to scrape off.

BLESTRISMUS, *βληστρισμος*. A restless tossing of the body, as happens under various diseases.

BLETA. An epithet for milky

urine, proceeding from diseased kidneys.

BLETI, βλητοι. Struck. So those were called who were suddenly seized with a suffocation or difficulty of breathing.

BLINCTA. Red earth.

BOCHETUM. A secondary decoction of lignum vitæ, and of other such like woods.

BOCIA. A glass vessel with a round belly, and a long neck. It is used by the chemists. It is also called *Ovum Sublimatorium*, *Urinale*, and *Ucurbita*.

BOCIUM. *Bronchocele*.

BOETHEMA. A remedy.

BOETHEMATICA SEMEIA. Auxiliary signs in diseases; such as give notice of a cure observable in them.

BOLCHON. *Bdellium*.

BOLESIS. Coral.

BOLESON. Balsam.

BOLISMUS. Avicenna hath this word instead of *Bulimus*.

BOLU FABRILIS. Red chalk.

BOLUS JUDAICUS. A name for the Marsh-mallow.

BOMBAST. Cotton.

BON ARBOR. The coffee-tree.

BONA. The kidney-bean.

BONA NOX. A species of *Ipora*.

BONAROTA. A species of *Padeta*.

BONZUC. A species of *Guilana*.

BONDUCH INDORUM, *Bonduch nerea*. Molucca nuts, and bezoar stones.

BOONA. The kidney-bean.

BORACE. Borax.

BORASSUS. The tender medullary substance which grows at the top of the great palm-tree.

BORBORODES, βορβορωδες. Feculent, muddy, dirty, or earthy.

BORIDIA. A sort of salt meat, prepared of a kind of fish, which is eaten raw. Oribasius takes notice of

BOROZAIL. The Ethiopian name for the venereal disease. It is a name for the *Zail* of the Ethiopians, which is a disease epidemic about the river Senegal. It principally infects the pudenda, but, is different from the lues venerea, though it owes its rise to immoderate venery. In the men it is also called *Asab*; in the women *Offa batus*.

BORROS, βορρος. Voracious. A voracious water, or such a one as begets a good appetite.

BOSA. An Egyptian word for a mass which is made of the meal of darnel, hemp-feed, and water. It is inebriating.

BOSCAS. A sort of dry pitch that is tenacious like bird-lime.

BOSCI SALVIA. A kind of sage, which takes its name from *boscum*, or *boscus*, a wood, the place where it grows.

BOTAMUM. Washed-lead.

BOTHOR. It hath three significations among the Arabians. 1. Tumors in general. 2. A tumor with a solution of continuity. And, 3. Small tumors, which last is the most proper. Some take it for an abscess of the nostrils. Blancard says it signifies pimples in the face, which do not spread, but are easily suppurated, and vanish. It is, besides, a general appellation for pimples in the face, lungs, or other parts; and the Arabians call the small-pox and measles by this name.

BOTHRION. A small ditch, from βοθρος, a ditch. This word is also used to express a small ulcer in the pupil of the eye, or tunica cornea. Also the sockets of the teeth.

BOTIN. Turpentine. Also a balsam from it.

BOTOTHINUM. A term used by Paracelsus, by which he would express the flower of a disease.

BOTOU, *Botua*. The *Pareira Brava*.

BOTRYITES, (βοτρυτης, from βοτρυς a cluster, properly of grapes). Iti

a sort of burnt cadmia, resembling a cluster of grapes, and, collected from the upper part of the furnace, where it is burnt; as what is collected in the lower part is called *Placitis*. Schroder says, that the *botrytes* is collected in the middle part of the furnace the *placitis* in the upper, and the *ostracitis* in the lowest.

BOUBALIOS. A wild cucumber. Some explain it to be the *Pudendum Muliebre*.

BOVILLÆ. The measles.

BOZA. The name of a drink much used in Turkey.

BRABE. An herb mentioned by Oribasius.

BRABYLA. The plums which are called Damascene and Hungarian. They are large, sweet, and of a blue colour.

BRACHERIUM. A bandage and truss for a hernia. A word used by the barbarous Latin writers, probably from *brachiale*, a bracelet.

BRACHIA. The division of the large branches of trees from the trunk.

BRACHYCHRONIUS (*βραχυχρονος*, from *βραχυς*, short, and *χρονος* time). An epithet of a disease, which continues but a short time.

BRACHYPNÆA, (*βραχυπνοια*, from *βραχυς*, short, and *πνεω*, to breathe). Breath fetched short, but at long intervals.

BRACHYPOTÆ, (*βραχυποται*, from *βραχυς*, short, or small, and *ποτος*, drink). Little drinkers.

BRADYPEPSIA, *βραδυπεψια*. Weak concoction of food. Or when digestion in the stomach is performed slowly and with difficulty.

BRAGGAT. A drink made of water and honey.

BRASILETTO. Logwood.

BRASIUM. Barley-malt.

BRASMA. Bauhine says it is the immature black pepper, or rather, such as from some accident is hindered from ripening.

BRASMOS. Fermentation.

BRASSIDELLICA ARS. A way of curing wounds, mentioned by Paracelsus, by applying the herb *Brassidella* to them.

BRATHU. The herb favine.

BREYNIA. A species of *Caparis*.

BRICUMUM. A name which the Gauls gave to the herb *Artemisia*.

BROCHTHUS, *βροχθος*. The throat, also a small kind of drinking vessel.

BROCHUS, *βροχος*. One with a prominent upper lip, or one with a full mouth and prominent teeth.

BRODIUM. A term in pharmacy, signifying the same with *Fusculum*, broth, or the liquor in which any thing is boiled. Thus we sometimes read of *Brodium Salis*, or a decoction of salt.

BRUTIA. An epithet for the most resinous kind of pitch, therefore used to make the *Oleum Pifinum*. The *Pix Brutia* was so called, from Brutia, a country in the extreme parts of Italy, where it was produced.

BRYAMUS. A peculiar kind of noise, such as is made by gnashing or grating the teeth; or, according to some, a certain kind of convulsion affecting the lower jaw, and striking the teeth together, most frequently observed in such children as have worms.

BUCACRATON, (*βυκακρον*, from *bucca*, or *bucella*, that is, a morsel of bread sopped in wine, which served in old time for a breakfast). Paracelsus calls by the name of *Bucella*, the carneous excrescence of the polypus in the nose, because he supposes it to be a portion of flesh parting from the *bucca*, and insinuating itself into the nose.

BUCCELATON, *βυκελατον*. A purging medicine made up in the form of a loaf; consisting of scammony, &c put into fermented flour, and, then baked in an oven.

BUCELLATIO. A way of stopping

B Y

the blood by applying lint upon the vein or artery.

BUCERAS, *Buceros*. Fenugreek.

BUCERAS. A species of *Pucida*.

BUCRANION, (from *βε*, an ox, and *κρανιον*, a head). So the *Antirrhinum* is called, because it resembles an ox's head.

BUCTION. The hymen.

BUFFELI. A ring made of the horn of a buffalo, which is worn on the ring-finger to cure the cramp.

BUGANTIE. Chilblains.

BUGONES, (from *βε*, an ox, and *γινωμαι*, to be bred, or generated of). An epithet for bees, because the ancients thought them to be bred from the putrefaction of an ox.

BULBOCODIUM. A species of *Ixia*.

BUNA. Coffee.

BUPHTHALMUS. A distempered eye, (from *βε*, an ox, *οφθαλμος*, *oculus*, from its vast largeness like an ox's eye).

BURAC. All kinds of salt.

BURHALAGA. A name of the sea-heath-spurge.

BURINA. Pitch.

BURIS. So Avicenna calls a scirrhous *Hernia*.

BURNEA. Pitch.

B U

BUTIGA. An inflammation of the whole face, otherwise called *Gutta Rosacea*.

BUTINA. Turpentine.

BUTIOS. So the ancient pretenders to physic in Hispaniola were called.

BYRSA. A skin of leather to spread plaster on.

BYRSODEPSICON, (from *βυρσα*, a skin, and *δερσεν*, to curry leather). *Sumach*.

BYSAUCEN, (*βυσανχιον*, from *βω*, to hide, *ανχιον*, the neck). People are thus called who by elevating their shoulders hide their neck. Also one who hath a morbid stiffness of the neck.

BYSMA (*βυσμα*, from *βω*, to stop up, obstruct, fill up, constipate, or stuff). The covers or stopples of any vessels.

BYSSUS, *βυσσος*. A name for the *Pudendum Muliebre*; also a name of a sort of fine cloth worn by the ancients.

BYZEN, (from *βυζω*, or *βω*, to fill up by stuffing, to condense, a heap, croud, or throng). Hippocrates uses this word to express the hurry in which the menses flow away in an excessive discharge of them.

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CABALA. The cabalistic art. It is derived from the Hebrew word signifying to receive by tradition. It is a term that hath been anciently used in a very mysterious sense amongst divines; and since, some enthusiastic philosophers and chemists have transplanted it into medicine, importing by it somewhat magical: but such unmeaning terms are now justly rejected.

CABALATOR. Nitre.

CABALLICA ARS, (from *καταβαλλω*, to throw down). A term

C A

in gymnastics, importing amongst wrestlers, the art of foiling, or throwing an antagonist down.

CABEB, *Cabebi*. Scales of iron.

CABULATOR. Nitre.

CABRUSI. Amongst the ancients this word was used to express Cyprian, or, coming from the island of Cyprus. The ancient Greeks had almost all their vitriols and vitriolic minerals from this island; they therefore sometimes called these *Cabrusi*, without any addition. It is very

probable that our word copperas is a false pronunciation of this word *Cabrusi*.

CABUREIBA, *Caburiiba*. A name of the *Bals. Peruv.* Ray thinks it is the tree which affords that balsam.

CACAGOGA. Ointments, that by being rubbed on the fundament, procure stools.

CACAMOTICTLANOQUILONI. The purging potatoe.

CACATORIA FEBRIS. A name given by Sylvius to a kind of intermittent fever attended with copious stools.

CACCIONDE. A pill commended by Baglivi against the dysentery; its basis is the *Terra Japonica*.

CACHRY. The seeds of the *Libanotis*.

CACHRYS. Galen says it sometimes means parched barley. In Linnæus's botany, it is the name of a genus, of which he enumerates three species.

CACHUNDE. A compound medicine much esteemed by the Chinese and Indians. It is said to be made of amber, musk, pearls, aloes, cinnamon, some of the precious stones, and other things.

CACHYMIA. A term in Paracelsus, by which he intends an imperfect metallic body, or, an immature metalline ore.

CACHYMIE. It may be divided into sulphureous, as marcasites, bismuths, and cobalts; or, secondly, into mercurial, or arsenical, or orpimental, &c.; or thirdly, into saline, such are all tales.

CACOCOLIA. An indisposition of the bile.

CACOROI, (from κακον, ill, and χροα, colour). Such as have an ill colour in the face.

CACOCHYLIA. Indigestion or depraved chylicification.

CACOETHES, (κακοεθης, from κακος, ill, and εθος, a word which, when ap-

plied to diseases, signifies a quality, or a disposition. Hippocrates applied this word to malignant and difficult distempers. Galen, and some others express by it, an incurable ulcer, that is rendered so through the acrimony of the humours flowing to it. Linnæus and Vogel use this term much in the same sense with Galen, and describe the ulcer as superficial, spreading, weeping, and with callous edges.

CACOPATHIA, κακοπαθεια. An ill affection.

CACOPHONIA, κακοφωνια. A depravity of the voice.

CACOPRACIA, (from κακος, ill, and πραττω, to do or act). A depravation in the viscera, by which nutrition is performed.

CACORRYTHMUS, (κακορρυθμος, from κακος, ill, and ρυθμος, order). An epithet of a disorderly pulse.

CACOSPXYXIA, (κακοσφυξια, from κακος, ill, and σφυξις, from σφύζω, to leap or beat like an artery). A disorder of the pulse in general.

CACOSTOMACHUS, κακοστομαχος. Literally an ill or bad stomach; but is spoken of food that is bad for the stomach.

CACOTHYMIA, (from κακος, ill, and θυμος, the mind). Any vicious disposition of the mind.

CACOTROPHIA, (κακωτροφια, from κακος, ill, and τροφη, nutriment). Any sort of vicious nutrition in general.

CADDIS. Soft lint.

CADEL AVANACU. *Moluccense Lignum*.

CADMIA *Lapis Calaminaris*.

CADMIA FACTITIA. The *Tutia*.

CADMIA METALLICA. A name of cobalt.

CADUCASE. Vertigo.

CADUCA. See *Decidua*.

CADUCUS MORBUS. The epilepsy.

CÆSIA. A species of *Mimosa*.

CAF, *Casu, Casar, Camphor*.

CAGASTRUM. Paracelsus uses

his word to express the morbid matter which generates diseases, and, that is not innate, but adventitious. Diseases arising from the *cagastrum* are pleurisy, pestilence, fever, &c.

CAGUACU-APARA, *Caguacu-Ete*. The American Bezoar deer.

CAICU. *Terra Japonica*.

CALABA. A species of *Calophyllum*.

CALÆ, *Calæum*. *Calæum*. A kind of Indian tin, which is reduced by the fire, into a kind of ceruse, such as is made of lead and European tin.

CALAMACORUS. Indian reed.

CALAMEDON, (*καλαμῆδον*, from *καλαμος*, a reed). A species of fracture which runs along the bone in a right line, but is lunated in the extremity.

CALAMINTHA HUMILIOR. Ground ivy.

CALAMITIS. A name of that fictitious *Cadmia*, which by fixing to iron rods, acquires the figure of a reed; the word is applied to *Pompholyx*, to calamine; and Agricola calls a marine stony plant thus.

CALAMITA ALBA. The white sand stone.

CALAMITA OF RHASES. The white load-stone.

CALCADINUM. Vitriol.

CALCADIS. White vitriol.

CALCANTHOS, *Chalcanthum*. Names for vitriol, from the Greek *χαλκανθον*.

CALCANTUM. A kind of red ink.

CALCAR. *Calcaneous*, also the furnace in a glass-house.

CALCARIS FLOS. The lark-spur.

CALCARIUS LAPIS. Lime-stone.

CALCATOR. Vitriol.

CALCATON. Troches of arsenic.

CALCEUM EQUINUM *Tussilago*.

CALCHITHIOS. Verdigris, also a *Marcasite*.

CALCIFRAGA. Break-stone, an epithet given to the herb *Scolopendrum* or *Spleenwort* in Scribonius Largus.

CALCIFRAGUS. It signifies stone-breaking, and, is therefore applied to some things having that quality, as by Scribonius Largus to the *Scolopendrium*, and by others to *Pimpernel*, called also for the same reason *Saxifrage*.

CALCIGRADUS. Hippocrates means by it, one who in walking lays much stress upon the heels.

CALCINATUM MAJUS. It is whatsoever is dulcified by the chemical art, which was not so by nature; such as dulcified mercury, lead, and the like substances, which are very speedily consolidated.

CALCINATUM MAJUS POTERII. It is mercury dissolved in aqua fortis, and precipitated with salt water. Poterius used it in the cure of ulcers.

CALCINATUM MINUS. Any thing which is sweet by nature, and speedily cures, as sugar, manna, tamarinds, &c.

CALCITREA. Vitriol.

CALCITEOSA. Litharge.

CALCITHOS. Verdigris.

CALCULIFRAGUS. Lithontripic.

CALDAR. Tin.

CALDARIUM. A vessel in the baths of the ancients to hold hot water. It is also called *Laconicum*.

CALDUS. This term is frequently used by Scribonius Largus for *calidus*.

CALICHAPPA. The true white thorn.

CALIDARIUM. Thus Celsus calls that part of a bath which was the hypocaustum of the ancient Greeks.

CALIDUM INNATUM. The ancients had many vague notions under this term.

CALIETA, *Caliette*. The young fungi on the juniper tree.

CALLÆON. The gills of a cock, which Galen says is a food neither to be praised nor condemned.

CALLECAMENON. Burnt copper.

CALLENA. A kind of salt-petre.

CALLIBLEPHARON, (from *καλλος*, beauty, and *βλεφαρον*, an eye-lid).

Medicines appropriated to the eye-lids.

CALLICREAS. The *Pancreas*.

CALLIGONUM, (from *καλλος*, beauty, and *γονυ*, a joint or knot). The *Polygonum*.

CALLIOMARCUS. The Gaulish name in Marcellus Empiricus for the herb coltsfoot.

CALLIONYMUS, (from *καλλος*, beauty, and *ονομα*, a name). The *Uranoſcopus*.

CALLITRICHUM, (from *καλλος*, beauty, and *τριξ*, a hair). The *Adiantum*.

CALMET. Antimony.

CALOCATANOS. A name of the wild poppy.

CALOCHIERNI. A large species of *Atractylis*, common in Greece and Candy. The name *Atractylis* is from *ατρακτος*, a spindle, because their stalks were used for spindles.

CALONIA. Calonian myrrh. Hippocrates often prescribes it.

CALTROPS. A name of several species of *Potamogeton*.

CANUSA. Crystal.

CALYPTER, (from *καλυπτω*, to hide). A carnosus excrescence covering the hemorrhoidal vein.

CAMARA. The fornix of the brain; also the vaulted part of the auricle, leading to the external foramen; also the name of a species of *Lantana*.

CAMAROSIS, (*καμαρωσις*, from *καμαρα*, a tortoise). An arched roof. A fracture of the skull, which appears like an arch of a vault.

CAMBIREA. So Paracelsus calls the venereal bubo.

CAMBUCA. So Paracelsus calls the venereal cancer. Also by some it is writ for a bubo, an ulcer, an abscess on the pudenda; also a boil in the groin.

CAMBUI. The wild American myrtle of Piso and Marcgrave.

CAMEHNIA. The onyx stone.

CAMES. Silver.

CAMINGA. The *Canella Alba*.

CAMINUS, *καμινος*. It signifieth the furnace and its chimney. In Rulandus it signifies a bell.

CAMISIA FÆTUS. The shirt of the fœtus. It is frequently put for the *Chorion*.

CAMPE, (*καμπη*, from *καμπτω*, to bend). A flexure or bending. It is also used for the ham; also a joint or an articulation.

CAMPULUM, (*καμπυλον*, from *καμπτω*, to twist about. A distortion of the eye-lids.

CANABIL. A sort of medicinal earth. See *Eretria*.

CANCRENA. Paracelsus uses this word instead of *Gangrena*.

CANDELA FUMALIS. They are candles made of odoriferous powders, and resinous matters, to purify the air and excite the spirits.

CANELLA CUBANA. *Canella Alba*.

CANELLA CUURDO. The true cinnamon-tree.

CANICÆ. Coarse meal was thus called by the ancients, from *canis*, a dog, because it was food for dogs. Hence *Panis canicaceus*, very coarse bread.

CANNA FISTULA. *Cassia Fistula*.

CANNABINA. So Tournefort named the *Datisca*.

CANONIAI, *κανονισται*. Hippocrates in his book *De Aëre*, &c. calls those persons thus, who have straight, and not prominent bellies. He would intimate that they are disposed, as it were, by a straight rule.

CANTABRICA. *Lavender leaved bind weed*. Pliny says it was discovered in the time of Augustus, in the country of the Cantabri in Spain; whence its name.

CANTABRUM. In Cœlius Aurelianus it signifies bran.

CANTACON. Garden saffron.

CANTARA. The plant which bears the St. Ignatius's bean.

CANTHARI FIGULINI. Earthen cucurbits.

CANTHUM. Sugar-candy.

CANTION. An epithet for fugar.

CAOVA. The drink called coffee.

CAPELLA. A cupel or test.

CAPHORA. Camphor.

CAPIPLENIUM. A catarrh. It is a barbarous word; but Baglivi uses it to signify that continual heaviness or disorder in the head, which the Greeks call *Carebaria*, καρεβαρια.

CAPISTRATIO. Phimosi.

CAPISTRUM. A bandage for the head is so called. In Vogel's Nosology it is the same as *Trismus*.

CAPITELLUM. The head or seed vessels, frequently applied to mosses, &c. as in *Capitulum*. Some say it signifies soapy water, others say it is a lixivium.

CAPNELÆUM, καπνελαιον. In Galen's works, it is said to be a resin. Fæsius says it seems to be called *capnelaion* because of the smoak it gives when placed near the fire.

CAPNIAS, (καπνιας, from καπνος, a smoak). A jasper of a smoaky colour. Also, a kind of vine which bears part white and part black grapes.

CAPNITIS. Tutty.

CAPNOIDES, (from καπνος, fumitory, and εidos, likeness). A species of fumitory.

CAPNOS, καπνος. Fumitory.

CAPO MOLAGO. Guinea pepper.

CAPREOLUS. The helix of the ear.

CAPRICORNUS. Lead.

CAPRIFICUS. The wild fig-tree.

CAPRIZANS. Is by Galen and others used to express an inequality in the pulse, when it leaps, and, as it were, dances in uncertain strokes and periods.

CAPSELLA. A name in Marcellus Empiricus for vipers bugloss.

CAPULUM, (from καμπω, to bend). A contortion of the eyelids, or other parts.

CAPUR. Camphor.

CARABE. Amber.

CARACUS. Sometimes this word is used for an insect of the beetle kind; sometimes for the cray-fish; and, at others for the *Locusta marina*.

CARACOSMOS. A name of the four mare's milk, so much admired by the Tartars.

CARBAFUS. Scribonius Largus uses this word for lint.

CARCAROS. A sort of fever.

CARCAS. The Barbadoes nut-tree, the *Catapulia*.

CARCAX. A species of poppy, with a very large head.

CARCER. Paracelsus means by it, a remedy proper for restraining the disorder by motions of body and mind, as in curing the *Chorea Sancti Viti*.

CARCHESIUS, καρχησιος. A name of some bandages noticed by Galen, and described by Oribasius. Properly it is the top of a ship's mast.

CARDIMELECH. A fictitious term in Dolæus's Encyclopædia, by which he would express a particular active principle in the heart, appointed to what we call the vital functions.

CARDIMONA. *Cardialgia*.

CARDINAMENTUM, (from *cardo*, an hinge). An hinge-like articulation.

CARDIOGMUS, (from καρδιασσω, to have a pain in the stomach). The same as *Cardialgia*. Also an aneurism in the aorta, near the heart, which occasions pain in the præcordia.

CARDIONCHUS. An aneurism in the heart, or in the aorta near the heart.

CARDIOTROTUS. One who hath a wound in his heart.

CARDO. The articulation called *Ginglymus*; also the second vertebra of the neck.

CARDONET. A wild artichoke.

CARDONIUM. So Paracelsus calls wine medicated with herbs.

CAREBARIA, (καρεβαρια, from

καρη, the head, and *βαρος*, heaviness). An uneasy and somewhat painful heaviness of the head.

CARENA. The twenty-fourth part of a drop.

CARICOUS TUMOR. Called by Hippocrates *καρκαοειδες*, is a swelling resembling the figure of a fig; such are frequently the piles: from *carica*, a fig.

CARIUM TERRA. Lime.

CARNICULA. Fallopius useth this word instead of *Faruncula*, and, to signify in particular the flesh of the gums.

CAROLI. Chancres, also little venereal excrescences in the private parts.

CAROPI. True *Amomum*.

CARORA. The name of a vessel that resembles an urinal.

CARPASUS. An herb not known; but, its juice was poisonous, and, was formerly called *Opocarpason*, or *Opocarpathon*.

CARPHOS, *καρφο*. In Hippocrates it signifies a straw, or mote, or any small substance. Also a small pustule for the cure of which Aëtius, Tetrab. i. recommends rubbing them with the dried seeds of mercury.

CARPOLOGIA. A delirious fumbling, as, when a patient seems to be gathering something from the bed-cloaths, which yet is difficultly performed, because of the trembling which affects his hands. It is generally a fatal symptom.

CARUNCULOCA. A suppression of urine from caruncles in the urethra.

CARYOTI. A name in Galen, for the best dates in Syria, &c.

CASABONÆ. Fish-thistle.

CASAMUM. A name in Myrepus for the *Cyclamen*.

CASCHU. *Catechu*.

CASIBO. A species of *Privet*.

CASSA. A barbarous word in Fallopius for the *Thorax*.

CASSALE VULNUS. A term sig-

nifying a wound in the breast; from the Arabian word *Cas*, a breast.

CASSADUM. So Paracelsus calls weak spiritless blood that is grumous, and hinders the passage of the circulating blood.

CASSIBOR. Coriander.

CASSIDBOTT. Coriander.

CASSOH. Alkaline salt.

CASSOLETA. A kind of humid suffumigation described by Marcel-lus.

CASSUTHA. Dodder.

CASUS. The word signifies the same as *Symptoma*; sometimes it is used for any thing fortuitous or spontaneous, or a fall from an eminence. In Paracelsus it signifies a present distemper, and also, an entire history of a disease.

CATABLEMA, *καταβλημα*. According to Galen, Hippocrates means by it the outermost fillet which secures the rest of the bandage.

CATACHLOOS, (*καταχλοος*, from *χλον*, grass, or green herb; Galen expounds it "a very green colour." It is applied to stools, and then, many read for this word *Catachola* i. e. very bilious.

CATACHRISTON. Medicine applied by way of unction.

CATATCLASIS, (*κατακλασις*, from *κατακλω*, to break or distort). Galen explains it to be an affection of the eye, as when the eye-lids are distorted. Vogel defines it to be a spastic occlusion of the eye.

CATACLEIS, (*κατακλεις*, subclavicle, from *κατω*, below, *κλεις*, *clavis*, the clavicle). According to Galen it is the first small rib of the thorax.

CATACORES, *κατακορες*. Full, abundant, and when applied to stools it means that they are purely or intensely bilious. Hippocrates uses it in both senses.

CATAGMA, *καταγμα*. A fracture; Galen says a solution of the bone is called *Catagma*, and, that *Eclos* is a

olution of the continuity of the flesh; that when it happens to a cartilage it hath no name, though Hippocrates calls it *Catagma*.

CATAGMATICA. Catagmatic, from *καταγω*, *deduco*; remedies proper for cementing broken bones, or, to promote a callus, from *καταγνυμι*, to break.

CATALENTIA. Paracelsus coined this word to express an epilepsy.

CATALYSIS, (*καταλυσις*, from *καταλυω*, to dissolve or destroy). It signifies a palsy, or, such a resolution as happens before the death of the patient; also, that dissolution which constitutes death.

CATAPASMA, (*καταπασμα*, from *πασσω*, to sprinkle). The ancient Greek physicians meant by this, any dry medicine reduced to powder, to be sprinkled on the body. Their various uses may be seen in Paulus, lib. vii. cap. xiii.

CATAPLEXIS, (*καταπληξις*, from *πλησσω*, to strike). Any sudden stupor, or deprivation of sensation in any of the members or organs.

CATAPOSIS, (*καταποσις*, from *καταπινω*, to swallow down). According to Aretæus, it signifies the instruments of deglutition. Hence also,

CATAPOTIUM, *καταποτιον*. A pill.

CATAPSYXIS, (*καταψυξις*, from *ψυχω*, to refrigerate). A refrigeration without shivering, either universal, or of some particular part. A chilliness, or as Vogel defines it, an uneasy sense of cold in a muscular or cutaneous part.

CATAPTOSIS, (*καταπτωσις*, from *καταπιπτω*, to fall down). It implies such a falling down, as happens in apoplexies; or the spontaneous falling down of a paralytic limb.

CATARRHEUMA, *καταρρευμα*. *Catarrhus*.

CATARRHEXIS, *καταρρηξις*. A violent and copious eruption, or effusion, joined with *κοιλιας*; it is a copious evacuation from the belly, and sometimes

alone it is of the same signification. In Vogel's Nosology, it is defined, a discharge of pure blood from the belly.

CATARRHÆCUS, *καταρροϊκος*. A word applied to diseases proceeding from distillations of rheum.

CATARRHOPA PHYMATA, *καταρροπα φυματα*. Tubercles tending downward; or, as Galen relates, those that have their apex on a depending part.

CATARRHOPOS NOUSOS, *καταρροπος νοσος*. A remission of the disease, or its decline, and opposed to the paroxysm.

CATARTISMUS, *καταρτισμο*. According to Galen it is a translation of a bone from a preternatural to its natural situation.

CATASARCA, *κατασαρκα*. *Anasarca*.

CATASTAGMOS, (*κατασταγμας*, from *σταζω*, to distil). This is the name which the Greeks, in the time of Celsus, had for a distillation.

CATASTALTICUS, (*κατασταλτικός*, from *καταστέλλω*, to restrain, or *στέλλω*, to contract.) It signifies styptic, astringent, repressing.

CATASTASIS, *καταστασις*. The constitution, state, or condition of any thing.

CATATASIS, *κατατασις*. In Hippocrates it means the extension of a fractured limb, or a dislocated one, in order to replace it. Also the actual replacing it in a proper situation.

CATEIADION. A long instrument which was introduced into the nostrils, in order to provoke an hæmorrhage for the cure of the head-ach. It is mentioned by Aretæus.

CATELLUS CINEREUS. A cupel or test.

CATAVALA. Common aloë.

CATHÆRESIS, *καθαερσις*, from *καθαιρω*, *absumo*, to waste: Hippocrates uses it for such a consumption of the body as happens without any

manifest evacuation; but Scribonius Largus, and some others, express by it such loss as arises from purging or the like.

CATHÆRETICA, καθαιρετικά. Remedies which consume superfluous flesh.

CATHARMA, (καθαγμα, from καθαίρω, to purge). The excrements purged off from any part of the body.

CATHARMOS, καθαρμος, from καθαίρω, to purge). Purgation by medicines; and the cure of a disorder by superstitious remedies.

CATHEDRA. In Hippocrates it is the *Anus*.

CATHIDRYSIS, (καθιδρύσις, from καθιδρύω, to place together). The reduction of a fracture.

CATHIMIA. In the spagyric language it signifies, 1. A subterraneous mineral vein, where gold and silver is dug; 2. Concretions in the furnace of gold and silver. 3. Gold. 4. Spuma argenti; and 5. Soot, that adheres to the wall in burning brass.

CATHMIA. Litharge.

CATHOLIC, (καθολικος, from κατά, per, through, and όλον, totum, all). Is ascribed to medicines that are supposed to purge all humours; also, the same as a panacea or universal medicine: but such are now laughed at for impositions.

CATHYPNIA, (from υπνος, sleep). A profound sleep.

CATIAS, κατίας. An incision knife, formerly used to extract a dead fœtus, and, for opening an abscess in the uterus.

CATILIA. The weight of nine ounces.

CATINUM ALUMEN. Pot-ash.

CATINUS FUSORIUS. A crucible.

CATISCHON, κατισχων. One who is costive, or not easily purged.

CATMA. Filings of gold.

CATOCATHARTICA. Medicines that operate by stool.

CATOCHE, κατοχη. A catalepsy; also a *Coma Somnolentum*.

CATOCCHUS, κατοχος. A catalepsy. Some say it is the same as *Tetanus*. Others define it to be a rigidity of the body without sensibility.

CATOCCHUS CERVINUS. The tonic tetany, particularly affecting the neck.

CATOCCHUS DIURNUS. The symptomatic tetany.

CATOCCHUS HOLOTONICUS. The tonic tetany.

CATONISMOS, (κατωμισμος, from κατω, under, and ωμις, the shoulder). A putting under of the shoulder. By this word P. Ægineta expresseth that mode of reducing a luxated humerus, which is performed by a strong man taking the patient's luxated arm, and, laying it over his shoulder, so that he can raise him from the ground: thus, by the weight of the body the luxation is reduced.

CATOTERICA, κατωτερικά. Purg-ing medicines.

CATTA TRIPALI. *Catta Tripali*. Long pepper.

CATULOTICA, κατλωτικά. Medicines that cicatrize wounds.

CAUDA. Aëtius says, that in some women a fleshy substance arises from the os uteri, and fills the vagina. Sometimes it protuberates without the lips of the pudenda, like the tail of some animal; whence its name. A polypus of the uterus.

CAUDATIO. So an elongation of the clitoris is called.

CAULEDON, καυληδον, because it breaks like καυλος, a branch. A species of fracture, and is, when the bone is broken transversely, so as not to cohere.

CAUMA, (καυμα, from καίω, to burn). The heat of the atmosphere, or, of the body in a fever.

CAUSODES FEBRIS, καυσωδες,

Causus. Celsus renders this word by *Febris Ardens*.

CAUSOMA, καυσωμα. In Hippocrates it signifies a burning heat and inflammation.

CAUSUS, καυσος, from καίω, to burn. An highly ardent fever. According to Hippocrates, a fiery heat and insatiable thirst, are its peculiar characteristics. Others also are particular in describing it; but whether, they are ancients or moderns, from what they relate, this fever is no other than a continued *ardent fever* in a bilious constitution. In it the heat of the body is intense; the breath is particularly fiery; the extremities are cold; the pulse is frequent and small; the heat is more violent internally than externally, and the whole soon ends in recovery or death.

CAVERNA. A name of the female pudenda.

CEASMUS, (κεασμα, from κείω, to split or divide). A fissure or fragment.

CELSA. A term of Paracelsus's, to signify what is called the beating of the life in a particular part.

CEMENTERIUM. A crucible.

CENCHRAMIS, κενχραμης. A grain or seed of the fig.

CENCHRIUS. A species of *Herpes* that resembles κενχρος. Millet.

CENCHROS, κενχρος. Millet.

CENEONES, (κενεωνες, from κενος, empty). The flanks.

CENIGDAM. The name of an instrument anciently used for opening the head in epilepsies.

CENIOTEMIUM. A purging remedy formerly of use in the venereal disease, supposed to be mercurial.

CENOSIS, (κενωσις, from κενος, empty). Evacuation. It must be distinguished from *Catharsis*. *Cenosis* imports a general evacuation; *Catharsis* means the *evacuation* of a particular humour which offends with respect to quality.

CENTRATIO. Paracelsus expresses by it the degenerating of a saline principle, and contracting a corrosive and exulcerating quality. Hence *Centrum Salis* is said to be the principle and cause of ulcers.

CEPHALARTICA. Medicines that purge the head.

CEPHALINE, κεφαλινη. That part of the tongue which is next the root, and nearest the fauces.

CEPHALONOSOS, (from κεφαλη, a head, and νοσος, a disease. This term is applied to the *Febris Hungarica*.

CEPINI. Vinegar.

CEPULA. Large myrobalans.

CERÆÆ, (κεραιαι, from κερας, a horn). So Rufus Ephesius calls the cornua of the uterus.

CERAMIUM. A Greek measure of nine gallons.

CERANITES, κερανιτης. A pastil or troch is thus named by Galen.

CERASIATUM. A purging medicine in Libavius so called, because the juice of cherries is a part of it.

CERASMA, κερασμα. A mixture of cold and warm waters, when the warm is poured into the cold.

CERATITIS. The yellow horned poppy.

CERATOIDES, (from κερατος, the genitive case of κερας, a horn). A name of the *Tunica cornea*.

CERATOMALAGMA. A cerate.

CERCHNOS, κερχνος. Wheezing. See *Renchos*.

CERCHODES. Those are so called who labour under a dense breathing.

CEREBELLA URINA. Paracelsus thus distinguishes urine which is whitish, of the colour of the brain, and, from which he pretended to judge of some of its distempers.

CERIA, *Cerix*. The flat worms bred in the intestines.

CEROMA, κερωμα. Was used by the ancient physicians for an unguent or cerate, though originally, it seems to have been given to a particular composition which the wrestlers used

in their exercises; whence Juvenal calls one so anointed *Ceromaticus*.

CEROPISUS. A plaster of pitch and wax. Of this the ancients made their *Dropaces*.

CESTRISTIS VINUM. Wine impregnated with betony.

CESTRUM. Betony.

CHAITA. Properly the name of quadrupeds; but Rufus Ephesius expresses by it the hair of the hind-head.

CHALASIS, (χαλασις, from χαλαω, to relax). Relaxation.

CHALBANE. Galbanum.

CHALCANTHUM. Vitriol, or rather vitriol calcined red.

CHALCOIDEUM OS. The os cuneiforme of the tarsus.

CHALCUTE. Burnt brass.

CHALICRATON, χαλικρατον, from χαλις, and old word that signifies pure wine, and κεραννυμι, to mix). Wine and water.

CHALINOS. That part of the cheeks which on each side is contiguous to the angles of the mouth.

CHAMÆRAPHANUM. So Paulus Aegineta calls the upper part of the root *Apium*.

CHAOMANTIA SIGNA. So Paracelsus calls those prognostics that are taken from observations of the air; and the skill of doing this, the same author calls *Chaomancia*.

CHAOSDA. Paracelsus uses this word as an epithet for the plague.

CHARABE. *Succinum*.

CHARANTIA. A species of *Momordica*.

CHARISTOLOCHIA. Mugwort.

CHARTA EMPORETICA. Is paper made soft and porous, such as is used to filter with.

CHARTA VIRGINEA. A name of the *Ammios*.

CHASEMIE. The loss of the sense of smelling.

CHASME, χασμη. Yawning.

CHEDROPA, χεδροπος. A general term for all sorts of corn and pufse.

CHEILOCACE, (from χεινος, a lip, and κακον, an evil). The lip evil, a swelling of the lips; also, according to Le Dran, a canker in the mouth or lips.

CHEIMETLON, (from χειμα, winter). A chilblain.

CHEIMIA. Cold, shivering.

CHEIRAPSIA, χειραψια, from χειρ, the hand, and απομαι, to touch). Scratching.

CHEIRIATER, (from χειρ, a hand, and ιατρος, a physician). A surgeon.

CHEIRISMA, χειρισμα. Handling, or a manual operation.

CHEIRIXIS, χειριξις. Surgery.

CHEIRONOMIA. An exercise mentioned by Hippocrates, which consists of peculiar gesticulations of the hands.

CHEIZI. Paracelsus means by it quicksilver, when he speaks of minerals; and flowers, when he speaks of vegetables.

CHELA, χηλη. A forked probe mentioned by Hippocrates, for extracting a polypus from the nose. In Rufus Ephesius, it is the extremities of the cilia, but most commonly, it is used for claws, particularly of crabs. It also signifies fissures in the heels, feet, or pudenda.

CHELIDON, χελιδων. The swallow; also the hollow at the bend of the arm.

CHELONE, χελωνη. A tortoise. It imports a part of a surgical machine mentioned by Oribasius.

CHELONION, χελωνιον. A hump-back; so called from its resemblance to the shell of χελωνη, a tortoise.

CHELYS, χελυς. The breast; so called because it resembles in its figure the back of a tortoise.

CHELYSCION, χελυσκιον. A short dry cough.

CHEMA, χημη. Blancard says it is a certain measure mentioned by the Greek physicians, supposed to contain two small spoonfuls. The

Athenians had one of two drachms, and another of three.

CHERAS. The struma or scophula.

CHERNIBION. In Hippocrates it is an urinal.

CHEVASTRE. A double headed roller, applied by its middle below the chin; then running on each side, it is crossed on the top of the head; then passing to the nape of the neck, is there crossed: then passes under the chin, where crossing, it is carried to the top of the head, &c. until it is all taken up.

CHEZANANCE, *χέζαναγκη*, from *χέζω*, to go to stool, and *αναγκη*, necessity). It signifies any thing that creates a necessity to go to stool; but, in P. Ægineta, it is the name of an ointment, with which the anus is to be rubbed for promoting stools.

CHIADUS. In Paracelsus it is the same as *Furunculus*.

CHIASTOS, *χιαστος*. The name of a bandage in Oribasius; so called from its resembling the Letter X, *chi*.

CHIASTRE. The name of a bandage for the temporal artery. It is a double-headed roller, the middle of which is applied to the side of the head, opposite to that in which the artery is opened, and, when brought round to the part affected, it is crossed upon the compress that is laid upon the wound, and then, the continuation is over the coronal suture, and under the chin; then crossing on the compress, the course is, as at first, round the head, &c. till the whole roller is taken up.

CHIBOULS. A sort of onions which form no bulbs at the roots.

CHIBUR. Sulphur.

CHILIODYNAMON, (*χιλιοδυναμον*, from *χιλιοι*, a thousand, and *δυναμις*, virtue). An epithet of the herb *Polemonium*. In Dioscorides, this name is given on account of its many virtues.

CHILON, *χελων*. An inflamed and swelled lip.

CHIMETHLON. A chilblain.

CHIMOLEA LAXA. Paracelsus means by this word the powder which is separated from the flowers of saline ores.

CHIOLI. In Paracelsus it is the same as *Furunculus*.

CHITON, *χιτων*. A coat or membrane.

CHLIASMA, *χλιασμα*. A warming fomentation, called also *Thermasma*.

CHLOE, *χλον*. Grass that is new sprung up, or young and tender grass.

CHOANA, *χοανη*. It is properly a funnel, but is used to signify the *Infundibulum*.

CHOANAS, *χοανος*. A funnel or furnace for melting metals.

CHOENICIS. The trepan, so called by Galen and P. Ægineta, from *χοινικis*, the nave of a wheel.

CHOERADES, (from *χοιρος*, a swine), the same as *Strumæ*.

CHOERADOLETHRON, (from *χοιρος*, a swine, and *ολεθρος*, destruction). Hogbane, a name in Aetius for the *Xanthium*, or louse-bur.

CHOLADES. So the smaller intestines are called, because they contain bile.

CHOLAGOGA, (Cholagogues, from *χολη*, bile, and *αγο*, to evacuate). By cholagogues the ancients meant only such purging medicines as expelled the internal fæces, which resembled the cystic bile in their yellow-colour, and other properties.

CHOLAS, *χολα*. All the cavity of the ilium is so called, because it contains the liver which is the strainer of the gall.

CHOLICELE. A swelling formed by the bile morbidly accumulated in the gall bladder.

CHOLOMA, (*χολωμ*, from *χολος*, lame or maimed). Galen says that in Hippocrates it signifies any disorder.

tion of a limb. In a particular sense it is taken for a halting or lameness in the leg.

CHOLOSIS, *χολωσις*. In Vogel's Nosology it is a genus of disease, which he defines to be lameness, from one leg being shorter than the other.

CHONE, *χωνη*. The infundibulum.

CHORA, *χωρα*. A region. Galen in his *De Usu Part.* expresses by it particularly the cavities of the eyes; but, in others of his writings, he intimates by it any void space.

CHORDA MAGNA. A name of the *Tendo Achillis*.

CHORDAPSUS, *χορδαψος*. An ancient name for the colic, when seated in the small intestines.

CHORTOS, *χορτος*. Ripe or perfect grass, which is fit to be mowed and made into hay.

CHRISTOS, (*χριστος*, from *χρισω*, to anoint). It is whatever is applied by way of unction.

CHROS, *χρως*. Galen says that the Ionians mean by this word all that is of flesh in our own bodies, i. e. all but bones and cartilages.

CHRYSSATICUM. An epithet of a sort of *Passum*, recommended by P. Ægineta to be drank with the seed of atriplex, for the jaundice.

CHRYSOMS, (from *χρυσμα*, *unctio*, anointing). Anciently children were anointed as soon as born, with some aromatic compositions; and, upon the head they wore an anointed cloth, till they were judged strong enough to endure baptism: after which that cloth was left off; so that from the birth was accounted a particular period of the child's life, deemed a state of unction; and hence our bills of mortality seem to derive their distinction of *chryfoms*, for all who die before they are baptized.

CHYBUR. Sulphur.

CHYLURIA. A discharge of whitish mucous urine.

CHYLISMA, (*χυλισμα*, from *χυλος*, juice). In Dioscorides it signifies expressed juice.

CHYLUS, *χυλος*. The chyle. In general, it is a juice inspissated to a middle consistence between humid and dry. In Hippocrates the word *χυλος* is used to express the juice and forbile liquor of barley, which liquor they call *strained ptisan*.

CHYMIATER, a chemical physician, or one who cures by chemical medicines.

CHYMIATRIA, (from *χυμια*, chemistry, and *ιατρεια*, healing). The art of curing diseases by chemical medicines.

CHYTLOH. In Hippocrates it means a plentiful inunction with oil and water.

CIBUR. Sulphur.

CICIS. In some places of Hippocrates and Theophrastus it is put for *κηκη*, a gall.

CIGNUS. A measure so called, containing about two drams.

CINCLESIS. In Vogel's Nosology it signifies a morbid nictitation, or an involuntary winking.

CINCLISIS, (*κινκλισις*, or *Cinclifmos*, from *κινκλιζω*, to shake or wag). Hippocrates means by it a small and repeated motion.

CINERITUM. A cupel.

CINCTUS. The diaphragm.

CINNIOTLOTTUS CINNATUS. Paracelsus coined these words to express the total destruction and corruption of mineral bodies.

CINZILLA. So Paracelsus calls the disorder which others call *Zona*.

CION, *κιων*. So Aretæus calls the *Uvula*, also a swelling or relaxation of the uvula. Hippocrates gives this name to a carunculous excrescence in the pudendum muliebre.

CIONIS, *κιονις*. A painful swelling of the uvula.

CIRCUMLITIO. In general, it is any medicine applied by way of unction; but, in a particular manner it is appropriated to ophthalmic medicines, with which the eye-lids are anointed.

CIRCUMMOSSALIS. A name of the *Tunica conjunctiva oculi*. Le Dran calls the *Periostrum* thus.

CIRSOIDES. It is an epithet in Rufus Ephesius for the upper part of the brain. He also applies this name to two of the four seminal vessels.

CISSA. A depraved appetite.

CISSANTHEMOS. A name in Dioscorides for one of the two species of *Cyclamen*.

CIST, Rist. A measure of wine containing about four pints.

CISTERNA. A cistern. A name of the fourth ventricle of the brain; and, of the concourse of the lacteal vessels in the breasts of women who give suck.

CITHARUS. According to Hesy chius it signifies the breast, side, and a species of fish.

CITRINATIO. Complete digestion; and, according to Rulandus and Johnson it signifies resurrection.

CITTA, κίττα. The disease called *Pica*, or unnatural longings for eatables.

CLASIS, (κλασις, from κλαω, to break). A fracture.

CLASMA, (κλασμα, from κλαω, to break). A fracture.

CLAUDICATIO. Halting, limping, or staggering, as when one leg is shorter than the other.

CLAVUS OCULORUM. Celsus says that it is a callous tubercle on the white of the eye, and is thus named from its figure.

CLEIDION, κλειδιον. The name of an epithem in Aetius. An epithet of a pastil in Galen and P. Ægineta. And sometimes it is used to signify *Os Clavicula*.

CLEISAGRA, (from κλεις, the cla-

vicle, and *αγρα, a prey*). The gout in the articulation of the clavicles to the sternum.

CLEPSYDRA, (κλεψυδρα, from κλειπτω, to conceal, and υδωρ, water). Properly, an instrument to measure time by the dropping of water through a hole from one vessel to another; but it is used to express a chemical vessel perforated in the same manner. It is also an instrument mentioned by Paracelsus, contrived to convey suffumigations to the uterus.

CLIMACTERICAL YEARS are certain observable years which are supposed to be attended with some considerable change in the body; as the 7th year; the 21st, made up of three times seven; the 49th, made up of seven times seven; the 63d, being nine times seven; and the 81st, which is nine times nine; which two last are called the grand climacterics. Aulus Gellius tells us that this whimsy first came from the Chaldeans, from whom it is very probable to have come to Pythagoras, who was very fond of the number seven, and used much to talk of it in his philosophy.

CLINOPETES, κλινοπετης. A person who, on account of great weakness, or any disorder, is obliged to lie in bed, or on a bed.

CLONODES, κλωνιδης. An epithet for a sort of pulse which is vehement and large, at the same time unequal in one and the same stroke.

CLUNES. The buttocks.

CLUNESIA. Inflammation and pain of the anus.

CLYDON, κλυδων. A fluctuation and flatulency in the stomach.

CLYSSUS, κλυσσης, is a term anciently used by the chemists for medicines made by the re-union of different principles, as oil, salt, and spirit, by long digestion; but, it is not now practised, and the term is almost lost.

CNIDOSIS, κνιδωσι. An itching and stimulating sensation, such as is excited by the nettle.

CNIP-TES, κνιποτης. Itching. Some say it signifies a dry ophthalmy.

COCCA BAPTICA. Kermes berries.

COCCALOS. A name of the *Cnidia*, and of the *Nux Pinea*.

COCCI RADICUM. Kermes berries.

COCCONES. The grains or acini of the pomegranate.

COCHONE, κοχωνη. Galen explains this to be the juncture of the ischium, near the seat or breech; whence, says he, all the adjacent parts about the seat are called by the same name. Hesiychius says that *cochone* is the part of the spine which is adjacent to the os sacrum.

COCILIO. A weight of eleven ounces.

COCTION. In a medicinal sense, signifies that alteration, whatever it be, or however occasioned, which is made in the crude matter of a distemper, whereby it is either fitted for a discharge, or rendered harmless to the body. This is often brought about by nature, as we speak, that is, by the vis vitæ, or the disposition or natural tendency of the matter itself, or else by proper remedies, which may so alter its bulk, figure, cohesion, or give it a particular determination, so as to prevent any farther ill effects, or drive it quite out of the body. And, that time of a disease wherein this action is performing, is called its state of coction.

CODOSCELE. So Fallopius calls venereal buboes in the groin.

CÆLA. The hollow of the eyes, or rather above and below the eye-lids. The *cæla* of the feet are the hollow parts of the bottom of the foot, adjacent to the heels.

CÆLIA, (καελια, from κοιλις, hollow, signifies any cavity). If ανα is joined with it, it signifies the stomach,

and sometimes the thorax; and η κατα joined with it is the lower belly or intestinal tube, from the cardia to the anus.

CÆLOMA, (κοιλωμα, hollow). An ulcer in the tunica cornea of the eye.

CÆLOSTOMIA, (from κοιλις, hollow, and στομα, the mouth). A defect in speaking, when a person's speech is obscured by sounding as if his voice proceeded from a cavern.

CÆNOTES, (from κοινος, common). The physicians of the methodic sect asserted that all diseases arose from relaxation, stricture, or a mixture of both. These were called *cænotes*, viz. what diseases have in common.

COHOL. Castellus says this word is used in Avicenna, to express dry collyria for the eyes in fine powder.

COLLIMA. A sudden swelling of the belly from wind.

COLATORIA LACTEA. Astruc says they were formerly called glands, and are situated in the third and internal tunic of the uterus, and, that they are vesiculo-vascular bodies.

COLLATERALES. So Spigelius calls the erectores penis, from their collateral order of fibres.

COLLETICA, (from κολλα, glue). Conglutinating medicines.

COLLICIÆ. The union of the ducts which convey the humours of the eyes from the puncta lachrymalia to the cavity of the nose.

COLLIGAMEN. A ligament.

COLLIQUAMENTUM. is a term first made use of by Dr. Harvey, in his application of it to the first rudiments of an embryo in generation.

COLLOBOMA. The growing together of the eye-lids.

COLLODES. Glutinous, (from κολλα, glue).

COLOBOMA, (κολοβωμα, from κολοβωω, to maim). The growing together of the eye-lids; also the want of a particular member of the body.

COLOBOMATA. In Celsus this

word is expressed by *curta*. Both the words signify a deficiency in some part of the body, particularly the ears, lips, or alæ of the nostrils.

COLOPHONIA, *κολοφωνία*, or according to Scribonius Largus, *Colofonia*, is now commonly used for any pitch or rosin, made by the exhalation or drawing off the thinner parts of terebinthinous juices: though Paracelsus seems to mean by it what is now prescribed by the name of *Terebinthina cocta*: but the ancients, and particularly Galen, seemed to understand by it a soft kind of mastich, from *Chio*, probably the same as our *Chio* turpentine.

COLOSTRUM, is the first milk in the breasts after delivery, according to some authors; but Bartholine applies it to an emulsion made by the solution of turpentine with the yolk of an egg.

COLOTOIDES, (*κολωτοειδής*, from *colotes*, a lizard of that name); variegated like the skin of a lizard. Hippocrates applied it to the excrements.

COLPOCELE. A hernia forced into the vagina.

COLPOPTOSIS. A bearing down of the vagina.

COMISTE. The epilepsy. This name arose from the frequency of persons being seized with this disorder while in the assemblies called *Comitia*.

COMMI. Gum. When alone it signifies gum Arabic. The *κομμιευκοι* mentioned by Hippocrates in his *De Morb. Mulieb*, is gum Arabic.

COMMUNICANT, is, by Bellini, applied to fevers of two kinds afflicting the same person, wherein as one goes off the other immediately succeeds.

COMPLETION, is by the ancient writers used in various acceptations; but latterly it signifies only the same as a *Plethora*.

COMPUNCTIO. *Paracentesis*.

CONCAUSA. A cause which co-operates with another in the production of a disease.

CONDUCTIO. In Cœlius Aurelianus it is a spasm, or a convulsion.

CONEION. In Hippocrates it imports the *Cicuta*. It is said to be thus named (from *κωναν*, to turn round), because it produces a vertigo in those who take it inwardly.

CONFÆDERATIO. Confluent.

CONFLUXION, *ξυρσεια*, is much used by Hippocrates and his interpreter Galen, in the same sense as we use consent and transpirable, from a notion that parts at a distance have mutual consent with one another, and that they are all perspirable by many subtle streams. Paracelsus, according to his way, expressed the former by confederation.

CONGELATI, *Congelatici*, or *Congellatio*. Persons afflicted with a cataplexy are so called.

CONIS, *κονις*. Dust, fine powder, ashes, a nit in the hair, scurf from the head, and sometimes it signifies lime.

CONNATUS, *συνγενής*, used much by Hippocrates for what is born with a person; the same with *congenite*, as,

CONNUTRITUS, *συντροφος*, is what becomes habitual to a person from his particular nourishment, or what breaks out into a disease in process of time, which gradually had its foundation in the first aliments, as from sucking a distempered nurse or the like.

CONQUASSATIO, *conquassation*. In pharmacy it is a species of comminution, or, an operation by which moist concreted substances, as recent vegetables, fruits, the softer parts of animals, &c. are agitated and bruised, till, partly by their proper succulence, or, by an effusion of some liquor, they are reduced to a soft pulp.

CONTORSIO, (from *contorqueo*, to turn aside, contortion). In medicine, this word signifies, 1. the iliac passion; 2. an incomplete dislocation; 3. a dislocation of the vertebræ of the back sideways, or crookedness of them; 4. a disorder of the head, in which it is drawn to one side.

CONTRALUNARIS. An epithet given by Dietericus to a woman who conceives during the menstrual discharge.

COPISCUS. A sort of frankincense.

COPRIEMETOS, (*κοπριμετος*, from *κοπρος*, dung, and *εμεω*, to vomit). A person who vomits up his excrements.

COPROSTASIA. A constriction of the belly.

COPULA. A ligament.

CORACOBOTANE, (from *κοροξ*, a crow, and *βοτανη*, a plant). A name for the *Laurus Alexandrina*.

CORDINEMA, *κορδινημα*. Yawning and stretching.

CORDOLIUM. The heartburn.

CORE, *κορη*. The pupil of the eye.

COREMATA, *κορηματα*. Brushes and besoms; but in P. Ægineta is used to signify medicines for cleaning the skin.

CORIUM. A name of the dartos muscle.

CORNESTA. A retort.

CORNUTA. A retort.

CORRAGO. Borrage.

CORÆ. The temples.

CORSÆ. The temples.

CORYPHÆ, *κορυφη*. The vertex.

COSMET. Antimony.

COSMOS, *κοσμος*. In Hippocrates it is the order and series of critical days.

COSSI. Worms that breed among planks, also tubercles in the face.

COSSUM. A malignant ulcer of the nose, mentioned by Paracelsus.

COTIS. Some say it is the back

part of the head, others say it is the hollow of the neck.

COTONEA. The quince.

COUROS. So Hippocrates called the child in the womb when perfected there.

GRADE. In Hippocrates it is the branch of a fig-tree.

CRAMBEION. Erotian says it is an old Sicilian word for hemlock; but in Hippocrates it signifies a decoction of cabbage.

CRASPEDON. A disorder of the uvula when it hangs down in the form of a thin oblong membrane.

CREA. The spine of the *Tibia*, or the shin.

CREMNOI, *κρημνοι*. The lips of ulcers, also, the labia pudendi, (from *κρημνος*, a precipice).

CREPATURA. In Paracelsus, it is an intestinal hernia.

CREPINUM. Paracelsus means by it tartar.

CRISPULUM. In Myrepsus, it is the herb called ox-eye.

CRIMNODES, (*κρηνωδης*, or *κρηνον*, bran). An epithet for urine which deposits a branny sediment.

CRIMNON, *κρηνον*. Dioscorides describes it as being a coarse sort of meal produced from zea and wheat, of which they make pulse. Galen says that *κρηννα* are the largest particles of torried barley, which have escaped due contusion in the mill.

CRIOMYXUS, *κριομυξος*. An epithet for persons abounding with mucus in the nose.

CRITHE, *κριθη*, i. e. *Grando*, or styx on the eye-lid.

CROCUS INDICUS. Turmeric.

CROMMYON. An onion.

CROMMYOXYREGMIA. Acid and foetid eructations resembling the taste of onions.

CROTONE, *κροτωνη*. A fungous excrescence on trees, but by a metaphor, it is applied to excrescences

and fungous humours on the periosteum.

CRYMODES, (κρυμωδης, from κρυος, cold). An epithet for a fever, wherein the external parts are cold.

CRYPSPORCHIS. When the testicles are hid in the belly, or have not descended into the scrotum, (from κρυπτω, to hide, and ορχις, a testicle).

CRYPTOPYICA, *Ischuria*. A suppression of urine from a retraction of the penis within the body.

CRYSORCHIS, κρυσορχεις. A retraction or retrocession of one of the testicles.

CRYSTALLI. Eruptions about the size of a lupine, white and transparent, which sometimes break out all over the body. They are also called *CrySTALLINA*, and by the Italians *Taroli*.

CTEIS, κταις, πecten. *Ctenes*, in the plural number, implies those teeth which are called incisores.

CUEMA, κυημα. The conception or rather, as Hippocrates signifies by this word, when the complete rudiments of the foetus are formed.

CULBICIO. A sort of stranguary, or rather heat of urine.

CULTER. The third lobe of the liver.

CULUS. The anus.

CUNEALIS SUTURA. The suture by which the os sphenoides is joined to the os frontis.

CUPHOS, κυφος. Light, when applied to aliments, it imports their being easily digested; when to distempers, that they are mild.

CURA AVENACEA. A decoction of oats and succory roots, in which a little nitre and sugar were dissolved, was formerly used in fevers, and was thus named.

CYATHISCUS, (κυαθισκος, from κυαθος, a cup). The hollow part of a probe, formed in the shape of a small spoon, as an ear-picker.

CYBITOS, κυβιτος. The cubitus.

CYCIMA. Litharge.

CYCLISCUS, (κυκλισκος, from κυκλος, a circle). An instrument in the form of a half moon; formerly used for scraping rotten bones.

CYCLOPION, (κυκλωπιον, from κυκλω, to surround, and ωψ, the eye). The white of the eye.

CYCLOS. A circle. Hippocrates uses this word to signify the cheeks, and the orbits of the eyes.

CYCLUS METASYNCRITICUS. It is a long protracted course of remedies, persisted in with a view of restoring the particles of the body to such a state as is necessary to health.

CYLLOS, (κυλλος, from κυλλω, to make lame). In Hippocrates it is one affected with a kind of luxation, which bends outwards, and is hollowed inward. Such a defect in the tibia is called *Cyllosis*, and the person to whom it belongs, is called by the Latins *Varus*, and is opposed to *Valgus*.

CYMATODES. Is applied by Galen and some others to an unequal fluctuating pulse.

CYNANTHROPIA, (from κυων, a dog, and ανθρωπος, a man). It is used by Bellini, *De Morbis Capitis*, to express a particular kind of melancholy, when men fancy themselves changed into dogs, and imitate their actions.

CYNOCOCTONUM. Wolf's-bane.

CYNOCYTIS. The dog-rose.

CYNODECTOS, κυνοδεκτες. So Dioscorides calls a person bit with a mad dog.

CYNODESMION, (κυνοδεσμιον, from κυων, a dog, and δεω, to bind). A ligature by which the prepuce is bound upon the glans. Sometimes it signifies the lower part of the prepuce.

CYNODONTES, (κυνοδυντες, from κυων, a dog, and οδεις, a tooth). The canine teeth.

CYNOLISSA. It is used by Leifster in his *Exercit. tert. de Morb. Chron.* in the same sense as *Rabies Canina*.

CYNOLOPHA. Pollux calls these certain asperities of the vertebræ, and beginning of the spine of the back.

CYNOREXIA. The same as *Bulimia*, i. e. a greedy appetite that is not easily satisfied.

CYOPHORIA, (from *κυημα*, the fœtus, and *φωω*, to carry). Gestation. It is spoken of a woman with respect to her pregnancy.

CYPHOMA, (*κυφωμα*, from *κυφω*, to bend). A kind of gibbosity, an incurvature of the spine of the back, when the vertebræ incline preternaturally outwards.

CYRBASIA. Properly the tiara or cap worn by the Persian monarchs. Hippocrates uses this word in his treatise on the Diseases of Women, in describing a sort of covering which he directs for the breasts.

CYRENAICUS. Is applied to the juice of the laserpitium of the ancients, from the country where it

mostly flourished by Scribonius Largus, Ægineta, and some others; as it is also taken notice of under the same distinction by Sanctorius in his Aphorisms.

CYRSEON. The podex or anus.

CYRTOIDES. Gibbous.

CYRTOMA, (*κυρτωμα*, from *κυρτος*, hump-backed). Any preternatural tumour or gibbosity. In Vogel's Nology it signifies a particular flatulent tumour of the belly.

CYRTONOSUS. The rickets.

CYSSAROS, *κυσσαρος*. The podex or anus.

CYSSOTIS. Inflammation of the anus.

CYSTEOLITHOS, *κυστεολιθος*, from *κυστις*, the bladder, and *λιθος*, a stone). The stone in the bladder.

CYSTICS. Medicines prescribed in any disorder of the bladder; because *cysticus*, from *κυστις*, a bladder, signifies any part of the body so called, as the urinary bladder or gall-bladder.

CYSTOPTOSIS. The inner membrane of the bladder protruding through the urethra.

D.

D A

DACETON (from *δακνω*, to bite). An epithet for such animals as hurt by biting.

DACHEL. So Boerhaave calls the *Palma major*.

DACNERON, (from *δακνω*, to bite). Biting; an epithet for a collyrium in Trallian.

DACRYDIUM. *Diagridium*.

DACRYODES, (*δακρυωδες*, from *δακρυ*). A tear, in Hippocrates.

DACRYOMA. A coalition of one or more of the puncta lachrymalia

DACRYOPÆOS. An epithet for such things as cause the tears to flow, such as onions, &c.

D A

DACTILETUS. The *Hermodactyl*.

DACTYLETHRA, *δακτυληθρα*. A machine shaped like a finger, and introduced into the stomach to excite vomiting.

DACTYLION, *δακτυλιον*. Web-fingered.

DÆDALUS. A name given to mercury on account of its volatility with heat; from a person so called, who invented wings to fly with.

DÆMON, *δαεμων*, which strictly signifies a spirit either good or bad, hath not likewise escaped torture from the application of some writers in medicine, most of which are too

ridiculous to take notice of; but, as it is taken in a bad sense, its derivative *Damoniac* is most justly ascribed to such distempers as cannot be assigned to natural causes, but are supposed from the influence of possession by the devil; though such notions have not long since been exploded.

DAPHNELÆ N. (*δαφνέλαιον*, from *δαφνῆ*, the bay-tree, and *έλαιον*, oil). The oil of bay-berries. Dioscorides calls the oil thus, from *Daphne*, the nymph, reported by the poets to have been changed into the bay-tree.

DAPHNITES. A name for the best pieces of Cassia.

DAPHNOIDES. The same as *Daphne*.

DARATOS, *δαράτος*. Unfermented bread.

DARCHEM. A name of the best cinnamon.

DARSINI. The Arabian name for the ordinary sort of true cinnamon.

DARTA. A tetter, ring-worm, or the itch.

DASYMMA, *δασυμμα*. So the *Ophthalmia Trachoma* of Sauvages is called when it is tettery.

DAURA. So Paracelsus calls black hellebore.

DAVERIDON. Oil of spike.

DEAMBULATION strictly signifies motion of the body by walking, but by Hippocrates is applied to inquietude of the mind.

DEBUS. So Paracelsus calls a medicine, which is given against anger.

DECIDENTIA. Some change in diseases, whereby they are prolonged.

DECIMANA. A kind of erratic fever, returning every tenth day.

DECLINATIO. It is when a disease abates. In Avicenna it is an imperfect dislocation.

DECOLLATIO. It is when a part of the cranium is cut off with the teguments in the wound of the head.

DECURTATUS, is by some applied to a pulse which grows weaker every stroke, until an entire cessation; or if it recovers again, it is called *Pulsus decurtatus reciprocus*. See Galen De Different Puls. lib. i. cap. xi.

DEFENSIVA. In Paracelsus they are called cordials.

DEFLUVIUM. A falling off of the hair.

DEGMOS, (*δηγμος*, from *δανω*, to bite). A biting pain in the orifice of the stomach, such as is perceived in the heart-burn, &c.

DEJECTORIA. Purging medicines.

DEINOSIS, (*δεινωσις*, from *δεινω*, to exaggerate). Exaggeration. Hippocrates uses this word with respect to the supercilia, where it imports their being enlarged.

DELACRYMATIVÆ. Delacrymatives, medicines which dry the eyes by first discharging tears, such are onions, &c.

DELAPSIA. A falling down of the anus, uterus, or intestines; from *delabo*, to slip down.

DELPHYS, *δελφύς*. The uterus.

DEMOTIVUS LAPsus. Sudden death.

DENDROLIBANUS. Rosemary.

DENODATIO. Dissolution.

DENTARPAGO. The instrument called *Dentagra*.

DENTO. One whose teeth are prominent to a great degree, or who is full mouthed.

DEPURATORIA FEBRIS. Depuratory fever, a name given by Sydenham to a fever which prevailed in the year 1661 and 1664. He called it depuratory, because he observed that nature regulated all the symptoms in such a manner as to fit the febrile matter for expulsion in a certain time, either by a copious sweat or a free perspiration. See Swan's Translation of Sydenham's Works.

DERAS, *δεραι*. A sheep-skin, the title of a book in chemistry, treating

of the art of transmuting base metals into gold. It is wrote on sheep-skins.

DERTRON, δερτρον. Fœsius says it is the abdomen or omentum: Linden and Coronarius say it is the small intestines.

DESCENSORIUM. The furnace in which the distillatio per descensum is performed.

DESIPIENTIA. The symptomatic phrenitis.

DESME, (from δεω, to bind or tie). This word occurs in Moschion, and signifies the same as *manipulus*, *fasciculus*.

DESMIDION, δεσμιδιον. It is a diminutive of *desme*; so signifies a small handful.

DESMOS, δεσμος. In Hippoc. De Fract. this word signifies an affection of the joint after a luxation, in the manner of a tie or ligature, whereby they are rendered incapable of bending or stretching out. It proceeds from inflammation.

DESUDATION, from *desudo*, to sweat off, expresses a profuse and inordinate sweating from what cause soever.

DEUTERIA, δευτερια. A poor kind of wine, which the Latins call *Lora*; also, adhesion of the placenta.

DEUTERION, δευτεριον. The secundines.

DEXTANS. A ten ounce measure or weight.

DIA, in Greek, signifying *ex* or *cum*, *of* or *with*, is frequently prefixed in the name of some medicines to the principal ingredient therein; as *Diascordium* is a composition wherein *Scordium* is the chief ingredient; *Diasena*, from *Sena*, and so of many others.

DIABEBOS, διαβεβως. The ankle bones; Hippocrates uses this word.

DIABOLUS METALLORUM. A name of tin, because when incorporated with other metals, they are not

reduced but with the greatest difficulty.

DIABOTANUM, (from βοτανη, an herb). The name of a plaster prepared of herbs.

DIABROSIS, (διαβρωσις, from διαβρωσκω, to eat through). An erosion of the skin, from a pungent matter, either externally or materially produced.

DIACATHOLICON, sometimes called *Catholicon*, (from δια, of, and καθολικος, universal). The universal purge. Originally it was prescribed by Nicolaus, and was an electuary which he proposed as a purge suited to carry off all kinds of humours.

DIACELTATESSON. A name given by Van Helmont to a purging preparation of antimony. It is also a term in Paracelsus; he seems to mean a vomit excited by mercury. According to some, this word signifies quicksilver dissolved in alcahest.

DIACENOS, (διακενος, from κενος, empty). An epithet of porous bodies, such as sponge, pumice-stone, &c.

DIACHALASIS, (διαχαλασις, from διαχαλαω, to relax). This word was formerly used to signify the opening of the futures of the skull.

DIACHEIRISMOS, (διαχειρισμος, from χειρ, a hand). It is any manual operation.

DIACHELIDONIUM, (from χελιδων, a swallow). A preparation of swallows.

DIACHOREMA, διαχωρημα. All sorts of excretion from the body, but more properly and frequently those by stool.

DIACHRISTA, (from χριω, to anoint). In P. Ægineta it signifies medicines that are applied to the fauces, palate, uvula, and tongue, to absterge phlegm.

DIACHYLON, διαχυλων. An emollient digestive plaster, made of certain juices. This name is given to very different compositions for plaster.

ters, and is now the *Emplastrum Lithargyri*.

DIACHYSIS, (διαχυσις, from χυω, to fuse or melt). Fusion.

DIACHYTICA, in Dioscorides are medicines that discuss or dissolve.

DIACHYTOS, διαχυτος. An epithet for wine prepared of grapes that have been dried seven days, and were pressed on the eighth.

DIACINEMA, (διακίνημα, from διακινω, to move asunder). A slight dislocation.

DIACLYSMA, (διακλυσμα, from διακλυζω, to wash out, or rinse). It generally signifies a gargarism.

DIACOCHLACON, (διακοχλακων, from κοχμακες, flints). An epithet of milk in which red hot flints have been extinguished. Such milk is said to be sudorific.

DIACODIUM, (διακώδων, from δια and κωδία, or κωδεία, a poppy head). *Codia* signifies the top or head of any plant, but by way of pre-eminence particularly the poppy. It is the syrup made with the heads of white poppies, and called *Syr. Papaveris albi*.

DIACOPE, (διακοπή, from διακοπτω, to cut through). A deep cut or wound, or cutting of any part.

DIACRISIS, (διακρίσις, from διακρινω, to judge or distinguish). The judging of diseases and symptoms.

DIACURCUMA, from *Curcuma*, a word which Fuchsius thinks Mesue used for saffron. A name of several antidotes used in Myrepsus, of which saffron is an ingredient.

DIACYDONIUM. Marmalade of quinces.

DIADEXIS, διαδεξις. *Metastasis*.

DIADOCHÆ, διαδοχη. *Diadexis*.

DIADOSIS, (διαδοσις, from διαδωμι, to distribute or dissipate). In medicinal authors it signifies to remit, though sometimes it means the distribution of the aliment over all the body.

DIÆRESIS, (διαίρεσις, from διαίρειν, to divide or separate). It

is any solution of continuity; though in surgery it usually expresses that division of operations, by which parts morbidly or preternaturally concreted, are divided.

DIÆRETICA, (διαίρετικά, from διαίρειν, to divide). Corrosive medicines.

DIALEPSIS, (διαληψις, from διαλαμβάνω). The same as *Apolepsis*. Hippocrates means by it the space left in a bandage for a fracture in which the dressings are applied to wounds.

DIALTHÆA. The name of an ointment in Myrepsus, from which the ointment of althæa, now in use, seems to have been taken.

DIAMASSEMA, (διαμασσημα, from διαμασσαι, to chew). A masticatory.

DIAMBRÆ (*Pil. vel Spec.*) i. e. *Pil. vel Spec. Ammat*. The name is from the ambergris which was part of the composition.

DIAMNES. An involuntary discharge of urine, and that insensibly.

DIAMOTOSIS, (διαμοτοσις, from μοτος, lint). The introducing of lint into a wound or ulcer.

DIANANCASMOS, (διαναγκασμος, from αναγκη, force or necessity). The forcible restitution of a luxated part into its proper place. Hippocrates calls an instrument thus, which is intended for restoring a distorted spine.

DIAPEDESIS, διαπηδησις, is such a rupture of the sides of a vessel of the body, from an internal cause, as leaves considerable interstices between the fibres through which the contents escape, (from δια, *per*, through, and πηδαι, *salio*, to leap). It is also expressive of a transfusion of blood through the coats of an artery.

DIAPENTE. A composition so called because it consists of five ingredients.

DAPHLYXIS, διαφλυξις. In Galen's *Exegetis* it is expounded by effusions.

DIAPHORA, (διαφορα, from διαφέρω,

to differ). Difference. In medicine it comprehends the characteristic marks and signs which distinguish one disease from another. It also signifies a corruption of food in the stomach; and then it is an instance of *Dyspepsia*.

DIAPHORA, (*διαθορα*, from *φθιζω*, to corrupt). In Hippocrates it signifies the corruption of the fetus. An abortion.

DIAPHYLACTICOS, (from *φύλασσω*, to keep). Preservative or prophylactic.

DIAPHYSIS, (*διαφυσικ*). An interstice, a partition or whatever intervenes between things. Galen explains it to be a nervous and cartilaginous protuberance in the middle of the joining of the os tibiæ with the os femoris, which enters that large sinus, and makes a separation between the lower heads and processes of the os femoris, which are inserted into the sinus of the os tibiæ. This substance only appears in recent subjects. In other places the *diaphysis* is spoken of as a cavity, chink, &c. for the reception of some other part.

DIAPLASIS, (*διαπλασις*, from *διαπλάσσω*, to fashion). Conformation. It signifies the replacing a luxated or fractured bone as near as may be to its proper situation.

DIAPLĀSMA, (*διαπλασμα*). An unctio or fomentation applied all over the body, from *διαπλάσσω*, to smear over.

DIAPNOE, (*διαπνοη*). Perspiration.

DIAPOREMA, (*διαπορημα* from *διαπορευω*, to be in doubt). Anxiety in distempers.

DIAPTEROSIS, from *πτερον*, a feather. The cleaning of the ears with a feather.

DIAPYEMA, (*διαπυημα*, from *πυνω*, pus, an abscess or a suppuration.

DIAPYEMATA. Suppurating medicines.

DIAPYESIS, (*διαπυησις*). In Sauvage's Nosology, it is a kind of ab-

scess in the eye, causing blindness.

DIAPYETICA, (*διαπυητικά*). Suppurating medicines.

DIARIA FEBRIS. Diary fever, a fever of one day. See *Ephemera*.

DIARRHOCHÆ. The interstices betwixt the circumvolutions of bandages.

DIARRHAGE, (*διαρραγη*). A fracture in particular of the temple bones.

DIASCILLION. So M. Empiricus calls the vinegar and oxymel of squills.

DIASCINCI. A name for *Mithridate*.

DIASCORDIUM. So called from the scordium in it. *Elect. e Scordio*.

DIASOSTICA, (from *σῶζω*, to preserve). That part of medicine which relates to the preservation of health.

DIASPHAGE, (*διασφαγη*). An interstice. Hippocrates expresses by it the interval betwixt two branches of a vein.

DIASPHYXIS, (*διασφυξις*, from *σφύζω*, to strike). The pulsation of an artery.

DIATOMOTRIS, (*διαστομωτρις*), implies any dilating instrument, as a speculum oris, speculum ani, &c.

DIASTREMA, (*διαστρημα*, from *διαστρεφω*, to distort or turn aside). A distortion of the limbs.

DIATASIS, (*διατασις*, from *διατεινω*, to distend or stretch out). The extension of a fractured limb, in order to its reduction.

DIATESSARON, (*διατεσσαρων*, from *δια*, and *τεσσαρες*, four). A compound medicine, so called because made of four ingredients.

DIATRITARI, and *Diatritos*, (*διατριτος*). An abstinence during three days was one of the points in practice by which the first methodics distinguish themselves from other physicians. This term of three days they called *diatritos*, and not the abstinence itself; and from this circumstance the methodics had the name of *diatritarii*. On the third day they

gave such medicines as they thought proper, and not before. Cœlius Aurelianus gives the name *diatritos*, not only to the space of three days, but to the third day in particular also.

DIAULOS, *διᾱυλος*. A kind of exercise in which the person runs a straight course forwards and back again.

DIAZOMA, *διᾱζωμα*. A name of the diaphragm, from *διᾱ*, and *ζωωμι* to surround.

DIAZOSTER, *διᾱζωστῆρ*. A name of the twelfth vertebra of the back. It is so called from *ζωστήρ*, the belt, which lies upon it.

DIEMEAC. A term in Paracelsus. It signifies a kind of spirit, which he says resides in stones.

DIEXODOS, (*διᾱέξωδος*, from *διᾱ*, and *έξωδος*, a way by which any thing passes). In Hippocrates, it is the descent or passage of the excrements by the anus.

DIFFLATIO. Transpiration.

DIGLOSSON, (from *δι*, double, and *γλωσσα*, tongue). A name of the *Laurus Alexandrina*, because that above its leaf there grows another lesser leaf, resembling a tongue.

DIHÆMATON, (from *αιμα*, blood). The name of an antidote, in which is the blood of many different animals.

DIIPETES, *διιπῆτης*. In Hippocrates it is applied to semen, and signifies a sudden or immediate defluxion.

DINICA, (from *δινειν*, to turn round). Medicines against a vertigo.

DINOS, *δινος*. The same with vertigo, an apparent turning round of the objects of sight, together with a failure of the limbs, proceeding from the same causes as the apoplexy though in a less degree.

DIOBOLON, *διᾱβωλον*. The weight of $\frac{1}{2}$ i. It is also called *Gramma*.

DIOGMUS, *διᾱγμα*. A vehement palpitation of the heart.

DIONYSISCUS, *διονυσισκος*, horned.

People who have bony excrescences growing out of the temples which resemble horns.

DIOPTRISMOS, *διᾱπτρισμος*. The operation which consists in dilating the natural passages with a dioptra.

DIORRHEESIS, (*διᾱρρησις*, from *αρε*, or *αρεος*, serum). A conversion of the humours into serum and water.

DIORTHOSIS, *διᾱρθωσις*, from *αρθω*, right, or from *διορθω*, to direct). A reposition of a fractured limb into its natural situation.

DIOXELÆUM. A malagma in which was oil and vinegar.

DIPHRYGES, *διφρυγι*, or *Disphryges*, scurf. There are three kinds 1st. Metallic, produced only in Cyprus; it is found in the mud of pools, whence it is taken and dried in the sun, then burnt, whence its name, (from *δι*, twice, and *φρυγι*, to tonify, it being as it were twice roasted). 2d. The dross in working copper. 3d. Pyrites calcined to redness.

DIPNOOS, (*διπνοος*, from *δι*, double and *πνέω*, to breathe). An epithet of wounds which penetrate into some cavity, or quite through a part, or that hath two orifices.

DIPSETICUS. An epithet for such things as cause thirst.

DIPYRITES, (*διπυριτης*, or *Dipyros* from *δι*, twice, and *πυρ*, fire). Bread twice baked. Hippocrates recommends it in dropsies.

DIRADIATION, or *Irradiation*, strictly signifies to dart out light; and is applied by some anatomists to the sudden invigoration of the muscles by the animal spirits.

DISCESSUS. A chemical term, which the French call *Depart*, or *Linquart*; it signifies in general, any separation of two bodies before united; but, it is particularly applied to the separation of gold from silver by means of aqua fortis, where the silver is dissolved, but the gold left untouched.

DISCOIDES, (from *δισκος*, the quait

used in the Roman games, and εἶδος, a form). An epithet of the crystalline humour of the eye, from its form resembling a disk.

DISCRETA PURGATIVA. In Fallopius it is that sort of purging which evacuates a particular humour.

DISCIFORME. The knee-pan.

DISCUSSIO. A diophresis.

DISSEPTUM. The diaphragm.

DIVULSIO URINÆ. An irregular separation of urine, in which the sediment is divided, ragged and uneven.

DOCHME, δοχμη. A measure among the Greeks of four fingers breadth.

DODECATHEON, An antidote prescribed by P. Ægineta, which consists of twelve simples.

DODRA. A kind of potion among the ancients, made of nine ingredients.

DOGGA. An Arabic term for *Paronychia*.

DOLICHOLITHOS, (δολιχολιθος, from δολιχος a kidney-bean). Velschius gives this name to certain blackish stones from Tyrol, of the shape of a kidney-bean, which emit an odorous effluvium upon attrition.

DRAGMA, δραγμα. A handful.

DRAGMIS, δραγμις, a pugil. What may be contained in three fingers.

DRAPTOS, δραπτος, dilacerated.

DROPAX, δρωπαξ, is an external stimulating form of medicine, applied in the manner of a plaster, to cause a redness, heat, and tumour in the part that grows senseless or benumbed. Pitch, galbanum, pelltory, sal ammoniac, &c. are generally used for this purpose.

DROSTOBATANON. Betony.

DROSOMELI. Manna.

DUDASALI. A species of snake-wood.

DUELLA. A weight of eight scruples.

DUENECH. Antimony.

DUNEZ. Filings of steel.

DULECH. A term used by Paracelsus and Helmont for a sort of spongy stone generated in the body.

DYNAMIS, (δυναμις, from, δυναμαι, to be able). It is the power from whence an action proceeds. Galen often uses this word for a composition of a medicine, sometimes particularly of an approved one.

DYOTA. The circulatory vessel which the chemists call a pelican.

DYSALTHES, (δυσαλθης, from δυσ, difficulty, and αλθω, to cure). Difficult of cure.

DYSANAGOGOS. An epithet for tough viscid matter, which is difficultly expectorated.

DYSCRASIA, δυσκρασια, dyscrasy, (from δυσ, bad, and κρασις, temperament, or constitution). It is an ill habit of body, as a jaundice, &c.

DYLCRITOS, (δυσκριτος, from δυσ, difficult, and κρισις, a crisis). Difficult to be brought to a crisis, or brought to an imperfect crisis.

DYSELCE, δυσελκης, } (from δυσ, difficult and
DYSELCIA δυσελκια, } ελκος, an ulcer). An epithet for such persons whose ulcers are difficult to heal. The latter word more properly signifies such ulcers as are difficult to cure.

DYSEMETI, (from δυσ, difficult, and
μεω, to vomit). Those who vomit with difficulty.

DYSHÆMORRHOIS. Suppression of the bleeding piles.

DYSIATOS, (δυσιατος, from δυσ, difficulty, and ιαομαι, to heal). Difficult of cure.

DYODES, (δυσωδης from δυσ, bad, and οζ, to smell, an ill smell, fetid). Fœsius says, that in Hippocrates we are to understand by this word a foetid disorder of the small intestines. It is also the name of a malagma, and an acopon, which Galen and Paulus describe.

DYSODIA. Sauvages and some other nosologists form a genus of

disease which they name thus, and define it to be, stinking exhalations from the whole body, or from a particular part, as stinking breath, stinking feet, &c.

DYSTHERAPEUTOS, (δυσθεραπευ-

τος, from δυσ, difficulty, and θεραπεύω, to heal). Difficult to heal.

DYSTOCIA, (δυστοκία, from δυσ, difficulty, and τιλω, to bring forth). Difficulty in labour or child-birth.

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EBEL. The seeds of sage, or of juniper.

EBISCUS. Marshmallow.

EBRIECATUM. By this term Paracelsus expresses the partial loss of reason, as it happens in drunkenness.

EBRIECATUM CÆLESTE. By this Paracelsus means that kind of enthusiasm which is affected by many heathen priests.

EBESMECH. A name in Langius for quicksilver.

ECBOLICA, (εκβαλλω, to cast out). Medicines which cause abortion.

ECBRASMATA, (εκβρασματα, from εκβρασσω, to cast out violently). Fiery pustules on the surface of the body.

ECBYRSOMATA, (εκβυρσωματα, from βυρσα, a skin). Protuberances of the bones at the joints, which appear through the skin.

ECCATHARTICA, (εκκαθαρτικά, from καθαριω, to purge). According to Gorraeus, eccathartics are remedies which, applied to the skin, open the pores; but in general they are understood to be deobstruents: sometimes expectorants are thus called, and so are purgatives also.

ECCISIS, (εκκλινω, from εκκλινω, to bend, or turn aside). A luxation.

ECCOPE, (εκκοπη, from εκκοπιω, to cut off). The cutting off of any part.

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ECCOPEUS, (εκκοπευς, from κοπιω, to cut). An ancient instrument, of the same use as the modern raspatory.

ECDORA, (εκδορα, from εκδερω, to excoriate). Excoriation; and particularly used for an excoriation of the urethra.

ECHETROSIS. So Hippocrates calls the white bryony.

ECHINIDES. In Hippocrates it is mentioned as what he used for purging the womb with.

ECHOS, ηχος. In Hippocrates, it is the same as *Tinnitus Aurium*.

ECHISIS. A fainting or swooning.

ECLAMPSIA, εκλαμψις, } (from
ECLAMPSIS, } λαμπω, to
shine). It signifies a splendour, brightness, effulgence, flashing of light, scintillation. It is a flashing light, or those sparklings which strike the eyes of epileptic patients. Cælius Aurelianus calls them *circuli ignei*, scintillations, or fiery circles. Though only a symptom of the epilepsy, Hippocrates puts it for epilepsy itself.

ECCLECTICA, (εκλεκτική, *Medicina*, from εκλεγω, to elect). Archigenus and some others selected from all other sects what appeared to them to be the best and most rational; hence they were called *Ecclectics*, and their medicine *Ecclectic Medicine*.

ECLECTOS. A linctus.

ECLEGMA, (ἐκλεγμα, from ἐκλεῖχω, *lingo*, to lick). Is a form of medicine made by the incorporation of oils with syrups, and which is to be taken upon a liquorice stick; the same also as *Lambative*, from *lambo*, which signifies the same; and *Linctus*.

ECLYSIS, ἐκλυσις. An universal faintness.

ECNEPHIAS, (ἐκνεφίας, of ἐκ, from and νεφος, a cloud). A stormy wind breaking out of a cloud.

ECEPIESMENOS, (ἐκπεπιεσμενος, from ἐκπιεζω, to press out). An epithet for ulcers with protuberating lips.

ECPHRACTIC, (ἐκφρακτικά, from ἐκφραττω), are such medicines as incide and render more thin tough humours, so as to promote their discharge.

ECPHRAXIS, (ἐκφραξις, from ἐκφραττω, to remove obstruction). An opening of the pores.

ECPHYAS, (ἐκφυας, from ἐκ and φυω, to produce). An appendix or excrescence. Some call the appendicula vermiformis thus.

ECPHYSE. Flatus from the bladder through the urethra, and from the womb through the vagina.

ECPHYESIS, (ἐκφυσησις, from ἐκφυσω, to breathe). A quick expulsion of the air out of the lungs.

ECPHYSIS, (ἐκφυσις, from ἐκφυω, to produce). An apophysis, appendix, or process; also a name of the duodenum.

ECPIESMA, (ἐκπιεσμα, from ἐκπιεζω, to press out). The same as magma; also the juice that is pressed out from the plants of which the magma is made. It is also a kind of fracture of the cranium, in which the bones are shattered, and press inwardly, affecting the membranes of the brain.

ECPISMOS, (ἐκπιεσμος, from ἐκπιεζω, to express). In general it implies expression, but it is also the name of

a disorder of the eye, which consists in a great prominence of the entire globe, thrust as it were almost out of the orbit by an afflux of humours.

ECPLEROMA, (ἐκπληρωμα, from ἐκπληρωω, to fill). In Hippocrates they are hard balls of leather, or other substances, adapted to fill the armpits, while by the help of the heels, placed against the balls, and repressing the same, the luxated os humeri is reduced into its place.

ECPLEXIS, (ἐκπληξις, from ἐκπλησσω, to terrify or astonish). A stupor or astonishment, from sudden external accidents.

ECPNOE, (ἐκπνοή, from ἐκπνεω, to breathe). Expiration; that part of respiration in which the air is expelled from the lungs.

ECPTOMA, (ἐκπτωμα, from ἐκπιπτω, to fall out). A luxation of the bone, the exclusion of the secundines; and speaking of corrupt parts, it signifies a falling off. It is also an hernia in the scrotum, and a falling down of the womb.

ECPYEMA, ἐκπυημα, A copious collection of pus or matter, from the suppuration of a tumour.

ECREXIS, (from ἐκρηγνυμι, to break). A rupture. Hippocrates expresses by it a rupture or laceration of the womb.

ECRHYTHMOS, ἐκρυθμος. It is applied to the pulse, and signifies that it is disorderly or irregular.

ECROE, (ἐκροή, from ἐκρεω, to flow out). An efflux, or the course by which any humour which requires purging is evacuated.

ECRUSIS, (from ἐκρεω, to flow out). In Hippocrates it is an efflux of the semen before it receives the conformation of a foetus, and therefore is called an efflux, to distinguish it from abortion.

ECSARCOMA, (ἐκσάρκωμα, from σαρξ, flesh). A fleshy excrescence.

ECSTASIS, (ἐκστασις, from ἐξιστημαι, to be out of one's senses). An ecstasy or trance. In Hippocrates it signifies a delirium. Dr. Cullen ranks it as a kind of apoplexy. See *Exsacis*.

ECTROPHIUS, (ἐκτροφίος, from ἐκτρέφω, to invert). An epithet for any medicine that makes the blind piles appear outwardly.

ECTASIS, (ἐκτασις, from ἐκτείνω, to extend). An extension of the skin, the reverse to wrinkling.

ECTEXIS, (ἐκτεξίς, from ἐκτείνω, to liquify or consume). An emaciation.

ECTEYNSIS, (ἐκτελυνσις, from ἐκτελύνω, to render effeminate). Softness. It is applied to the skin and flesh, when lax and soft, and to bandages when not sufficiently tight.

ECTHLIMMA, (ἐκθλιμμα, from ἐκθλίβω, to press out against). An ulceration caused by pressure of the skin.

ECTHLIPSIS, (ἐκθλιψις, from ἐκθλίβω, to press out against). Elision or expression. It is spoken of swelled eyes, when they dart forth sparks of light.

ECTHYMA, (ἐκθύμα, from ἐκθύω, to break out). A pustule or cutaneous eruption.

ECTHYMATATA, ἐκθύματα. Pimples, pustules, or cutaneous eruptions.

ECTOPOCYSTICA ISCHURIA. In Sauvages's Nosology, it is a suppression of urine from a rupture of the bladder.

ECTOMON. Black hellebore.

ECTRIMMA, (ἐκτριμμα, from ἐκτρίβω, of τρίβω, to rub). An attrition or galling. In Hippocrates it is an excoriation of the skin about the os sacrum.

ECTROPE, (ἐκτροπή, from ἐκτρέπω, to divert, pervert, or invert). It is any duct by which the humours are diverted and drawn off. In P. Ægibeta it is the same as *Edropium*.

ECTROSIS, (ἐκτρωσις, from ἐκτρίβω, to miscarry). A miscarriage,

ECTORITICA, (from ἐκτρίβω, to miscarry). Medicines which cause miscarriage.

ECTYLOTICA. So Horstius calls medicines that destroy callosities.

ECZEMA, (ἐκζεμα, from ἐκζέω, to boil, or to be hot). An hot painful pustule.

EDELPHUS. So Paracelsus calls one who makes prognostics from the nature of the elements.

EDENTULUS. Without teeth.

EDES. Amber.

EDIC, *Edicb*. Iron.

EDRA. A fractured bone, in which, beside the fracture, there is an impression from the instrument by which it was broken.

EFFIDES. Ceruse.

EFFILA. Freckles.

EFFRACTURA. A species of fracture of the cranium, when the bone is broken and much depressed by a blow.

EILAMIDES, (εἰλαμίδες, from εἰλεω, to involve). The meninges or membranes of the brain, viz. the dura and pia mater.

EILEMA, (εἰλημα, from εἰλεω, to form convolutions). In Hip. De Flatibus, it signifies painful convolutions of the intestines from flatulence. Sometimes it signifies a covering. Vogel says, it is a fixed pain in the guts, as if a nail was driven in.

EILEON, (from εἰλεω, to wind). Gorræus says it is a name of the intestinum ileum.

EILEOS, (εἰλεός, from εἰλεω, to form convolutions). The iliac passion.

EISBOLE, (εἰσβολή from εἰς, into, and βάλλω, to cast). It signifies strictly an injection, but is used to express the access of a distemper, or of a particular paroxysm.

EISENMAN. A variety of the species of iron, which is of the unnamed colour of metals. It is of a scaly structure, not rubbing into scales.

ELAMBICATIO. A method of

analyzing mineral waters to investigate their virtues.

ELAPHOPILA. The hairs collected in the stomach of a stag, and formed there into a ball.

ELAPHOSCORODON. Stag's or viper's garlic.

ELAQUIR. Red vitriol.

ELAS MARIS. Burnt lead.

ELASIS. Elastic.

ELASMA, ελασμα, (from ελαυνω, a lamina or plate of any kind; but it is used to express a glyster-pipe.

ELECTRODES, (from ηλεκτρος, amber). An epithet for stools which shine like amber.

ELECTRUM MINERALE. The tincture of metals. It is made of tin and copper, to which some add gold, and double its quantity of martial regulus of antimony melted together; from these there results a metallic mass, to which some chemists have given the name of *electrum minerale*. This mass is powdered and detonated with nitre and charcoal to a kind of scoria; it is powdered again whilst hot, and then digested in spirit of wine, whence a tincture is obtained of a fine red colour.

ELERSNA. *Molybdena*.

ELETTARI. The lesser cardamoms.

ELHANNA. *Alcanna*.

ELHANNE ARABUM. Eastern privet.

ELIGH MORBUS. A fistula.

ELIGMA. A linctus.

ELIPSIS. The scoria of silver.

ELOANX. Auripigmentum.

ELODES. So the Greeks call sweating fevers; they are a kind of tertian intermittents.

ELOME. Auripigmentum.

ELOPITINUM. Vitriol.

ELOS MARIS. Burnt lead.

ELUTRIATIO. Washing over. It is the pouring a liquor out of one vessel into another, in order to separate the subsiding matter from the clear and fluid part.

ELUVIES. In Pechlinus it imports the humour discharged in a fluor albus.

EMBORISMA. An aneurism.

EMBREGMA, εμβρεγμα, (from εμβρεχω, to moisten). An embrocation.

EMBROCHE, εμβροχη, (from εμβρεχω, to make wet). *Embrocatio*, vel *Fomentatio*.

EMBRONTETOS, εμβροντητος, (from βρονη, thunder). Properly it is one thunderstruck; and from a similarity of effects it is applied to apoplectic persons.

EMBRYOTHLASTES, εμβρυοθλαστης, (from εμβρυον, foetus, and θλαω, to break). An instrument to break the bones of a foetus, in order to its more easy delivery. It is also a crotchet for extracting a foetus.

EMMENIA, εμμηνια, (from μην, a month). The menstrual discharges.

EMMOTOS, εμματος, (from μωλος, lint). An epithet for persons, parts of the body, or disorders that require lint for the cure.

EMODIA. A stupor of the teeth.

EMPHRACTICA, εμφρακτικά, (from εμφρασσω, to obstruct). Such topics as obstruct the pores when applied to the skin.

EMPHRAGMA, (εμφραγμα, from εμφρασσω, to obstruct). An impediment or obstruction. Thus Hippocrates calls the parts of a child which present in an unnatural posture, because they obstruct the birth.

EMPNEUMATOSIS, εμπνευματωσις, (from εμπνεω, to blow into, or inflate). An inflation of the stomach, the womb, or other parts.

EMPRION, εμπριων, (from εμπριω, to saw). Saw-like; a kind of pulse mentioned by Galen, in which the artery is unequally distended in different parts.

EMPTYSIS, (from εμπτωω, to spit upon). Arétæus limits this word to a discharge of blood by spitting,

when it comes only from the mouth, fauces, and parts adjacent.

EMPYROS, ἐμπυρος. One labouring under a fever.

ENÆMOS, ἐναῖμος, (from αἷμα, blood). So Hippocrates and Galen call such topical medicines as are appropriated to bleeding wounds.

ENÆOREMA, ἐναῖωρημα, (from ἐναῖωρεωμαι, in *sublime extollar*, to be lift up, called also *Nubecula*, little clouds), are those contents of the urine which float about in the middle, resembling a cloud.

ENARGES, ἐναργής, (from αργός, white). Hippocrates applies this as an epithet to dreams.

ENCARDION, ἐγκαρδιον, (from καρδιά, the heart). The pith of vegetables.

ENCARDIUM PREMNCU, ἐγκαρδιον πρενον. The heart and marrow of the trunk; but Dioscorides improperly calls the tender medullary substance which grows on the tops of the great palm tree, thus.

ENCATALEPSIS, ἐγκαταληψις. *Catalepsis*.

ENCATHISMA, ἐγκάθισμα, (from ἐγκάθιζμαι, to sit in). A semicupium.

ENCERIS, ἐγκηρις, (from κηρος, wax). Bits of wax found in plasters as they cool.

ENCHARAXIS, ἐγχαραξις, (from χαρασσω, to scarify). Scarification.

ENCHEIRESIS, ἐγχειρεσις, (from χεῖρ, a hand). Galen uses this word as part of the title to one of his works, which treats of dissection. The word imports the manual treatment of any subject.

ENCHILOMA. So Lemery says an elixir is sometimes called.

ENCHONDROS, ἐγχονδρος, from χονδρ, which signifies both a grain and a cartilage; hence implies both granulated and cartilaginous.

ENCHORIOS, (from ἐν and χωρος, a region or country). Endemical.

ENCHRISTA. Liquid medicines for anointing any part with.

ENCHYMA, (ἐγχυμα, from ἐγχύω, to infuse). Infusion, or a sanguine plethora.

ENCHYMATA, ἐγχύματα. Liquid medicines to be infused into the eyes, ears, &c.

ENCHYMOMA, (ἐγχυμωμη, of ἐγχυμος, from ἐγχύω). In the writings of the ancient physicians, it is a word by which they express that sudden effusion of blood into the cutaneous vessels, which arises from joy, anger, or shame, and in the last instance is what we usually call blushing.

ENCHYMOSIS, ἐγχυμωσις. Blushing; also an extravasation of blood, which makes the part appear livid. Thus, but improperly, it is synonymous with *Ecchymosis*.

ENCHYOTOS. An epithet for any thing infused into any cavity of the body.

ENCLYSMA. A glyster.

ENCELIA, (ἐγκοιλία, from ἐν, in, and κοιλία, the belly). All the contents of the abdomen.

ENCOLPISMOS. An uterine injection.

ENCOPE, ἐγκοπή, from ἐν, in, and κοπτω, to cut). An incision, and figuratively, an impediment.

ENCYMON, (ἐγκυμιον, from ἐγκυω, to conceive). Pregnant with child.

ENEDINEMENOS, (ἐνδεδινημένος, from ἐνδινεω, to turn round like a vortex). An epithet for the eyes which perpetually turn in their orbits.

ENDEIXIS. An indication.

ENDESIS, (ἐνδεσις, from δεῖω, to tie). A ligature, band, or connexion.

ENELLAGMENOS, (ἐνὲλλαγμενος, from ἐναλλάττομαι, to be changed). An epithet applied to the joints of the vertebræ, because of their alternate or mutual reception and insertion.

ENEOS, ἐνεός. Vain, empty, or

useless. The Greeks call those who are unable to perform the common offices of life, such as dumb, deaf, &c. *ενεοί*.

ENERGUMENI, *ενεργυμενοι*, expresses in some authors a possession by evil spirits.

ENGISOMA, *εγγεισωμά*. An instrument formerly used about fractures of the cranium: also the same as *Engisomata*.

ENGISOMATA. Fractures of the cranium, in the middle of which the bone presses upon the membrane of the brain, and makes the appearance of *γεισόν*, the eaves of a house, from *εγγίζω*, to draw near.

ENGOMPHOSIS. *Gomphosis*.

ENGONIOS, (from *γωνία*, an angle). Hippocrates expresses by it the bending of the arm at a right angle.

ENIXA. A woman in child-bed.

ENIXUM, from an original signifying to bring forth, is by the chemists applied to a kind of salt, partaking both of an acid and alkaline nature, as the *Tartar of Vitriol*, which some also call *Sal neutrum*, *Sal tertium*, and *Sal salsum*.

ENIXUM PARACELSI (*Sal*). It is the caput mortuum of the spirit of nitre, joined with vitriolic acid. It is much the same as the *tart. vitr.*

ENNEAPHYLLUM, (from *εννεα*, nine, and *φυλλον*, a leaf). *Helleboraster*.

ENOCHDIANUS. In Paracelsus, it is one who equals Enoch in longevity.

ENS PARVUM SAFIENTIUM. It is soap made by mixing fixed alkaline salt with distilled vegetable oil.

ENS PRIMUM SOLARE. *Antimonium*.

ENTADA. A species of *Mimosa*.

ENTALE. A vessel.

ENTALI. Fossil alum.

ENTATICA, *εντατικά* (*Medicamenta*). Medicines that provoke venery.

Cælius Aurelianus calls them *Satyrice*.

ENTERA. So Hippocrates calls the bags in which were inclosed medicines for fomentations.

ENTERADENES, (from *εντερον*, an intestine, and *αδην*, a gland). The intestinal glands.

ENTERENCHYTE, (from *εντερα*, the viscera, and *εγχύω*, to infuse). Instruments for administering glysters.

ENTERON, (*εντερον*, from *εντος*, within). Internal and intestine. But in Hippocrates, *Epid. vi. sect. 4. ap. 3.* *enteron* signifies simply the colon.

ENTHEMATA, (from *εντιθημι*, to put in). Medicines applied immediately to recent wounds, in order to prevent an inflammation, and stop an hæmorrhage.

ENTHETOS, (*ενθετος*, from *εντιθημι*, to put in). Any thing introduced, but particularly such as are put up the nose, to prevent an hæmorrhage there.

ENTHLASIS, *ενθλασις*. A contusion, with the impression of the instrument by which it happened.

ENTRICHOMA, (*εντριχωμα*, from *εν* and *τριχωμα*, the hair). The edge of the eye-lid, on which the hairs grow.

ENTYPOSIS, (*εντυπωσις*, from *εντυπω*, to make an impression, of *τυπος*, a type or image formed by impression). The acetabulum of the humerus.

ENULON, (*ενυλον*, from *εν* and *υλον*, the gums). The internal flesh of the gums, or that part of them which is within the mouth.

ENYPOSAPROS, *ενυποσαπρος*, from *εν*, within, *υπο*, a preposition, which in composition is a diminutive one, and *σαπρος*, putrid). An epithet used to the spit of hepatic patients.

ENYSTRON, (*ηνυστρον*, from *ανω*, to perfect). The last or fourth

ventricle in animals that chew the cud, which completes the digestion. According to Aristotle, it is a second ventricle, or thick part of the stomach of ruminating animals, in which the food is concocted. Gorræus makes it the same with *Abomasum*.

EON, ηων. The whole compass of the eye.

EPACMASTICA, επακμαστικός. It is a continual putrid fever that is still increasing.

EPAGOGION, επαγωγιον. A name in Dioscorides for the prepuce.

EPANADIDONTES PURETI. Fevers whose heat is not biting to the touch in the beginning, but becomes more and more so in the advance.

EPANADIPLOSIS, (επαναδιπλωσις, from διπλος, reduplication). The reduplication of a fit of a semi-tertian fever: that is, the renewal of a cold fit before the hot fit is ended.

EPANASTASIS, επαναστασις. A tumour or tubercle.

EPANCYLOTUS, (επαγκυλωτος, from αγκυλος, crooked). A sort of bandage in Oribasius.

EPANTHISMA, (επανθισμα, from ανθος, a flower). An efflorescence.

EPAPHÆRESIS, (επαφαιρεισις, from επι, importing a repetition, and αφαιρεσις, a removal). In Galen it is used to express a repeated evacuation by bleeding.

EPARCEMOS. An epithet for a person affected with that disorder of the eye called *Argemon*.

EPARITA. A sort of earth thus named.

EPARMA, επαρμα, or Eparfis, (επαρσις, from παιρω, to elevate). Any kind of tumour, but frequently applied to the parotis.

EPASMASTICA FEBRIS. A fever is thus termed by Bellini, and others long before him, while it is in its increase.

EPENCRANIS. A name of the cerebellum,

EPHEBÆON, εφηβαιον. The pubes.

EPHEDRA. The name of an instrument for reducing luxations.

EPHEDRANA. The buttocks.

EPHELICIS, (εφελικς, from ελκος, an ulcer). The crust of an ulcer, or a small abrasion, or bloody fragment coughed up.

EPHIALTES, (εφιαλτης, from εφαιλομαι, to leap upon). The nightmare.

EPHIALTIA. A name for the *Pæonia*.

EPHODOS, (εφοδος, from επι and οδος, a way). In Hippocrates it hath three significations: 1. the ducts or passages by which the excrements of the body are evacuated: 2. the periodical attack of a fever, from the common use of it to express the attack of thieves: 3. the access of similar or dissimilar things, which may be useful or hurtful to the body.

EPIALA. A kind of tertian fever.

EPIALOS, επιαλος. An ardent fever in which both heat and cold are felt in the same part at the same time. Galen defines it to be a fever in which the patient labours under a preternatural heat and a coldness at the same time. The ancient Latins call it *Quercera*.

EPIBOLE, (from επιβαλλω, to press upon). The nightmare.

EPICANTHIDES, επικανθιδες. The two angles of the eyes.

EPICARPIUM, (from επι, super, upon, and καρπος, carpus, the wrist), are medicines applied to the wrists of any kind, but for conveniency they are generally in the forms of cataplasms or plasters.

EPICERASTIC, (επικεραστικός, from επι, supra, above, and κεραννυμι tempero, to correct), is a medicine that assuages and corrects sharp humours.

EPICHOLOS, (επιχολος, from χολη, bile). Bilious.

EPICHORDIS, (ἐπιχορδῆς, from ἐπι, and χορδή). The mesentery.

EPICÆLIS, ἐπικαῖλη. The upper eyelid, or cilium.

EPICRASIS, ἐπικράσις. A critical évacuation of bad humours, an at-temperation of bad ones. When a cure is performed in the alterative way, it is called *per Epicrasin*.

EPICTENION, (ἐπικτενιον, from ἐπι, upon, and κτεῖς, pubes). The part above the pubes.

EPICYEMA, (ἐπικυημα, from κυῶ, to conceive). In Hippocrates it is a foetus; also a mole.

EPICYESIS, (ἐπικυησις, from κυῶ, to conceive). Superfoetation.

EPIDERIS. The clitoris.

EPIIDOSIS, ἐπιιδσις. A preternatural enlargement of the parts.

EPIDPOME, (ἐπιδρομή, from ἐπι, upon, and δρέμω, to run). An afflux of humours, as it happens when a ligature is made on any part.

EPIGENNEMA, (ἐπιγεννημα, from ἐπιγενναῶ, to generate over and above, or anew). Sometimes it signifies a symptom; at others, any thing grown over another, as when the saliva is thickened and forms a fur on the tongue.

EPIGINOMENA, (ἐπιγινομενα, from ἐπιγινομαι, to succeed or supervene). Galen says, they are those symptoms which naturally succeed, or may be expected in the progress of a disease; but Fæsius says, they are accessions of some other affection to diseases, which never happen but in stubborn and malignant diseases.

EPIGLOSSUM. A name for the *Laurus Alexandrina*.

EPIGLOTTUM. An instrument mentioned by Paracelsus for elevating the eye-lids.

EPIGLOUTIS, ἐπιγλυτις, or *Epiglutis*, (from ἐπι, above, and γλυτός, the buttock). The superior part of the buttock.

EPIGONATIS, ἐπιγονατις, from ἐπι,

upon, and γονῦ, a knee). The patella.

EPIGOUNIDES. The muscles inserted into the knees.

EPIMORIOS, (ἐπιμοριος, from μοιρῶ, to divide). Superpartial. In Galen it is an epithet of the difference of pulses, with respect to their inequality of the time they keep in beating.

EPIMULIS, ἐπιμυλις. The kneepan.

EPINENEUCOS, (ἐπινευενκός, from νευῶ, to nod or incline). It is an epithet of a pulse which beats unequally in different parts of the artery. It is also called *Perineneucos*. Galen says it is familiar in hectic.

EPINEPHELOS, (ἐπινεφελος, from νεφλῶ, a cloud). Cloudy; an epithet applied to the enæorema in the urine, which appears like a cloud.

EPINOTION, (ἐπινωτιον, from ἐπι, upon, and νωτός, the back). The shoulder-blade.

EPIOS, ἥπιος. Mild, gentle, an epithet which Hippocrates bestows on mild epidemic fevers.

EPIPAROXYSMUS. It is when the patient suffers more exacerbations than are usual in a fever.

EPIPECHY, (ἐπιπῆχυ, from ἐπι, above, and πῆχυς, the cubit). The parts of the arm above the cubit.

EPIPEPHYCOS, (ἐπιπεφυκός, from ἐπι, upon, and φυῶ, to grow). A name of the *Tunica conjunctiva*.

EPIPHÆNOMENOS, (ἐπιφαινόμενος, from ἐπι, importing addition, and φαινόμενος, a phænomenon or symptom). An adventitious symptom which does not appear till the disease is found, and seems to be the same as *Epiginomenos*.

EPIPHLEBOS, (ἐπιφλεβός, from ἐπι and φλεψ, a vein). One whose veins are prominent.

EPIPHLOGISMA, (ἐπιφλογισμα, from ἐπι, and φλογίζω, to inflame, of φλογ, a flame). A violent inflammation, attended with pain, tumour, and redness.

EPIPHLOGISMA. A name which Hippocrates gives to the shingles; also a burning heat in any part.

EPIPLASMA, επιπλασμα. *Cataplasm.* Also a name for an application of wheat meal boiled in hydrelæum to wounds.

EPIPLOMPHALON, (επιπλομφαλον, from επιπλον, the omentum, and ομφαλος, the navel). An hernia umbilicalis.

EPIPOSCHEOCELE. An hernia in which the omentum descends into the scrotum.

EPIPOGIUM. A species of *Saryrium*.

EPIPOLÆUS, επιπολαιος. Slight, gentle. Hippocrates applies it to disorders that are no way dangerous.

EPIPOLASIS, επιπολασις. A redundancy and fluctuation. In chemistry, it is when what is sublimed, ascends only to the surface, and settles.

EPIPOROMA, επιπωρωμα. It is any indurated tumour in the joints, from επιωρωα, to harden; a callous concretion, a tophus, a tophaceous callus molesting the joints.

EPISARCIDIUM, (επισαρκιδιον, from σαρξ, flesh). The same as *Anasarca*.

EPISCHION, (επισχιον, from επι, upon, and ισχιον, *ischium*). The os pubis.

EPISEION, επισειον. The pubes.

EPISTASIS, επιστασις. See *Episthefis*. Also the substance on the surface of the urine.

EPISTROPHALUS, (from επι, upon, and στρεφω, to turn about). It is applied to the first vertebra of the neck, because it turns about upon the second as upon an axis, which therefore was so called by the ancients. Some, though improperly, call the second thus. It is also written *Epistrophea* and *Epistrophis*.

EPITASIS, επιτασις. In Hippo-

crates it is the beginning and increase of the fit.

EPITEDEUMA, επιτηδευμα. The way of living which a person prescribes to himself. Cœlius Aurelianus calls it *Vita affectiones*, and Celsus calls it *Vita propofita*.

EPITHEMA, επιθημα, or *Epithem*, (επιθεμα, from επι, upon, and τιθημι, to lay upon or apply). It is any outward application, but generally signifies those of a liquid form, like a fomentation.

EPITHESES, επιθεσις. In surgery it is the rectification of crooked limbs by means of instruments.

EPOCHETEUSIS, εποχετευσις. A derivation of the juices to the other parts.

EPOMIS, επωμις, *Acromion*; from επι, upon, and ωμος, shoulder.

EPOMPHALIUM, (επομφαλιον, from επι, upon, and ομφαλος, the navel). Any application to the navel.

EPODE, επωδη, or *Epodos*, (from επι, over, and ωδη, a song): The method of curing distempers by incantation.

EREGMOS, (ερεγμος, from ρηγνυμι, to break). It is any leguminous fruit decorticated and broken into pieces. Fœsius says it is bean meal.

EREUMENA URA. Urine that assumes a cloudy consistence in the middle.

ERUEXIS, ερευξις. Eruetation.

ERGALIA. That part of alchemy that explains the instruments thereof.

ERGASIMA. A name of the worst sort of myrrh.

ERGASTERIUM, (from εργον, a work). A laboratory. In particular, it is that part of a furnace in which the copel, alembic, retort, &c. containing the matter to be acted upon, is reposit.

ERINEOS. The wild fig-tree.

ERIX. The superior part of the liver.

ERRHIPSIS, (ερεψις, from ριπτα, to precipitate). When spoken with respect to the body, it signifies a loss of strength.

ERYTHROIDES, ερυθροειδης, or *Erythroides*, (from ερυθρον, *rubrum*, red, and ειδος, *forma*, appearance), is a red membrane, called also *Tunica vaginalis*, embracing loosely the whole body of the testicles, and adhering to one end of the epididymis.

ESAPHE, (εσαφη, from εσαφαι, to feel with the fingers). The touch or feeling the mouth of the womb, to know its state.

ESEBON. Common salt.

ESOCHE, εσωχη. A tubercle within the anus.

ESSATUM POTENTIALE. The medicinal power or virtue which resides in vegetables and minerals.

ESSATUM VINUM. Spirit of wine impregnated with the medicinal power or virtue of vegetables.

EUANASPHALTOS, (ευανασφαλτος, from ευ, well, and ανασφαλω, to recover strength). One who is soon restored.

EUANTHEMON. Galen says it is the same as *Anthemis* and *Chamamelum*.

EUBOICA NUX. The walnut.

EUEMBOLOS, (ευεμβολος, from ευ, well, ει, in, and βαλλω, to cast). One expert at setting of bones.

EUOMETI, (ευεμετοι, ευημετοι, from ευ, importing facility, and εμεω, to vomit). Those who vomit with ease.

EUEXIA, (ευεξια, from ευ, bene, well, and εξις, *habitus*, habit). A sound and healthy constitution, in opposition to cachexy, or a bad habit.

EUGEOS, (from ευ, well, and γη, the earth). The uterus is thus named on account of its fertility. It is also a name of the hymen.

EULE, ευλη. A worm, properly that is bred in ulcers.

EUODIA, or ευωδη, in opposition to *Dysodes*, is used by Hippocrates in

his *Epidemics*, to express an healthful or agreeable disposition; as also, a ready method for obtaining any end; and by Scribonius Largus it is applied to a particular collyrium. But we have not heard of this term latterly, unless prefixed to a book, the contents of which are as whimsical and unintelligible as the title.

EUPHORIA, ευφορια, is used by some to express that ease with which some bear the course of a distemper, or bear the operation of a medicine; as also the aptitude of some things to particular operations. From ευ, well, and φερω, to bear.

EUPORISTA, (ευποριστα, from ευ, well, and ποριω, to afford). Medicines easily prepared.

EURYTHMIA, (ευρυθμια, from ευ, well, and ρυθμος, order and harmony, properly in music). It imports the proper order of the pulse.

EUSARCOS, ευσαρκος, is used by Galen, and others since, for such a proportion of flesh, as is not too lean or too corpulent, but gives due symmetry and strength to all the parts.

EUSPLANCHNOS, ευσπλαγχνος, is applied by Hippocrates to those who are supposed to have sound viscera. Thus the adverb ευ is put to several things to express the goodness of their condition; as *Eutaxia*, for an healthful state; *Euthanasia*, for an easy or happy death, &c.

EUTHESIA, ευθεςια. Galen explains it to be an innate strong habit of body.

EUTHYPOROS, (ευθυπορος, from ευθες, straight, direct). An epithet of extension made with a view to reduce a broken bone.

EUZOMEN. The herb rocket.

EVERRICULUM. In Paré it is a sort of spoon used to cure the bladder from gravel, &c. after lithotomy.

EVISTIOLA. In Paracelsus it seems to import a leprous disorder in the nape of the neck.

EXÆRESIS, (from ἐξ, out of, or away, and αἶρω, to remove). It is that part of surgery which consists of removing superfluities; as removing parts by amputation, extracting foreign bodies, &c.

EXALMA, (ἐξάλμα, from ἐξάλλομαι, to leap out). Hippocrates applies it to the starting of the vertebrae out of their places.

EXAMBLEOMA, ἐξαμβλωμα, or *Examblofis*. A miscarriage.

EXANGUIS. Without blood. So Galen and the ancients called the nerves, cartilages, bones, and other parts which appeared white.

EXANTHROPIA. According to Wedelius, it is the third degree of melancholy.

EXARMA, (ἐξαρμα, from ἐξαιρομαι, to be elevated). An elevated tumour.

EXARSIO. An hot intemperature, such as happens in hectic fevers.

EXARTHREMA, (ἐξarthρημα, from ἐξ, out of, and αρθρον, a joint). A luxation.

EXARTHROS, ἐξarthρος. An epithet for a person whose joints are large and prominent.

EXCIPULUM. In chemistry, it is a receiver.

EXCLUSORIUM. A medicine which causes abortion.

EXECHEBRONCHOS, ἐξεχεβρογχος. An epithet for a person who hath a prominent throat.

EXECHEGLUTOS, ἐξεχεγλυτος. One who hath prominent buttocks.

EXELCOSIS, (from ελκος, an ulcer). Ulceration.

EXERAMA, ἐξεραμα. The matter ejected by vomiting.

EXIPOTICOS, (ἐξιπωτικός, from ἐξιππομαι, to be pressed out). An epithet for digesting or deterring medicines.

EXITURA. A suppurated abscess, Paracelsus applies it to all sorts of putrid excrements.

EXOCHAS, or *Exache*, (ἐχοχας, ἐχοχον, from ἐξω, without, and ἐχω, to have). A tubercle on the outside of the anus.

EXOCYSTIS. A prolapsus of the internal membrane of the bladder.

EXONCHOMA, (from ἐξ, out, and ογκος, a tumour). Any large prominent tumour.

EXONEIROISIS, ἐξονειρωσις, is by Linden explained, a species of gonorrhœa, commonly called *Pollutio nocturna*, when the semen involuntarily flows in sleep; from ἐξ, out, and ονειρος, a dream.

EXERCISM, ἐξορκισμος, hath been introduced into the practice of physic by enthusiasts, who pretended by some religious ceremonies to expel an evil spirit out of the body, which was supposed the cause of diseases.

EXOS. A leech; also a fish from which isinglass is obtained.

EXSUCCASIO. An ecchymosis.

EXTRAVERSIO. Extraversion. In chemistry, it is the rendering manifest any thing saline, alkaline, or acid, concealed in mixed bodies, and is just the reverse to one species of concentration,

EXTRINSECI. The external parts, particularly the limbs; also painful disorders in the external parts.

F.

FI

FARCTURA. In pharmacy, it is the stuffing of any exenterated animal, or excavated fruit, with medicinal ingredients.

FARFARUS. White poplar.

FERINA. That delirium in which the patient rages violently, and is furious.

FERSA. The measles.

FILELLUM. The frenum of the prepuce.

FILETUM. The frenum under the tongue.

FLEMEN. A tumour of the foot, about the ancle. Sometimes it sig-

FU

nifies callous furrows in the hands and feet.

FLERESIN. A name for the gout.

FODINA. The labyrinth in the bone of the ear is thus called.

FONTALE ACETOSUM. In Paracelsus it is the same as *Acidula*.

FRIESEL. So the Germans call the miliary fever.

FRIGERARIA. The putrid fever.

FURCELLA. The ensiform cartilage.

G.

GA

GABIREA. A fatty kind of myrrh, mentioned by Dioscorides.

GAODES. A species of *Ætites*, or a round sort of *Belemnites*.

GALACTIA. An excess or overflowing of the milk.

GALACTODES, γαλακτοδης. In Hippocrates it signifies both milk warm and a milky colour.

GALACTOPHORA MEDICAMENTA. Medicines which increase the milk.

GALÆNA INANIS. Bismuth.

GALACTOPOETICA, (from γαλα, milk, and ποιεω, to make). Milk-making, an epithet applied to the faculty of making milk.

GALACTOPOΣΙΑ. The method of curing by a milk diet.

GALBEI, or *Galbeum*. A sort of ornamental and medical bracelets worn by the Romans.

GA

GALBULUS. When the skin of the body is naturally yellow.

GALEANIONES. People with one arm shorter than the other.

GALEANTHROPIA. It is a species of madness in which a patient imagines himself to be a cat, and then he imitates its manners. The name seems to be from γαλεν, a cat, and ανθρωπος, a man.

GALENIC MEDICINE, is that practice of medicine which conforms to the rules of Galen, and runs much upon multiplying herbs and roots in the same composition, though seldom torturing them any otherwise than by decoction, in opposition to chemical medicine, which by the force of fire and a great deal of art, fetches out the virtues of bodies, chiefly mineral, into a small compass.

GALIANCON. One arm shorter than the other.

GAMPHELE, γαμφίλη, the cheek, the jaw; from γαμψος, crooked.

GANGAMON, γαγγαμων. A name of the omentum, from its supposed likeness to a fishing net, which the Greeks call *Gangamon*. Some call that contexture of nerves about the navel thus.

GARAB. An Arabic name for the disorder called *Ægilops*.

GARGALA, γαργαλη, *Gargalos*, *Gargalisimos*. Irritation or stimulation.

GARGATHUM. A bed on which lunatics, &c. were formerly confined.

GARON, γαρων, or *Garum*. A kind of pickle prepared of fish; at first it was made from a fish which the Greeks call *Garos*; but the best was made from mackrels. Among the moderns, *garum* signifies the liquor in which fish is pickled.

GEISON, γεισον. Properly the eaves of houses, but by a metaphor is used for the prominent part of the eye-brows.

GELASINOS, (γελάσινος, from γελως, laughter). An epithet for the four middle foreteeth, because they are shewn in laughter.

GELASMUS. The Sardoniac laugh.

GEMURSA. The name of an excrescence between the toes.

GENEIAS. The downy hairs which first cover the cheek; also the name of a bandage mentioned by Galen; and comes under the chin.

GENUGRA. A name in Paracelsus for the gout in the knee.

GERANIUM. A bandage was so named.

GEROCOMIA, (from γερων, an aged person, and κερειω, to be concerned about). It is that part of medicine that prescribes to old age.

GERULA, In Paracelsus, it is a monstrous plant.

GERYON. Quicksilver.

GINGIBRACHIUM. A name for the scurvy, because the gums, arms, and legs are affected with it.

GINGIDIUM. A species of *Daucus*.

GINGIHIL. Zingiber.

GINGIPEDIUM. A name for the scurvy, because the arms and legs are affected.

GIR. Quicklime.

GIRMER. Tartar.

GLABELLA. The space betwixt the eye-brows.

GLANDULOSOCARNEUS. An epithet given by Ruysch, to some excrescences which he observed in the bladder.

GLECNON. Pennyroyal.

GLECHONITES. Wine impregnated with pennyroyal.

GLENE, γληνη, strictly signifies the cavity or socket of the eye; but by some anatomists is also used for that cavity of a bone which receives another within it.

GLEUCOS, γλευκος. Must; and sometimes it signifies sweet wines.

GLISCERE. To increase gradually, properly as fire does; but by physical writers is sometimes applied to the natural heat and increase of spirits; and by others to the exacerbation of fevers, which return periodically.

GLISCHROCHOLOS, γλισχροχολος. An epithet for bilious viscid excrements.

GLISOMARGO. White chalk.

GLOSSAGRA. A rheumatic pain in the tongue.

GLOSSOCATOCHOS, (γλωστοκατοχος. An instrument in P. Ægineta for depressing the tongue. A spatula linguæ, from γλωσσα tongue, and κατιχω, to hold.

GLOSSOCELE. An extrusion of the tongue.

GLOSSOCOMA. A retraction of the tongue.

GLOSSOCOMON, (γλωσσοκομον, from γλωσσα, a tongue, and κομει,

to guard). An instrument or case for containing a fractured limb.

GLUTIA, γλυστία. The two small protuberances in the brain, called *Nates*.

GLUTTUPATENS. An epithet for the stomach.

GNIDIUS, is applied by Hippocrates, and others since, to some medicinal precepts wrote in the island of Gnidos.

GONAGRA, (from γονυ, *genu*, the knee, and αγεινω, *capio*, to take), is the gout in the knee.

GONE, γονη. The seed. But in Hippocrates it is the uterus.

GONGRONA, γογγρωνη. A round tubercle in the trunk of a tree. Any hard round tumour of the nervous parts, but particularly a bronchocele, or other hard tumour of the neck.

GONGYLION, γογγυλιον. A pill.

GOUIDES, (from γονη, seed, and ειδος, form). Resembling seed. Hippocrates often uses it as an epithet for the excrements of the belly, and for the contents of the urine, when there is something in them, which resembles the seminal matter.

GRAMIA. The sordes of the eyes.

GRAMME, γραμμα. The iris of the eye.

GRAPHIOIDES, (γραφιοειδης, from γραφι, *stylus*, a pencil, and ειδος, a form). The process styliformis. Also a process of the ulna towards the wrist. The musculus biverter vel digastricus was formerly so called from its supposed origination from the process of the temple bone so called.

GRATTERONA. *Aparine*.

GRAVATIO. *Caros*.

GROSSUS. An unripe fig.

GYMNASTIC, (from γυμναζω, *ex-*

erceo, to exercise), is such a method of cure as is performed by exercise, or that part of physic which treats of the rules that are to be observed in all sorts of exercises, for the preservation of health. This is said to have been invented by one Herodicus, born at Salymbra, a city of Thrace; or, as some say, at Leutini in Sicily. He was first master of an academy where young gentlemen came to learn warlike and manly exercises; and whom he observing to be very healthful on that account, he made exercise become an art in reference to the recovering of men out of diseases, as well as preserving them from them: and called it *Gymnastic*, which he made a great part of his practice of physic. But Hippocrates, who was his scholar, blames him sometimes for his excesses in this kind of physic. And Plato exclaims against him with some warmth, for enjoining his patients to walk from Athens to Megara, which is about 25 miles, and to come home on foot as they went, as soon as ever they had but touched the walls of the city.

GYNÆCIA, (γυναικεια, from γυνη, woman). It signifies the menstrua; and sometimes the lochia.

GYNÆCIUM, (γυναικειον, from γυνη, a woman). A seraglio, also a name for *Antimony*.

GYNECOMASTON. γυναικομαστον. An enormous increase of the breasts of women.

GYNÆCOMASTOS, γυναικομαστος. A man whose breasts are large, like a woman's; from γυνη, a woman, and μαστος, breast. Also tumours on women's breasts.

GYNÆCOMYSTAX, (from γυνη, a woman, and μυσταξ, a beard). The hairs on the female pudenda.

H.

H Æ

HABENA. The name of a bandage, contrived to keep the lips of wounds together.

HADID. Iron.

HÆCCEITAS. The quinta essentia of the chemists.

HÆMAGOGOS, (from αιμα, blood, and αγω, to bring away). The name of an antidote in Nicolaus Myepfus, which was used for promoting the menstrual and hæmorrhoidal fluxes.

HÆMALOPS, (αιμαλωψ, from αιμα, blood, and ωψ, the countenance). The livid marks of suffusions in the face and eyes.

HÆMATOPORIA. A wasting from a poverty of blood.

HÆMATIA, αιματια, or *Hæmation*, αιματιον. An epithet for a sort of garum, made of the intestines of fish macerated in salt.

HÆMATOCHYSIS, (from αιμα, blood, and χεω, to pour out). It is a term used by Willis to signify an hæmorrhage.

HÆMATOPEDESIS. Bloody sweat.

HÆMATOPHLEBÆSTASIS, αιμαροφλοιβοιστασις. Blood-making. The liver was formerly supposed to be the hæmatopoëtic viscus, or that which converted the chyle into blood.

HÆMATOPS, is strictly used by some for any bloody suffusion of the eyes from external injuries, or otherwise, as the words from whence it is derived signify *bloody eyes*. But Hippocrates uses it frequently in a more lax sense, for any concreted or stagnant blood.

HÆMITRITÆA, *Hæmitriteus*, ημι-

H A

τριταιος, a species of fever, viz. the semitertian.

HÆMOCERCHNUS, αιμοκτερχνον. Blood brought up from the fauces, with a noise, or rattling, or bloody excretions discharged in a dry form.

HÆMODIA, αιμωδια. Stupor of the teeth with pain.

HALATION, αλατιον, is a purging medicine prepared with salt, and to be used at table instead thereof: but we find little of this kind retained in the present practice.

HALCHEMIA. The art of fusing salts.

HALCYONIUM. The spume or froth of the sea. It is oily or bituminous.

HALICES. Pandiculation after sleep, or upon awaking.

HALINITRON, is used by the Latin writers Hoffman, Paracelsus, and some others, for the common sal niri or saltpetre.

HALMYRAX. A sort of nitre produced in the valleys of Media.

HALMYRIS. The name of a species of Sea-cabbage.

HALMYRODES, αλμυρωδης, *salsuginosus*, is a term given by Hippocrates to a particular fever that is attended with sharp brackish sweats.

HALOTECHNICS. The art of extracting salts and their spirits.

HANDAL, *Handala*. Bitter-apple.

HAPSIS, αψις. The sense of feeling. It also signifies connection with respect to bandages. And αψις φρενων in Hippocrates, signifies madness, delirium, or loss of reason.

HAPSICORIA. A sort of loathing of food.

HARMOS. The flesh that grows betwixt the teeth.

HARPAGA. Amber.

HARPASTRUM. A species of exercise with a ball.

HARPAX. Amber; also a mixture of quick-lime and sulphur,

HARUNDO. The Indian reed.

HASACIUM. Sal ammoniac.

HASTELLÆ. Splints used in fractures.

HAUD. Wood. The Arabs call the agalochum thus, by way of eminence. It is also called *Haud al-cumeri*, *Haud bend*, and *Haud beud*.

HEAUTONTIMOREUMENOS. One who torments himself.

HEBDOMEDARIA. It is one of the febres erraticæ.

HEBE, ἡβη. This word is used in three different significations, viz. for the first hair appearing about the genital parts; for the parts themselves; but more justly, for that time of youth at which it first appears: whence custom hath appropriated it almost solely to the latter, or to signify youth in general.

HEDRA, ἡδρα. The anus; also the excrements thence voided. It sometimes signifies the basis of an abscess, or that part which is subjected to that which is converted into pus. Hippocrates sometimes uses this word to signify a species of fracture.

HEDRICOS. An epithet for remedies appropriated to the anus.

HEDYCHROI, ἡδυχρῆτοι. A name for certain troches.

HEDYOSMOS. A name of mint, on account of its sweet smell.

HELICYDRION. A small ulcerous pustule.

HEL CYSTER, from ἔχω, to draw. A hook for extracting the fœtus.

HELEAGNUS. A species of Gale.

HELENTASTRUM. Bastard elecampane.

HELIOSCOPIOS. Sun-spurge.

HELIOTROPIUM INDICUM. Potatoes.

HELLEBORIZE. Hippocrates, and others after him, used prepared hellebore, which they introduced into the rectum both for vomiting and purging, which they made stronger or weaker as they required, and the vomiting, purging, or both produced thus, they called *Helleborizing*.

HELOCAPOLIN. A sort of cherry.

HELODÉS, or Heloides, ἐλωδης, the same also as *τεφωδης*, is a particular kind of fever attended with colliquative sweats, and hath, at the same time, the tongue dry and hard. Some take the Anglicus sudor, which was epidemical, and described by Lord Verulam in his History of Henry the VIIIth's reign, to have been of this kind.

HELOTIS. Plica Polonica.

HEMINA, ἡμινά. An ancient measure of different contents in different nations; but now used in medicine to signify about ten ounces in measure.

MEMIOBOLION, or Hemiobolon, ἡμιόβολιον. Half an obolus.

HEMIOLION, ἡμιόλιον. The same as *Sesquialtera*. But in Galen de C. M. S. L. it particularly signifies an ounce and half.

HEMIONIS, (ἡμιονος, from ἡμιονος, a mule). Mule's dung.

HEMIONIUM. A name for the *Asplenium*.

HEMIPLEXIA, ἡμιπληξία. The same as *Hemiplegia*. or according to some, when one half of the body is affected after the manner of an apoplexy.

HEMIRHOMBION, ἡμιρῶμβιον, or Hemitomon. A sort of bandage mentioned by Hippocrates, called also *Semirhombus*, from its figure.

HEPATEROS, (πατήρ, from πατήρ, the liver). It is an epithet for a sort of dysentery, in which an aqueous blood is secreted.

HERACLEIOS, (*Ἡρακλῆος*, or *Heracleius*, from *Ἡρακλῆς*, *Hercules*, *Herculean*). An epithet of the epilepsy and of the mania. It is a name also of the load-stone.

HERACLEOTICON. *Origanum*, so called from *Heraclea*, where the best was produced.

HERCULEUS MORBUS. The epilepsy is thus called, from the terror of its attacks, and difficulty of cure. Some medicines also, upon the same foundation, have been called *Herculean*, in order to denote their uncommon force; but such conceits are now much in neglect,

HERPETON, (*εἰς πηχυν*). In Hippocrates it is a creeping pustule or ulcer.

HETERORHYTHMOS. Is made by Galen a species of the *αεθμος*, which is any irregularity of the pulse; this restraining it to that particular sort, where it beats like one of a greater or lesser age; as if a child hath a pulse like one more advanced in years, on the contrary.

HIDROCRITICA, (from *ἵδρω*, sweat, and *κρίνω*, to judge). Signs taken from sweat.

HIDRONOSOS, } *Sudor Angli-*
HIDROPYRETOS, } *cus.*

HIDROTICA, } *Sudorifics.*
HIDROTOPSEA, }

HIERA DIACOCYNTHIDOS. An electary was formerly prepared under this name, and so called from the colocynth which was the principal ingredient in it.

HIERANOSOS. Convulsion. Some express by it, a continued kind of convulsion without pain or loss of sensibility,

HIERA PICRA. The holy bitter. It was formerly called *Hiera Logadii*. It is a particular composition of aloes and spices, and so called from the supposed excellency of its virtues; the words *ἱερα*, *sancta*, and *πικρα*, *amara*, signifying the holy bitter. The term

Hiera hath also for the same reason been given to divers compositions, by Logadius, Ruffus, Archigenes, and others, at large described by *Æginetus*, lib. vii. cap. 8. but they are all discontinued in the present practice.

HIEROPYR. The same as the erythematous species of *Inflammation*.

AIMANTOSIS, (*μαγνῶσις*). Relaxation, or lengthening or smallness of the uvula.

HIMAS, (*ῥιμας*). Properly a leather thong or strap. But in medicine it is a laxness of the uvula, when it becomes long and slender. It differs from the cionis, which is when the uvula is thickened.

HIN. *Asafœtida*.

HING. The Indian and Persian name for *asafœtida*.

HINGISH. The *asafœtida*; and the plant which affords it.

HIPPACE, (*ἵππακις*). The rennet of a colt; also the name by which the ancient Nomades, a people of Scythia, called the cheese which they made of mare's milk.

HIPPOCRATES'S SLEEVE. A woollen bag, made by joining the two opposite angles of a square piece of flannel, in the form of a pyramid, used to strain syrups and decoctions for clarification.

HIPPOLAPATHUM. Monks rhu-barb.

HIPPOMANES, (from *ἵππος*, a horse, and *μανομαι*, to be mad). It is a name for the *Cynocrambe*, because it makes horses mad if they eat it. Some take it to signify the secundines of a mare. Lastly, the fleshy substance which sometimes adheres to the forehead of a new foaled colt is thus named.

HIPPOMARATHRUM, (from *ἵππος*, a horse, and *μαριθρον*, fennel). Horse-fennel. A name also of the English saxifrage: and of a species of *Seseli*.

HIPPURIS, (*ἵππερις*, from *ἵππος*, a horse, and *ουρα*, a tail). It is by the ancient writers in botany, used for the same plant as the *equisetum*, but is also by Hippocrates applied to such disorders as are apt to proceed from much riding; as debility and weeping of the genital parts.

HIRA. Some express by it the *intestinum jejunum*; others extend it to all the intestines; and others mean by it all the contents of the abdomen.

HIRAPITANGA BRASILIENSIBUS Brasil-wood.

HIRCULUS. A species of *saxifrage*.

HIRCUS. Every one knows properly to signify a goat; but because that creature is remarkable for its salacity, and inclination to venery, some physical writers have thought fit to apply *Hircosi*, to persons of like dispositions; especially those just come to puberty, or full growth.

HIRQUUS. The great angle of the eye.

HISPANICUM VIRIDE. Verdigris.

HISPIDITAS. Hairiness in general, but in a particular sense, it is used to signify either the disease called *Phalangosis*, or that called *Dislichiasis*.

HOITZILOXITL. Balsam of Peru.

HOLCIMOS, (from *ελκω*, to draw). An epithet applied to what may be drawn out, and still preserve its continuity. It is also spoken of the liver affected with a tumor. See Galen de Log. Affect.

HOLERA. An antiquated word for *Cholera*.

HOLIPPÆ. Thin cakes made with flour and sugar, poured upon a hot iron, figured, and then set to the fire; in some dispensatories there are purging and other *Holippæ*.

HOLOTONICOS, from *ολος*, whole,

and *τενω*, to stretch). It is spoken of a universal convulsion, or a rigor of the whole body. It is the same as *Tetanus*.

HOLQUAHUILT. Peruvian bark.

HOMA. A kind of anasarcaous swelling.

HOMOLINON. Crude-flax, or coarse flaxen cloth of which towels were made for the public baths.

HOMONOPAGIA. Head-ach.

HOMOPLATÆ. The shoulder-blades.

HOMOTONOS, (*ὁμοτονος*, equal, or rather equable), is said of such distempers as keep a constant tenor of rise, state, and declension; and is particularly applied by Galen, to those continued fevers, which are by others also called *ακμαστικαι*, Acmaestic, last described by Bellini De Febr.

HOMUNCULUS. Paracelsus would make a man without a woman, and digested semen masculinum in a glass placed in a dunghill, and produced something like a man, according to the assertion of some of his disciples; this was called *homunculus Paracelsus*.

HORDEACEUM VINUM. Beer.

HOROSCOPE, *ωροσκοπος*, was one who pretended to tell from the figure of a plant, what celestial influence it was under, and what virtues from thence obtained; but Galen in his time, took notice of such with derision. It is since become also a term amongst astrologers, of not much better repute.

HORTUS, signifying a garden; some writers, as Rolsinkius, Macreen, and others have thought fit to apply it to the privy parts of a woman.

HYANCHE, (from *υς*, a swine, and *αχχω*, to strangle). A quinsy, accompanied with an external tumor on each side of the throat, is thus called, because the necks of swine are subject to swellings.

HYBANTHUS. A species of *Vicia*.

HYDATODES, (υδατωδης, or *Hydrides*, from υδατος, the genitive case of υδω, water, and ειδος, shape). Watery. It is an epithet for wine much diluted with water; for limpid urine; for the aqueous humour of the eye, and for one in an *Anasarca*.

HYDEROS, υδερως. A general name for a dropsy; but by Galen it is particularly applied to *Anasarca*.

HYDRELÆUM, υδρελαιον. A mixture of oil and water.

HYDRENTEROCELE, (υδρεντερικηλη, from υδω, water, εντερον, an intestine, and κηλη, a tumor). A tumour from the dropsy, and a hernia together.

HEDROCELODES. A suppression of urine from a rupture of the urethra into the scrotum.

HYDROMELON, υδρομηλον. It is made of one part honey impregnated with quinces, and two parts of boiled water, set in the sun during the dog days.

HYDRONOSOS, } from υδω, water,
HYDRONOSUS, } and νοσος, a disease). *Sudor Anglicus*.

HYDROPEGE, (from υδω, water, and πηγη, a spring), Spring-water.

HYDROPHYSOCELE, (from υδω, water, φυσα, a flatus, and κηλη, a hernia). A hernia proceeding from a mixture of water and flatulencies.

HYDROPNEUMOSARCA, (from υδω, water, πνευμα, spirit or wind, and σαρξ, flesh). It is a tumor or abscess, from a mixture of flatulent, or aqueous and carneous substances.

HYDROPEIDES, (υδροπειδης, from υδω, a dropsy, and ειδος, resemblance). It is applied to aqueous excretions, such as are common in dropsies.

HYDROPYRETOS, (υδροπυρετος, from υδω, water, and πυρετος, a fever). Blanchard says it is the same as the *Sudor Anglicus*.

HYDROROSATON, (υδροροσατον, from υδω, water, and ροδον, a rose). It is a drink made of water, honey,

and the juice of roses. See *Ægineta*. lib. vii. cap. 15.

HYDRORRHODINON, υδρορροδινον. It is water mixed with the oil of roses.

HYDROSACCHARUM, υδροσακχαρον. It is a composition of sugar and water, which answers to the *Hydromel*, by changing honey for sugar.

HYDROSARCA, (from υδω, water, and σαρξ, flesh). A tumor formed of water and of flesh.

HYDROSARCOCELE, (from υδω, water, σαρξ, flesh; and κηλη, a tumour). A species of *Hernia*, composed of flesh and water.

HYDROSELINUM. Water-parsley.

HYDROTICUS, *Hydrotice*, (υδροτικός, from ιδρω, sweat). A medicine that promotes sweat.

HYPALAIPTRON, υπαλειπτρον. A sort of spatula for spreading ointments with.

HYPALAIPTON, υπαλειπτον. A ligament.

HYPERÆSTHESES. Error of appetite whether by excess or deficiency. It is synonymous with Dr. Cullen's order of *Dysorexia*.

HYPERCATHARSIS, (υπερκαθαρσις, from υπερ, *supra*, over or above, and καθαίρω, *purgo*, to purge), is when medicine has purged to excess. It is a variety of the *Diarrhœa Mucosa*, in Dr. Cullen's *Nosology*.

HYPERCORYPHOSIS, (υπερκορυφωσις, from υπερ, above, and κορυφη, the vertex). A prominence or protuberance. Hippocrates calls the lobes of the liver and lungs *Hypercoryphoses*.

HYPERCRISIS, (υπερκρισις, from υπερ, over or above, and κρινω, to separate). It is a critical excretion above measure; as when a fever terminates in a looseness, the humours may flow off faster than the strength can bear, and therefore it is to be checked.

HYPERECRISIS, υπερεκκρισις. Su-

perexcretion. It is the same as hypercrisis.

HYPEREPHIDROSIS, (from υπερ, excess, and ιδρως, sweat). Immoderate sweating.

HYPERINESIS, υπερινησις. *Hypercatharsis*.

HYPERINOS, υπερινος. *Hypercatharsis*; also the person who suffers from it.

HYPEROA, (υπερωα, from υπερ, above). The palate.

HYPERSARCOMA. A polypus in the nose. A fleshy excrescence.

HYPEXODOS, (υπεξοδος, from υπο, under, and εξοδος, passing out). A flux of the belly.

HYPEXOCOS, υπεξωκος. It signifies the membranes which are spread under other parts, as the pleura, &c.

HYPNOBATES, υπνοβατης, } (from
HYPNOBATASIS, } υπνος,
sleep, and βανω, to go). One who walks in his sleep. It is the same as *Somnambulo*; and is a species of *Oneirodynia*.

HYPNOLOGICA. It teaches the due regulation of sleep and waking.

HYPNOPŒOS, (υπνοποιος, from υπνος, and ποιω, to cause). Such medicines as procure sleep.

HYPNOTIC, (υπνοτικός, from υπνος, *Somnus*, sleep). Any medicine that induces sleep.

HYPOCAPNISMA. Suffumigation.

HYPOCARODES. } One who la-

HYPOCAROTHIS. } bours under a low degree of carus.

HYPOCATHARSIS, (υποκαθαρσις, from υπο, *sub*, under, and καθαιρω, *purgo* to purge). It is when a medicine does not work so much as expected, or but very little. Or a slight purging, when it is a disorder.

HYPOCAUSTUM, (υποκαυστον, from υπο, *sub*, under, and καιω, *uro*, to burn). A stove, or hot-house, or any such like contrivance; or place

to sweat in, or to preserve plants from cold air.

HYPOCERCHALEON, (υποκερχαλεον, from υπο, and κερχειος, an asperity of the fauces). A stridulous kind of *Asperity of the Fauces* and *Aspera Arteria*.

HYPOCHEOMENOS, υποχεομενος. One who labours under a cataract.

HYPOCHYMA, υποχυμα, } (from
HYPOCHYSIS, υποχυσις, } υπο and
χυω, to pour). A cataract.

HYPOCOELON, (υποκοιλον, from υπο, under, and κοιλον, the cavity above the upper eye-lid). It is the cavity under the lower eye-lid.

HYPOCOPHOSIS, υποκωφωσις. *Cophosis*, but in a less degree.

HYPOCRANIUM. A kind of abscess, so called because seated under the cranium, between it and the dura mater.

HYPODEIRIS, υποδειρις. In Rufus Ephesius, it is the extremity of the fore-part of the neck.

HYPODERMIS. The clitoris.

HYPOGLOTTIDES, υπογλωττιδες. They are a kind of medicine to be held under the tongue until they are dissolved.

HYPOGLUTIS, (υπογλυτις, from υπο, under, and γλυτος, the nates). It is the fleshy part under the nates towards the thigh. Some say it is the flexure of the coxa, under the nates.

HYPOMIA, (υπομια, from υπο, under, and ωμος, shoulder). In Galen's *Exegeſis*, it is the part subjacent to the shoulder.

HYPONOMOS, (υπονομος, from υπονομος, a phagedenic ulcer). A subterraneous place. A deep phagedenic ulcer.

HYPOPEDIIUM. A cataplasm for the sole of the foot.

HYPOPHASIA, } from

HYPOPHASIS, (υποφασις, } υποφαι-
ρομαι, to appear a little). It is a sort of winking when the eye-lid

are nearly closed, or it is when a little of the white of the eyes appears in sleep.

HYPOPHASIS, υποφασις. The name of a symptom which consists of closing the eyes during sleep, but only so, that a part of the eye appears, and a slight motion of the eye is perceived.

HYPOPHORA, (υποφορα, from υπο-δερμαται; to be carried or conveyed underneath). A deep fistulous ulcer.

HYPOPTHALMION, υποφθαλμιον. The part under the eye which is subject to swell in a cachexy or dropsy.

HYPOPIA. Sugillations in the parts under the eyes.

HYPOPLEURIOS, υποπλευριος. The pleura.

HYPOPYON, (υποπυον, from υπο, under, and πυον, pus). It is a collection of matter under the tunica cornea of the eye.

HYPORINION, υποριμιον. A name for the parts of the upper lip below the nostrils.

HYPOSARCA, υποσαρκα; }
HYPOSARCIDIOS, υποσαρκιδιος; }
 (from υπο, under, and σαρξ, flesh). An anasarca. In Dr. Cullen's Nosology, it is synonymous with *Physconia*.

HYPOSPADREOS, υποσπαδιαις. The urethra terminating under the glans.

HYPOSPATHISMUS, υποσπαθισμος. The name of an operation formerly used in surgery, for removing defluxions in the eyes. It was thus named from the instrument with which it was performed.

HYPOSPHAGMA, υποσφαγμα. *Aposphagma*. It is an extravasation of blood in the tunica adnata of the eye, from external injury.

HYPOSTAPHYLE. Relaxation of the uvula.

HYPOSTASIS, (υποστασις, from υποστημι, to subside). A sediment, as the sediment in urine.

HYPOTHETON. A suppository.

HYPOXYLON. A species of *Clavaria*.

HYPOZOMA. A name for the *Diaphragm*.

HYPSILOIDES, υψιλοιειδης. A name of the *Os Hyoides*; also of the *Basiloglossus muscle*. See *Hyoglossus*.

HYPTIASMOS, υπτιασμος. A supine decubiture, or a nausea with inclination to vomit.

HYPULUS, (υψυλος, from υπο, under, and ελη, a cicatrix). An ulcer which lies under a cicatrix.

HYSSOPITES. Wine impregnated with hyssop.

HYSSOPUS CAPITATA. Wild thyme.

HYSTERIALGES, υπεραλγης. An epithet for any thing that excites pain in the uterus. Hippocrates applies this word to vinegar; and others signify by it, the pains which resemble labour-pains, generally called *false pains*.

HYSTEROLOXIA. Obliquity of the womb.

HYSTERON, υστιρον. The secundines.

HYSTEROPHYSE. *Physometra*.

HYSTEROPHORUS. A species of *Parthenium*.

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JACINTHUS. *Hyacinthus.*

JAMBLICI SALES. A preparation with sal ammoniac, some aromatic ingredients, &c. so called from Jamblichus, the inventor of it.

JATRALEIPTES, (ιατραλειπτης, from ιατρος, a physician, and αλειψω, to anoint). One who undertakes to cure distempers by external unction and friction: Galen makes mention of such in his time, particularly one Diotas; and Pliny informs us, that this was first introduced by Prodicus of Selymbria, who was a disciple of Esculapius.

JATROCHYMICUS, ιατροχυμικος. A chemical physician, called *Chymiat*, who cures by means of chemical medicines.

JATROLIPTICE, ιατρολειπτικη. The method of curing diseases by unction and friction.

JATROPHYSICUS. An epithet bestowed on some writings which treat of physical subjects with relation to medicines.

IBIRACE. *Guaiacum.*

IBIRÆUM. A wild species of liquorice found in Brasil.

IBIRA PATANGA. The *Lignum Brasili*.

IBIS, ιβις, was a bird much like our king-fisher, taken notice of by the Egyptians, because when it was sick, it used to inject with its long-bill the water of the Nile into its fundament, whence Langius, lib. ii. ep. ii. says they learned the use of clysters.

IBISCU. Marshmallow.

IBIXUMA. *Saponaria Arbor.*

ICAGO. The cocoa palm-tree.

ICTHYA, ιχθυα. The skin of the *Squatina*, or monk-fish: also the

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name of a hook for extracting the fœtus.

ICTERUS ALBUS. The white jaundice. The chlorosis or green-sickness is sometimes thus called.

ICTUS. A stroke or blow. It signifies also the pulsation of an artery, and the sting of a bee or other insect.

IDIOTROPIA. *Idiosyncrasia.*

IGASUR. *Nux Vomica.*

IGNIS CALIDUS. A hot fire: so some call a gangrene: also a violent inflammation just about to degenerate into a gangrene.

IGNIS FRIGIDUS. A cold fire. A sphacelus hath been thus called, because the parts that are so affected become cold as the surrounding air.

IGNIS PERSICUS. A name of the erysipelas, also of the tumour called a carbuncle.

IGNIS SACER. A name of the erysipelas, and of a species of *Herpes*. It is also the erythematous species of inflammation.

IGNIS SILVATICUS. A name of the *Impetigo*.

IGNIS ROTÆ. Fire for fusion. It is when a vessel which contains some matter for fusion is surrounded with live, i. e. red hot coals.

IGNIS SAPIENTIUM. Heat of horse-dung.

IGNIS VOLAGRIUS, or *Volaticus*. A name of the *Impetigo*.

IGNYE, or *Ignys*. The ham.

ILAPHIS. A name in Myrepsus for the burdock.

ILECH. By this word, Paracelsus seems to mean a first principle.

ILEIDOS. In the Spagyric language it is the elementary air.

ILEON CRUENTUM. Hippocrates describes it, in lib. De Intern. Affect. In this disease, as well as in the scurvy, the breath is fetid, the gums recede from the teeth, hæmorrhages of the nose happen, and sometimes there are ulcers in the legs, but the patient can move about his business very well.

ILIADUM, or Iliadus. It is the first matter of all things, consisting of mercury, salt, and sulphur. These are Paracelsus's three principles. His *iliadus* is also a mineral spirit, which is contained in every element, and is the supposed cause of diseases.

ILIASTER. Paracelsus says it is the occult virtue of nature, whence all things have their increase.

ILINGIS, (ιλιγγίς, from ιλιγξ, a vortex). A vertigo in which all things appear to turn round, and the eyes grow dim.

ILISCUS. Avicenna says, it is madness caused by love.

ILLINCTUS. A linctus.

ILLICIO. *Entblasis.*

ILLOS, ἰλλός. The eye.

ILLOSIS, ἰλλωσις. A distortion of the eyes.

ILLUTAMENTUM, was an ancient form of an external medicine, like the *Ceroma*, with which the limbs of wrestlers, and others delighting in like exercises, were rubbed, especially after bathing; an account of which may be met with in Baccius De Thermis.

ILLUTATIO. Illutation. It is a besmearing any part of the body with mud, and renewing it as it grows dry, with a view of heating, drying, and discussing. It is chiefly done with the mud found at the bottom of mineral springs.

ILLYS, ἰλλύς. A person who squints, or with distorted eyes.

ILEYS, ἰλῆς. The fæces of wine. Also an epithet for sediment in stools which resemble fæces of wine; also

the sediment in urine when it resembles the same.

IMBECILLITAS OCULORUM. Celsus speaks of the *Nudalopia* by this name.

IMMERSUS. Sunk, or hid; is a term given by Bartholine, and some other anatomists, to a muscle now commonly called *Subscapularis*.

IMPLICATED, is said by Celsus, Scribonius, and some others, of those parts of physic which have a necessary dependence on one another; but hath more significantly been applied by Bellini to such fevers, where two at a time afflict a person, either of the same kind, as a double tertian; or of different kinds, as an intermittent tertian, and a quotidian, called a *Semitertian*.

IMPIA HERBA. Cudweed.

IMPLUVIUM. An embrocation.

IMPUBER, is said of such as have not yet hair upon their privy parts, which bespeaks a ripeness for generation; but Helmont, with some others, affirm females, capable of conception before such an appearance.

INCANTATION, is used for a way of curing diseases by charms, defended by Paracelsus, Helmont, and some other chemical enthusiasts; but those who have pursued a better way of reasoning, have despised such delusions.

INCENDIUM. A burning fever, or sometimes any burning heat.

INCENSIO. The same as *Incendium*. It is also a hot inflammatory tumour.

INCERNICULUM. A strainer or sieve. In anatomy, it is a name for the pelvis of the kidney.

INCIDE, from *incido*, to cut. Medicines are said thus to do, which consist of pointed and sharp particles, as acids, and most salts; by the force or insinuation of which the particles of other bodies are divided from one

another, which before cohered. And thus some expectorating medicines are said to incide or cut the phlegm, when they break it so as to occasion its discharge.

IDIANA RADIX. Ipecacuanha.

INDICA CAMOTES: Potatoes.

INDICATING DAYS, are the same as critical days.

INDICUM LIGNUM. Logwood.

INDICUS. Sweet and bitter costus.

INDICUS MORBUS. The venereal disease.

INDUSIUM. A shirt: also the amnios.

INGRAVIDATION, is the same as impregnation or going with child.

INHUMATION. Some chemists have fancied thus to call that kind of digestion which is performed by burying the materials in dung, or in the earth.

INION, *ινιον*. The occiput. Blancard says it is the beginning of the spinal marrow: others say, it is the back part of the neck.

INJACULATION. So Helmont calls a disorder which consists of a violent spasmodic pain in the stomach, and an immobility of the body.

INNOMINATI NERVI. A name of the fifth pair of nerves.

INOPHYLLUM. A species of calophyllum.

INTERCURRENT FEVERS. Those which happen in certain seasons only, are called stationary; but others are called by Sydenham, intercurrents.

INTERCUS, (from *inter*, between, and *cutem*, the skin). *Anasarca*.

INTERDENTIUM. The intervals between teeth of the same order.

INTERDIGITUM. A corn betwixt the toes.

INTERFEMINEUM. The perineum.

INTERLUMBUS MORBUS. The epilepsy.

INTERNUNTII DIES. Critical days.

INTERNUS. A name of the laxator membranæ tympani.

INTERPELLATUS MORBUS. In Paracelsus it is a disease attended with irregular or uncertain paroxysms.

INTERPOLATUS DIES. In Paracelsus these are the days interpolated betwixt two paroxysms.

INTERCEPTUM. The uvula and the septum narium.

INTRINSECI. Painful disorders of the internal parts.

INTROCESSIO. *Depressio*.

INUSTION. Is sometimes used for hot and dry seasons; but most commonly by surgeons for the operation of the cautery.

INVERECUNDUM OS. *Os Frontis*.

ION. The violet.

IONIA. Ground-pine.

IOSACCHAR, *ιωσακχαρ*. Sugar of violets.

IOTACISMUS. A defect in the tongue or organs of speech, which renders a person incapable of pronouncing his letters.

IOUI. A restorative alimentary liquor prepared in Japan. It is made from the gravy of half-roasted beef, but as to the rest it is kept a secret.

IRALHA. A species of palm-tree.

IRIA. A species of cyperus.

IRINGUS. Eryngo.

Is, *is*, a fibre. Its plural is *vec*. Some say that Hippocrates used this word indifferently for a fibre and a nerve; and it is clear that other writers have done the same.

ISADA. So the Spaniards and Portuguese call the *Lapis nephriticus*.

ISAROS. A name for the arum.

ISATOPES, *ισατοπες*. Of the colour of woad.

ISCA. A sort of fungous excrescence of the oak, or of the hazel, &c. The ancients used it as the moderns use moxa.

ISCHÆMON, (ισχαιμὸν, from ισχε, to restrain, and αἷμα, blood). A name for any medicine which restrains or stops bleeding.

ISCHÆMUM. A species of *Andropogon*.

ISCHNOPHONIA, (ισχνοφωνία, from ισχυος, slender, and φωνη, the voice). A shrillness of the voice; but more frequently an hesitation of speech, or a stammering; it is the *psellismus hesitans* of Cullen.

ISCHNOTIS, ισχνωτης. Leanneffs.

ISNARDI. A species of *Centaurea*.

ISORA. The screw tree, a species of *Helicteres*.

ISOTONI. See *Acmaesticos*.

ISTHMION, ισθμιον. The narrow passage between the mouth and gullet: the fauces.

ITHMOIDES, falsely, for *Ethmoides*.

ITINERARIUM. The catheter; also a staff used in cutting for the stone; it is thus named by Hildanus.

IVA PECANGA. *Sarsaparilla*.

JABOTAPITA. A species of *Ochra*.

JACARANDA ALBA vel **BRAZILIENSIS**. It is like the European palm-tree. It is plentiful in Brazil, where a pottage is made of it, and called *Manihey*, which is a good stomachic.

JAGRA. A sort of sugar obtained from the juice of a species of palm-tree.

JANITOR. A name for the *Pylorus*.

JANITRIX. A name for the *Vena Porta*.

JECUR. The liver.

JECUR UTERINUM. The *Placenta* is by some thus called, from the supposed similitude of its office with that of the liver.

JECORARIA VENA. The hepatic vein.

JETICA. The Brazilian name for Spanish potatoes.

JONTHLASPI, A species of *Clypeola*.

JUPITER. A name for tin, because supposed under the government of that planet.

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K AATH. The *Terra Japonica*.

KADANAKU. Common aloes.

KÆKURIA. The gum elemi-tree.

KALMII. A species of *Hieracium*.

KANKI. A species of *Mimusops*.

KARABITUS. An Arabic term for a phrenitis, or delirium.

KARFE. By this the Arabians understand the best sort of true cinnamon.

KAYL. Sour milk.

KENNE. The name of a stone generated in the eye of a stag.

K Y

KERVA OLEUM. *Ol. Ricini*.

KIK, or *Kiki*. The palma christi plant.

KLEINIA. A species of *Cacalia*.

KOLERUS. A dry ulcer.

KOLTO. *Plica Polonica*.

KURUDU. The true cinnamon-tree.

KYMIA. A cucurbit.

KYMIT ELEVATUM. White sublimed cinnabar.

KYMOLEA. The slime or mud gathered under grind-stones.

KYNA. *Opeponax*.

L.

LA

LABARIUM. Looseners of the teeth.

LABIS, λαβίς, any forceps, from *λαμβάνω*, to lay hold on.

LABLAB. A species of *Dolichos*.

LABRUSCA. The wild Virginian vine. A species of *Vitis*.

LACCOPEDON. So the Athenians call the lax part of the scrotum.

LACERATURA. A lacerated wound made by tearing.

LACERTULI. Bundles, e. g. of fibres, &c.

LACERTUS. That part of the arm from the shoulder to the elbow.

LACONICUM. A stove, bagnio, or sweating room.

LACTICA. The Arabian name for that species of fever which the Greeks call *Typhos* or *Typhodes*.

LACTICINIA. Aliments prepared of milk.

LACTUCIMINA. Aphthæ.

LACTUMEN. Achor.

LACTUMINA. Little ulcers or crusty scabs in the skin, so called because they chiefly happen to children at the breast.

LADA, Λαδά. Black pepper.

LADA CHILLY. Guinea pepper.

LEMOS, λαιμός. The gullet or throat.

LETIFICANS, strictly signifying making joyful, hath been applied to many compositions under the intention of cordials; but both the medicine and distinction are now quite disused.

LAGAROS, λαγάρος. An epithet for the right ventricle of the heart.

LAGON, λαγών. The flank.

LAGOSTOMA. The hare-lip.

LAMAC. Gum arabic.

LE

LAMBdacismus. A defect in speech, which consists in an inability to pronounce certain consonants, or is that stammering or difficulty of speech called *Pjellismus Lullans*, that is, when the letter L is pronounced too liquid, and often in the place of R.

LAONICA CURATIO. A method of curing the gout by evaporating the morbid matter by topics.

LAPARA, λαπάρα. The flanks, from *λαπαζω*, to empty, because this part falls in as if empty.

LAPAROCLE. A rupture through the side of the belly.

LAPIDELLUM, or Lapidellus. The name of a kind of spoon, formerly used to take out small stones and fragments from the bladder.

LAQUEUS GUTTURIS. A malignant inflammation of the tonsils.

LARBASON. Antimony.

LATTEN. Brass.

LAUCANIA. The œsophagus or the throat.

LAUROSIS. The spodium of silver; so called from Mount Laurus, where there were silver mines.

LAVACRA. Washes. Such as are used to improve the skin.

LAVIPEDIUM. A bath for the feet.

LAZARI MORBUS, or Malum. The elephantiasis, or leprosy.

LEBBECK. Egyptian mimosa, a species of *Mimosa*.

LECHENEON. A name for the torcular Herophili.

LECTISTERNIUM, is used by some writers for all that apparatus which is necessary for the care of a sick person in bed. And,

LECTUALIS, is said of a person

whose distemper requires him to be confined in bed; signifying the same as *Clinicus*, κλινικός, amongst the Greeks, from κλινη, *lectus*, a bed.

LECTUALIS MORBUS. A disease which confines a patient to his bed.

LECTULI. Couches. In these chaff was mixed, with proper ingredients coarsely powdered, that their qualities may be absorbed into the body whilst the patient is laid on them.

LEIPODES, λειποδες. Splay, or broad-footed. It is when the middle of the inside of the foot is not hollow, but plane.

LEIPHÆMII, (λειφαίμοι, from λειπα, to be deficient, and αἷμα, blood). Those are thus called who have too little blood.

LEIPODERMOS, (λειποδερμος, from λειπω, to be deficient, and δερμα, the skin). A person is thus called who hath lost his prepuce.

LEIPOPSYCHIA, (λειποψυχια, from λειπω, to leave, and ψυχη, the soul or life). A fainting fit, a languor, &c. It is synonymous with *Adynamia*.

LEIPYRIA, (λειπυρια, from λειπω, to leave, and πυρ, heat or fire). A dangerous species of ardent fever, wherein the internal parts are scorched with heat, whilst the external parts are cold. It is a kind of tertian.

LENOS, ληνος. In Hippocrates it signifies a channel or excavation, made in some machines for making extension, and reducing fractured bones. Herophilus gave this name to what is called *Torcular Herophili*.

LENTICULA. A freckle, such as is seen on the face, arms, &c. of some whose skin is affected by the sun. See *Ephelis*.

LENTICO, signifies a freckly or scurfy eruption upon the skin; such especially as is common to women in the time of childbearing.

LEO, besides its application to a particular animal commonly known, is also by physical writers used in various senses; as for a disease known to the Greeks by the name of λεοντιασις, which is a species of leprosy, the same as *Elephantiasis*: but the chemists have most grievously tortured it, by applying it to several of their compounds.

LEONINA LEPRAS. *Leontiasis*.

LEONTIASIS. A variety of *Elephantiasis*.

LEPIDOEIDES, (λεπιδοειδες, from λεπις, *squama*, a scale, and εις, *forma*, shape), is applied to some of the tumors of the head, as is *Lepidosarcoma* by M. Aurel, Severinus, to some fleshy excrescences resembling scales in shape. *Lepidooides* particularly denominates the squamous tumor of the skull.

LEPIDOSARCOMA. See *Lepidooides*.

LEPORINUM ROSTRUM. The piece of flesh which is often seen between the divisions of the hare-lip.

LEPTOPHONIA. *Paraphonia Clangens*.

LEROS, ληρος. A slight delirium.

LESEOLI MORBUS. So Paracelsus calls the jaundice.

LESEOLUS. Paracelsus says it cures the jaundice, but does not say what it is.

LEUCE, λευκη, by the Latins *Alba Vitiligo*, and *Lepra Alba*, is a species of the leprosy, where the eruptions are whiter and smoother; but not so essentially differing, as to require any thing particular in its cure. See *Albus*.

LEUCORRHOIS. It is that species of *Diarrhœa* in which there is a too copious discharge of mucus. Also when in cases of the piles the discharge is not bloody but mucous.

LEVISANUS. A species of *Brutia*, and a species of *Protea*.

LIBANOTUS. Frankincense.

LIBDO. The itch.

LICHANOS. The fore-finger.

LICHENASTRUM. A name of a kind of moss.

LIGATURA VENERIS. A name for *Camphor*, from a supposition that it checks the venereal appetite.

LILIUM PARACELSI. The lily of Paracelsus; or, the tincture of metals. A mixture of copper and antimony, another of regulus of antimony and tin, and regulus of antimony, nitre, and tartar, are melted together in a crucible, and then poured into a mortar. They are introduced as hot as possible into a matrafs, and spirit of wine is poured upon them. The mixture is digested till the spirit has acquired a red colour.

Part of the metallic substances calcines during their fusion; by means of the nitre, the tartar, and nitre alkalize together; the small portion of metallic calx augments the causticity of the alkali, which thereby becomes more able to act upon the oily principles of the spirit of wine. It is for this reason that this tincture is a little more coloured than the tincture of salt of tartar.

LIMOCTONIA, λιμοκτονια, is used by Hippocrates and some others of the ancients, to express the utmost distress from hunger.

LINGODES. Fevers are so called that are much attended with a hiccup.

LIOSYRIS. German goldilocks, a species of *Chrysocoma*.

LIPPIL. Egyptian small purple flowering centaurea: a species of *Centaurea*.

LIPOPSYCHIA. *Leipopsychia*.

LIQUOR SIRINIACUS. Gum Benjamin.

LITHAGOGUS, (from λιθος, a stone, and αγω, to bring away). An epithet for a medicine that expels the stone.

LITHOIDES, (λιθοειδης, from λιθος, a stone, and ειδος, form). An epithet for the os petrosum. It is so called from its hardness.

LOCH, or *Loboch*. Arabian names for those forms of medicines which are now commonly called *Eclégmas*, *Lambatives*, *Linduscs*, or the like, which see.

LOGAS, λογας. The white of the eye.

LOHOC. See *Loch*.

LONCHOTON. A name for the best species of *Vitriol*.

LOPHADIA, λοθαδια, λοφια, or *Lophia*. Names of the first vertebræ of the back. *Lophia* also sometimes signifies the upper part of the back of the neck.

LOPHANTHUS. Chinese hyssop, a species of *Hyssopus*.

LORDOSIS, λορδωσις. It is when the spine bends towards the fore parts; when applied to the bones of the legs, it signifies bow-legged. It is a name for the *Lumbago*, and the *Tabes Dorsalis*.

LORICA. A kind of lute with which glass retorts, &c, are coated, before they are put into the fire.

LORINA MATRICIS. An epilepsy, or a convulsive disorder, proceeding from the uterus.

LOXARTHRUS. Supple joint.

LUES DEIFICA. One of the pompous names for the epilepsy.

LUES NEURODES CONVULSIVA. It is a mild typhus.

LUMBRICI. The round worms.

LUMBRICI LATI. Tape-worms.

LUNÆTRIA. In the chemical jargon, it is a species of hectic, which is curable in one period of the moon.

LUPUS, strictly signifies the wolf, or wild dog; but some persons have figuratively applied it to a grievous eating ulcer, like the *Phagedæna*. The cancer is thus named by some.

LUPUS PHILOSOPHORUM. *Antimony*.

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Luz. Some of the Jewish rabbins relate strange stories of a bone thus named, and which they say is found betwixt the last vertebra of the loins, and the os sacrum; but as there is not any such bone, it is supposed that one of the sesamoid bones has been mistaken for it. They relate amongst other stories, that God will make use of this bone at the last day to raise the dead, making the body to grow again from it, as a plant does from the seed.

LYCANCHE. A species of *Quincy*.

LYCANTHROPIA, (from *λυκος*, a wolf, and *ανθρωπος*, a man). *Lycanthropy*. It is a species of melancholy, or of madness. Some call it *erratic melancholy*, because the patient wanders about, and cannot rest in any one place. Aëtius in his *Tetrabib*, calls it *Cynanthropy*. Oribasius informs us, that “these patients leave their houses in the night time, and in every thing imitate wolves, and wander about the tombs until break of day.

LYCIUM. A name of the Indian thorn.

LYCOCTONUM. The yellow poisonous acornite; a species of *Aconitum*.

L Y

LYGISTUM. A species of *Petasia*.

LYGMOS, *λυγμος*. An hiccough.

LYGISMOS, (*λυγισμος*, from *λυγιζω*, *torqueo*). A luxation.

LYNCEUS, from *lynx*, a creature of a quick sight, is used by some for a collyrium to strengthen the eyes; and hence also a person is said to be *lynceus*, or lynx-eyed, who hath a quick strong sight.

LYNCOURION, (from *λυγξ*, a lynx, and *ουρον*, urine). Various are the opinions of writers concerning this substance; but the most probable is, that of Dr. Watson, viz. that it is *Tourmaline*.

LYNGODES, *λυγγωδες*. The hiccuping quotidian fever.

LYSSA, *λυσσα*, or *λυττα*, strictly signifies the madness of a dog, which is communicable by his bite, but is more laxly applied to the bite of any venomous creatures; whence the *Pulvis Antilyssus* in the former London Dispensatory takes its name, as being accounted good against such evils.

LYTHRON, *λυθρον*. Dust mixed with sweat; but Hippocrates occasionally expresses by it, the menstrual blood.

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MACAPATLI. *Sarsaparilla*.

MACHÆRIA. Peach kernels.

MACHAON, is the proper name of an ancient physician, said to be one of the sons of *Æsculapius*; whence some authors have fancied to dignify their own inventions with his name, as particularly a collyrium

M A

described by Scribonius, intitled, *Asclepias Machaonis*; and hence also, medicine in general is by some called *Ars Machaonia*.

MACHINULÆ. A diminutive of the same word, is sometimes used by physical writers to express those little compositions, which are parts of

more compound bodies, and which, by their peculiar configuration, are destined to particular offices. Thus in anatomy, the various textures, combinations, and decussations of the fibres compounding the muscles, nerves, or membranes, often are expressed by this term.

MACROCEPHALI, (*μακροκεφαλοι*, the long heads, from *μακρος*, long, and *κεφαλα*, the head). They seem to have been a nation in some part of Cappadocia. Hippocrates says in his treatise on air, &c. that the length of their heads was at first owing to a law or custom, which arose from an opinion that those who had the longest heads were the most noble; whence, as soon as the child was born, they fashioned its tender head with their hands, and by the use of bandages, &c. forced it to grow lengthwise: thus the natural spherical figure of the head was perverted, and the length increased. He adds, that in time nature conformed to the custom, but in a farther period nature had again recovered her usual mode.

MACROPNEA, *μακροπνεια*, } from
MACROPNUS, } *μακρος*
long, and *πνεω*, to breathe). It is one who fetches his breath at long intervals.

MADEFACTION, is properly receiving so much moisture, that a body is quite soaked through by it; whence *madida* is said by some of any thing made tender by infusion or decoction.

MADELION, Bdellium.

MADISIS, *μαδις*. Baldness.

MÆMACYLON. The fruit of the arbutus.

MAGALATZE. *Manganese*.

MAGDALEONES. Masses of plaster, or of other compositions, reduced to a cylindrical form; they are also called *Cylindri*.

MAGIA, *μαγια*, magic, anciently

expressed only an uncommon extent of knowledge in natural things; at the distinctions of Magician, Brachman, Druid, and Prophet, were ascribed, by different nations, in the same sense, to persons supposed to excel in it; but chemistry and enthusiasm have latterly much corrupted this term by calling in the assistance of some supernatural power, and commonly that of an evil spirit, for the obtaining such acquirements; and chiefly Paracelsus, Crollius, and Helmont, have treated it in this manner, alleging much to be done in medicine by magic or enchantment; and hence arise likewise our modern legends of witchcrafts, and exorcisms, which it is to be feared have not a little been encouraged by priestcraft.

MAGISTERIAL REMEDY, is sometimes retained in the cant of empirics, more for its great sound than any significancy.

MAGISTERY, is a term made use of by chemists to signify a very fine powder made by solution and precipitation, as of bismuth, lead, &c.

MAGISTERY OF LEAD. If to a solution of lead, fixed alkali be added, it seizes on the acid, taking the place of the lead, which falls down in a white powder named thus.

MAGISTRALIS. When applied to medicines, it is the same with *Medicamenta Extemporanea*.

MAGMA, *μαγμα*, expresses the dregs or residuum after infusion or distillation.

MAGNA ARTERIA. The *Aorta*.

MANGES, *μαγνη*. The load-stone, the wonderful properties of which have greatly puzzled and employed the enquiries of many great men; but their opinions thereupon are of no great use in medicine. It is an ore of iron.

MAGNES ALBUS. White load-

stone. It is a sort of rocky marle.

MAGNES ARSENICALIS. Arsenical magnet. It is a composition of equal parts of antimony, sulphur, and arsenic, mixed and melted together, so as to become a glassy body.

MAGNES EPILEPSIÆ. The native cinnabar.

MAGNESIA OPALINA. In making the *hepar antimonii*, some add to the antimony and nitre, decrepitated sal ammoniac, and thus make the opalin. It is a weaker emetic than the liver of antimony.

MAGNUM DEI DONUM. So Dr. Mead calls the Peruvian bark.

MAGNUS MORBUS. The great disease. So Hippocrates calls the epilepsy.

MAHALEB. A species of *Prunus*.

MAHMOUDY. *Scammonium*.

MALA ASSYRIA. The citron.

MALA ÆTHIOPICA. A species of *Lycopersicon*.

MALA COTONEA. The quince.

MALA INSANA N'GRA. The fruit of the black-fruited night-shade. See *Melongena*.

MAACIA, μαλακία. A depraved appetite, when such things are coveted as are not proper for food; but the etymology of the term seems doubtful, unless it be from *μαλασσω*, *mollio*, to soften, because too lax a tone of the stomach is generally the occasion of indigestion, and unusual cravings.

MALACTICOS, μαλακτικός. Emollient.

MALAGMA, (μαλαγμα, from μαλασσω, to soften). It is synonymous with *Cataplasma*, from the frequency of making cataplasms to soften; but formerly *malagmas* were made of many other ingredients.

MALAGRETA, Malagueta. Grains of Paradise.

MALAMIRIS. A species of *Piper*.

MALAX. } The softening of
MALAXATIO. } any thing, (from

μαλασσω, to soften).

MALAZISSATUS. One whose testicles are concealed in his body.

MALE. The arm-pit.

MALIS. A purulent ulcerous tumour, with pain from an insect in it, or a pungent pain from an insect lodged in a part without ulcer or tumour.

MALTHEORUM. *Sal Gem*.

MALUM MORTUUM. A malignant species of *lepra*, or scab, which renders the body livid, with crusty ulcers, void of sanies and of pain.

MALUM. A disease. In a strict sense it is the disease called *Procidencia oculi*; it is when the eyes exceed the bounds of the eye-lids.

MANCORON. According to Oribasi's account, it is a kind of sugar which is found in a sort of cane.

MANCURANA. Marjoram.

MANGARATIA. Ginger.

MANIGUETTA. Grains of Paradise.

MANIODES. Maniacal.

MANSORII MUSCULI, (from mando, to eat). The same as *Massefers*.

MANUS CHRISTI SIMPLICES. A name given to certain troches made of the sugar of roses.

MANUS CHRISTI PERLATÆ. When pearls are added to the *manus Christi simplices*, they are thus named.

MANUS DEI. An epithet for opium, and a name for a resolvent plaster which is described by Lemery.

MAPPA. A species of *Ricinus*.

MARASMODES, (μαρασμοδὴ, from marasmus, a consumption, and εἶδος, forma, shape). Used by some for such fevers as leave the body greatly wasted.

MARCHIONIS PULVIS. The marquis's powder. It is designed as an antiepileptic, and consists of peony, millet, and elks-hoofs, &c.

MARCOR. A preternatural drowsiness.

MARISCA. An excrescence about the anus, the piles in a state of tumour; the *Hæmorrhoids tumens* of Cullen.

MARMORIGE. A variety of the *Pseudoblepsis Imaginaria*, in which sparks and flashes of fire are supposed to present themselves.

MARMOREUS TARTARUS. The hardest species of *Human Calculus*.

MARTIAL. Sometimes used to express preparations of iron, or such as are impregnated therewith; as the *Martial Regulus* of antimony, &c.

MASCHALE. The arm-pit.

MASCHALISTER. A name for the second vertebra of the back.

MATERIA PERLATA. If instead of crystallizing the salts contained in the liquor separated from diaphoretic antimony, an acid be poured into it, a white precipitate is formed, which is nothing else but a very refractory calx of antimony.

MATERIATURA. Castellus explains *morbi materiatura* to be diseases of intemperance.

MATRICALIA. Medicines appropriated to disorders of the uterus.

MECONIUM, (*μικωνιον* from *μικων*, *papaver*, a poppy). Is properly the condensed juice of poppies, or opium.

MEDENA. In Paracelsus it is a species of Ulcer.

MEDIANUM. The *Mediastinum*.

MEDIASTINA. Inflammation of the mediastinum.

MEDIASTINUM CEREBRI. The falciform process of the dura mater.

MEDICAMENTARIA. Pharmacy. It is the art of making and preparing medicines.

MEDICASTER. A false pretender to the knowledge of medicine; the same as Quack.

MEDICINA TRISTITIÆ. An epithet given to saffron, on account of its cheering effects.

MEDICINAL DAYS. Such are so called by some writers, wherein no crisis or change is expected, so as to forbid the use of medicines, in order to wait nature's effort, and and therefore require all assistance from art to help forward, or prepare the humours for such a crisis: but it is most properly used for those days wherein purging or any other evacuation, is most conveniently complied with.

MEDICINAL HOURS. Are those wherein it is supposed that medicines may be taken to the greatest advantage, commonly reckoned in the morning fasting, about an hour before dinner, about four hours after dinner, and at going to bed; but in acute cases, the times are to be governed by the symptoms and aggravation of the distemper.

MEDIUS VENTER. The middle venter, is the thorax, or chest.

MELAINA NOSOS. The black disease. Hippocrates applies this name to two diseases. In the first the patient vomits black bile, which is sometimes bloody and sour; sometimes he throws up a thin saliva; and at others a green bile, &c. In the second the patient is as described in the article *Morbus Niger*.

MELANAGOGUES. Are such medicines as are supposed particularly to purge off black choler, (from *μελας*, *niger*, black, and *αγω*, *duco*, to lead). But there is no such distinction of choler now much regarded, and consequently this term is but little used.

MELANCHLORUS, *μεμαγχλωρος*. Livid colour of the skin, the black jaundice.

MELCA, *μελκα*. Galen says it is a Roman word; and Constantine, lib. xviii. de Agricultura, says it is nothing but milk reposed in an earthen pot, first well seasoned with boiling hot vinegar, by which means

there was a separation of the thicker substance of the milk from the whey.

MELEGETA. } Grains of Pa-
MELEGUETTA. } radise.

MELEIOS, μηλειος. A species of alum, which is made in the island of Melos.

MELIGEION. Blancard says it is a fetid oleous humour, of the consistence of honey, discharged from ulcers, complicated with a caries of the subjacent bone.

MELITISMOS, μελιτισμος. A linctus prepared with honey.

MELLAGO. Any medicine is thus called which hath the consistence and sweetness of honey.

MELON, μηλον. See *Melo*. A disorder of the eye, and is when it protuberates out of the socket.

MELOSIS, μελωσις. A term which frequently occurs in Hippocrates, De Capit. Vulner. for that search into wounds which is made by surgeons with the specillum, or probe.

MELOTIS, μελωτις. Is used for the lesser specillum, and often for that particular instrument contrived to search or cleanse the ear with, more commonly called *Auriscalpium*.

MENDOSUS. Is used by some in the same sense as spurius, or illegitimus; *Mendosa Costa*, false or spurious ribs; *Mendosa Sutura*, the squamous suture, in the skull, or bastard suture, from *mendax*, counterfeit.

MENINGOPHYLAX, (μηνιγοφυλαξ, from μηνιγξ, a membrane, and φυλασσω, to guard). Is an instrument used in wounds of the head, largely described by Celsus, but more accurately with its use, by Scultetus, Arm. Chirurg. part i. tab. 2. fig. 10. Gorgæus takes notice of somewhat like it under the name *Vedlis*, the same as the *Mochlion* of the Greeks.

MENSIS PHILOSOPHICUS. A philosophical or chemical month. According to some, it is three days

and nights, others say it is ten, and there are who reckon it to be thirty or forty days.

MENTULAGRA. A disorder of the penis, induced by a contraction of the erectorès musculi, and causing impotence. It is the same as Paulus Ammianus explains of the spadones. Joseph Grundpeckius calls the venereal disease thus.

MERON, μηρος. The thigh.

MERUS. Applied to several things in the same sense as genuine, or unadulterated, as *merum vinum*, neat wine.

MESIRE. A disorder of the liver, mentioned by Avicenna, accompanied with a sense of heaviness, tumour, inflammation, pungent pain, and blackness of the tongue.

MESOMERIA. So Rufus Ephesius calls that part of the body which lies between the thighs.

MESOPHRYON, μεσοφρυον. So Rufus Ephesius calls that part of the face which lies betwixt the eyebrows.

MESOPLEURIOS, μεσοπλευριος. Intercoastal muscles.

METABASIS, and *Metabole*, μεταβασις, μεταβολη. Signifies any change from one thing to another, either in the curative indications, or the symptoms of a distemper.

METACINEMA, μετακινημα. A removal of the pupil of the eye from its proper situation.

METACONDYLI, (μετακονδυλι, from μετα, after, and κονδυλος, a knuckle). The last joints of the fingers next the nails.

METAPHRENON, μεταφρενον. The back, properly the part betwixt the shoulders.

METAPTOSIS, μεταπλωσις, is said of the change of one disease into another; and is distinguished into a *diadoche*, διαδοχη, when the translation proves salutary, as of congested matter from the nobler parts to

those which it can do no harm to, but be critically exterminated; and a *metastasis*, μετασταςις, which is a change for the worse, or without any such advantage.

METAL. A species of *Datura*.

METEORISMUS. *Tympanites*.

METEOROS, (μετεωρος, from μεῖω, and αἶψα, to elevate). Elevated, suspended, erect, sublime, tumid. Galen expounds pains of this sort, as being those that affect the peritonæum, or other more superficial parts of the body: these are opposed to the more deep-seated ones.

METHEMERINOS, μεθημερινος. A quotidian fever.

METHODICA MEDICINA. Signifies that practice which was conducted by rules, such as are taught by Galen, and his followers, in opposition to the empirical practice.

METOPION, or *Metopium*, μετωπιον. American sumach, a species of *Rhus*. It is a name of the bitter almond, also of an oil, or an ointment made by Dioscorides, which was thus called, because it had galbanum in it which was collected from a plant called *Metopium*.

METOPON, *Metopum*, μετωπον. The forehead.

METOSIS. A kind of amaurosis, from an excess of short-sightedness.

METRECHYTES, (μετρεχυτης, from μετρα, the uterus, and εγχυα, to infuse, or pour into). Injections for the uterus: also, a womb-syringe.

METROCELIDES, (from μετρα, a mother, and κελις, a spot, or mole). A mole or mark impressed upon the child by the mother's imagination on the foetus.

METRO MANIA. A rage for reciting verses. In the *Acta Societatis Medicæ Havniensis*, published 1779, is an account of a tertian attended with remarkable symptoms; one of which was the *metro-mania*, which the patient spoke extempore, having never before had the least taste for

poetry; when the fit was off, the patient became stupid, and remained so till the return of the paroxysm, when the poetical powers returned again.

MILPHOSIS, μιλφωσις. A baldness of the eye-brows: also an increase of the flesh in the corners of the eyes.

MINIUM GRÆCORUM. Native cinnabar.

MISERERE MEI. This is applied to some colics, where the pains are so exquisite as to draw compassion from a by-stander; the term importing so much.

MISOCHYMICUS. Thus some were called, who professed themselves enemies to the chemists, and their enthusiastic conceits.

MITHRIDATIUM. The electary called *Mithridate*, from Mithridates, king of Pontus and Bithynia, who experiencing the virtues of the simples separately, afterwards combined them; but then the composition consisted of but few ingredients, viz. twenty leaves of rue, two walnuts, two figs, and a little salt: of this he took a dose every morning, to guard himself against the effects of poison.

MIVA. An ancient term for the form of a medicine, not unlike a thick syrup, now called *Marmatade*.

MOCHLIA, μοχλια. Used by the Greek writers for the reduction of dislocated bones, from the name of an instrument much used therein, called by the Latins *Vellis*, a lever. Whence also *Hypomochlion*.

MOCHLICA. Violent purges.

MOGILALIA, (μογιλαλια, from μογι, difficulty, and λαλειν, to speak). A difficulty of speech. It is the *Pselismus Acheilos* of Dr. Cullen.

MOLA, μολη. A name for the knee-pan, for the dentes molares, and for the jaws. It also signifies a grinder.

MOLLE. Indian mastich.

MOLLIFICATIO. A barbarous term for a palsy of the muscles in any particular part.

MOLYBDOS. Lead.

MOLYZA. A head of garlic, or garlic which hath a head not divisible into cloves.

MOMISCUS. The part of any of the dentes molares next the gum. The dentes molares are themselves called *Momisci*.

MONELLI. A species of *Anagallis*.

MONOCOLON. In Paracelsus it is the *Intestinum Rectum*.

MONOMACHON. The *intestinum cæcum*.

MONOPAGIA, or *Monopegia*. A pain in the head which affects only one point.

MORBUS ARQUATUS. The jaundice.

MORBUS ATTONITUS. The epilepsy.

MORBUS COXARIUS. See *Arthropusis*.

MORBUS GALLICUS. The venereal disease.

MORBUS HERCULEUS. The epilepsy.

MORBUS INFANTILIS. The epilepsy.

MORBUS INDIUS. The Indian disease, the venereal disease.

MORBUS MAGNUS. The epilepsy.

MORBUS NIGER. The black disease. So Hippocrates named it, and thus described it. This disorder is known by vomiting a concrete blood of a blackish red colour, and mixed with a large quantity of insipid, acid, or viscid phlegm. This evacuation is generally proceeded by a pungent tensive pain, in both the hypochondria, and the appearance of the disease is attended with anxiety, a compressive pain in the præcordia, and fainting, which last is more frequent

and violent, when the blood which is evacuated is fetid and corrupt. The stomach and the spleen are the principal, if not the proper seat of this disease.

MORBUS REGIUS. The jaundice.

MORBUS SACER. The epilepsy.

MORO. An abscess in the flesh, resembling a mulberry.

MORSULI, are ancient names for those forms of medicines which were to be chewed in the mouth, as a lozenge, the word signifying a little mouthful.

MORTA. *Pemphigus*.

MORTARIOLUM. In Chemistry, it is a sort of mould for making cups with, also a little mortar. In Anatomy, it is the sockets of the teeth.

MOSCH. Castellus says, they are a sort of roriferous vessels, which Billius discovered in the kidneys.

MUCOCARNEUS. In M. A Severinus, it is an epithet for a tumour, a abscess, which is partly fleshy and partly mucous.

MULÆ. Pustules contracted either by heat or cold.

MULSUM, *Musus*, or *Mulse*, *Hydromel*; though sometimes it signifies wine sweetened with honey.

MUSADI. Sal ammoniac.

MYCES, (*μύκης*, from *μύω*, to wink, shut up, or obstruct). It is a winking, closing, or obstruction. It is applied to the eyes, to ulcers, and to the viscera, especially the spleen, where it imports obstructions. In surgery, it is a fungus, such as arises in ulcers and wounds. Some writers speak of a yellow vitriol, which is called *Myce*.

MYCHTHISMOS, (*μυχθισμός*, from *μύζω*, to mutter, or groan). In Hippocrates it is a sort of sighing or groaning during respiration, whilst the air is forced out of the lungs.

MY

MYCONOIDES. An epithet for an ulcer which is full of mucus.

MYCTER. The nose.

MYCTERES, μυκτῆρες. The nostrils.

MYDESIS, (μυδσι, from μυδαω, to abound with moisture). It imports in general, a corruption of any part from a redundant moisture. But Galen applies it particularly to the eye-lids.

MYDON, μυδων. Fungous flesh in a fistulous ulcer.

MYLACRIS. The knee-pan.

MYLE, μυλη. The knee-pan, or a mole in the uterus.

MYLON. *Staphyloma.*

MYOCEPHALUM, (μυοκεφαλον, from μυια, a fly, and κεφαλη, the head). A humour in the uvea tunica of the eye, which resembles the head of a fly.

MYOCOLITES. So Vogel calls inflammations in the muscles of the belly.

MY

MYRINGA, *Myrinx.* A barbarous word for the membrane of the ear, called the drum.

MYRMECIUM. A moist soft wart, about the size of a lupine, with a broad base, deeply rooted, and very painful. It grows on the palms of the hands and soles of the feet.

MYRON, μυρον. An ointment, a medicated oil or unguent.

MYRTON. The clitoris.

MYURUS. An epithet for a sort of sinking pulse, when the second stroke is less than the first, the third than the second, &c. Of this there are two kinds: the first is when the pulse so sinks as not to rise again; the other, when it returns again, and rises in some degree. Both are esteemed bad presages.

MYXOSARCOMA. A sort of tumour; also called *Mucocarnius.*

N.

NA

NACTA. An apostemation of the breasts, particularly those of women.

NADUCEM. So Avicenna calls a mole in the womb.

NAI CORONA. Cowhage, or cow-itch.

NAKIR. According to Schenkus, it is a violent flatulence, which passes from one limb to another.

NAPHA. Orange-flower.

NAPY. Mustard.

NARCE, (ναρκη, whence *Narcotica*). A torpor, or dullness of sensation. It also signifies a stupefaction of the senses by medicines, in order to render a person less sensible of pain.

NARCOSIS, (ναρκωσις, stupor,

numbness). A stupefaction.

NASALE,
NASALIA, } an errhine.

NASCALE. A sort of pessary made of wool or of cotton.

NASCAPHTHON. *Cascarilla.*

NASDA. *Naphtha.*

NASITAS. A defect of the voice, by its passing through the nose.

NASTOS. The walking-cane.

NATTA. A tumour of the wen kind. It hath a narrow basis, but a much larger body. Linnæus speaks of it as rooted in a muscle.

NAUTICUS. The *Tibialis Posterior* is so called from the use which sailors make of it in climbing.

NEAPOLITANUM UNGUENTUM.

Neapolitan ointment. The unguent œerul. mit. is now always used for it.

NECESSARIÆ RES. The non-naturals.

NEDYIA, νδυια. The abdominal viscera.

NEDYS, νδυς. The stomach, or the belly.

NEDYUSA, νδυσα. An epithet for thirst, signifying its being violent.

NEFRENDÆ. Properly it is sucking-pigs; but it is applied to young children, or old people, who have no teeth.

NEIÆRA, νειαιρα. The lower part of the belly.

NELUMBO. A species of *Nymphaea*.

NENUFAR, or *Nenuphar*. An obsolete term for water-lilies; whence the oil made of them is, by some writers, called *Oleum Nenupharinum*.

NEPENTHE, νηπενθης. Was a name first given to an opiate or laudanum, by Theodorus Zwingerus, from the great opinion he had of its giving ease in all manner of pain, the word importing as much.

NEPHROTHROMBOIDES. Suppression of urine from concreted blood in the kidneys.

NERANTIA. An orange.

NERONIANA. An epithet for venæsection, when more than one vein is opened in a day.

NERVALIA OSSA. The *Sinciput*; but some say the temple bones.

NEUROMETERES. The psoæ muscles.

NEUROTOTOS, (νευροτοτος, from *νευρον*, a nerve, and *τοτω*, to wound). A person who labours under a wound of a nerve.

NIDOR. The smell of burnt animal substances. Hence eruptions which have a flavour like putrefied flesh, are called *Niderous*.

NIGRA FABRILIS. Black lead.

NISI. Blancard says it is gingeng.

NITRUM ARTIFICIALE HOFFMANNI. It is made of the spirit of sal ammoniac and spirit of nitre. It perfectly dissolves in spirit of wine.

NITRUM CALCAREUM VERUM. It is a solution of calcareous earth in nitrous acid.

NITRUM CAUSTICUM. The amber-coloured scoria arising in the purification of the regulus antimonii martialis with nitre, are a strong caustic alkali, and are thus named.

NITRUM FACTITIUM. Borax.

NITRUM NATIVUM. Borax.

NITRUM STIBIATUM. Tartar vitriolated.

NITRUM VITRIOLATUM. Tartar vitriolated.

NIX FUMANS. Quicklime.

NIX ANTIMONIALIS. The white flowers of the regulus of antimony.

NOME, νομη. A phagedenic ulcer; also a species of *Herpes*.

NONANA. An erratic intermittent fever, returning once in nine days.

NOTIÆUS, (νοτιας, from *νωτος*, the back). An epithet for the spinal marrow.

O C

OBELÆA, (*ὀβελαια*, from *ὀβελος*, a dart, or a spit. *Obelæa sagittalis*, an epithet for the sagittal future of the skull.

OBLESION, (from *ob*, against, and *lædo*, to hurt). It is an injury done to any part.

OBOLUS, *ὀβολος*. A weight of about nine grains.

OBSIDIANA. They are a species of glass, so called from their resemblance to a kind of stone, which one Obsidius discovered in Ethiopia, of a very black colour, though sometimes they are pellucid and of a muddy water. Pliny says also, that *obsidianum* was a sort of colour with which vessels were glazed. Hence the name is applied by Libavius to glass of antimony.

OBSIDIANUS LAPIS. Canal coal.

OCCULT QUALITY. A term that has been much used by writers that had not clear ideas of what they undertook to explain; and which served, therefore, only for a cover to their ignorance.

OCCULT DISEASES, is likewise from the same mint as the former, *occultus* signifying hidden, and therefore, nothing can be understood, when a person speaks of a hidden disease, but that it is a disease he does not understand.

OCHREA. The fore part of the tibia.

OCHTHODES, (*οχθωδες*, from *οχθος*, importing the tumid lips of ulcers, callous, tumid). It is an epithet for ulcers which are difficult to heal.

O D

OCIMASTRUM. Wild white cam-pion.

OCTANA. An erratic intermitting fever, which returns every eighth day.

OCTAVUS HUMERI MUSCULUS. The *Teres Minor*.

OCTAVUS HUMERI PLACENTINI MUSCULUS. The *Teres Minor*.

OCCULARES COMMUNES. A name for the nerves, which are also called *Motores Oculorum*.

OCCULARES EXTERNI. *Motores oculorum externi*.

OCULARIA. Eye-bright.

OCULO MUSCULARES. The nerves called *Motores Oculorum*.

OCULO-MUSCULARES EXTERNI. The nerves called *Motores Oculorum Externi*.

OCULUS BOVINUS. See *Proptosis*.

OCULUS BOVIS. The great daisy.

OCULUS BUBULUS. See *Proptosis*.

OCULUS CHRISTI. Austrian flea-bane; a species of *Inula*.

OCULUS ELEPHANTINUS. See *Proptosis*.

OCULUS GENU. The knee-pan.

OCULUS LACHRYMANS. The *Epiphora*.

OCULUS MUNDI. A species of *Opal*, generally of a yellowish colour. By lying in water it becomes of an amber-colour, and also transparent.

ODAXISMOS, (*οδαξιμος*, from *οδους*, a tooth). A biting sensation, pain, or itching in the gums. Hippocrates uses this word principally with

respect to the gums, when the teeth are forcing a passage through them.

ODONTAGOGOS. The name of an instrument to draw teeth, one of which, made of lead, Forreſtus relates to have been hung up in the temple of Apollo, denoting, that ſuch an operation ought not to be made, but when the tooth was looſe enough to draw with ſo ſlight a force as could be applied with that.

ODONTIRRHŒA. Bleeding from the ſocket of the jaw, after drawing a tooth.

OEDEMA OEDEMATODES. It is that ſerous tumour which is ſimply called *Oedema*, or according to ſome the *Cold Oedema*.

OEDEMOSARCA. A ſpecies of tumour mentioned by M. A. Severinus, of a middle nature betwixt an *œdema* and *ſarcoma*.

OENANTHE CHÆROPHYLLI FOLIIS. The *Oenanthe Crocata*.

OENANTHE CICUTÆ FACIE LOBELII. The *Oenanthe Crocata*.

OENAREA, οινάρεη. The aſhes prepared of the twigs, &c. of vines.

OENELÆUM, οινέλαιον. A mixture of oil and wine.

OENOGALA, (οινογάλα, from οινος, wine, and γάλα, milk). A ſort of potion, made of wine and milk. According to ſome, it is wine as warm as new milk.

OENUS ANTHINOS. Flowery wine. Galen ſays it is either *Oenus Anthoſmias*, or wine impregnated with flowers, in which ſenſe it is an epithet for the *Cyceon*.

OENUS ANTHOSMIAS, (from ανθος, a flower, and οσμη, a ſmell). Sweet-ſcented wines.

OENUS APODÆDUS. Wine in which the dais or tæda are boiled.

OENUS APEZESMENUS. A wine heated to a great degree, and preſcribed among other things, as garlic, ſalt, milk, and vinegar.

OENUS GALACTODES. Wine with milk, or wine made as warm as new milk.

OENUS DEUTERUS. Wines of the ſecond preſſing.

OENUS DIACHEOMENUS. Wine diffuſed in larger veſſels, cooled, and ſtrained from the lees, to render it thinner and weaker; wines thus drawn off are called *Saccus*, and *Saccata*, from the bag through which they are ſtrained.

OENUS MALACUS, SIVE MALTHACUS. Soft wine. Sometimes it means weak and thin, oppoſed to ſtrong wine; or mild in oppoſition to auſtere.

OENUS MELICHROOS. Wine in which is honey.

OENUS OENODES. Strong wine.

OENOS SIRÆOS. *Sapa*.

OENOS STRAPHIDIOS LEUCOS. White wine made from railins.

OENOS TETHALASMENOS. Wine mixed with ſea-water.

OENOSTACMA. Spirit of wine.

OEAATA. The *anacardium*, alſo a tall tree in China.

OESYPE, OESYPOS, OESYPUM, OESYPUS, οισυπη, οισυπος. It frequently is met with in the ancient Pharmacy, for a certain oily ſubſtance, boiled out of particular parts of the fleeces of wool, as what grows on the flank, neck, and parts moſt uſed to ſweat.

OFFA ALBA. Van Helmont thus calls the white coagulation which ariſes from a mixture of a rectified ſpirit of wine and of urine; but the ſpirit of urine muſt be diſtilled from well-fermented-urine; and that muſt be well dephlegmated, elſe it will not anſwer.

OFFUSCATIO. The ſame as *Amauroſis*.

OLEAMAN. A thin liniment composed of oils.

OLISTHEMA, (ολισθημα, from ολισθαινω, to fall out). A luxation.

OMENTA. The membranes of the brain.

OMOCOTYLE. The cavity in the extremity of the neck of the ſcapula,

in which the head of the humerus is articulated.

OMOTRIBES, *ωμοτριβες*. Oil expressed from unripe olives.

OMPHACINUM. Oil from unripe olives.

OMPHACION, or *Omphacium*, *ομφακιον*, was used for the juice of four grapes; and by some latterly is applied to that of wild apples, or crabs, commonly called *Verjuice*.

OMPHACIUM. The juice of unripe grapes.

OMPHACITIS, *ομφακιτις*. A small kind of gall; an excrescence of oak.

OMPHACOMELI, *ομφακομελι*. A sort of oxymel made of the juice of unripe grapes and honey.

OMPHAX. Unripe grapes or their juice.

ONAGRA. A name for the rheumatism in the elbow.

ONEIROGMOS, (*ονειρωγμος*, from *ονειρω*). Venereal dreams.

ONEIROGONOS, *ονειρογονος*. So the Greeks call an occasional emission of the semen in sleep, when it only happens rarely.

OOEIDES, *ωοειδης*. An epithet for the aqueous humour of the eye.

OPHRYS, *οφρυς*. The lowest part of the forehead, where the eye-brows grow.

OPHTHALMICI EXTERNI. The *Motores Oculorum*.

OPHTHALMOPONIA. An intense pain in the eye, whence the light is intolerable.

OPHTHALMORRHAGIA. Bleeding from the eye or the eye-lid.

OPHTHALMOXYESIS. A brushing of the eye.

OPHTHALMOXYSTRUM. A brush for the eye. It was formerly made of the beards from barley or rye. It was so drawn across the inside of the eye-lids, as to make them bleed.

OPION, *οπιον*. Opium.

OPOCALPASON, *οποκαλπασον*, or *Opocarpason*. The juice of a tree called *Calpasi*. It resembles myrrh, but is poisonous.

OPODEOCELE. A rupture through the foramen ischii, or into the labia pudendi.

OPRILATIO. *Oppilation* is a close kind of obstruction; for according to Rhodius, it signifies, not only to shut out, but also to fill.

OPPRESSIO. The catalepsy.

ORCHEA. Galen says it is the *Scrotum*.

ORCHOS, *ορχος*. The extremities of the eye-lids, where the eye-lashes grow.

ORESTION. In Dioscorides it is the *Helenium*.

OREXIS, *ορεξις*, or *Orexia*. See *Anorexia*.

ORICIA. A sort of turpentine-tree, so called from Oricus, a city of Epirus, near which it grows.

ORIENTALIA FOLIA. The leaves of fenna.

ORTHOCOLON, (*ορθοκωλον*, from *ορθος*, straight, and *κωλον*, a limb). It is a species of stiff joint, and is, when it cannot be bended, but remains straight.

ORVIETAN, is used for a medicine that resists poisons, from a mountebank at Orvieta in Italy, who first made himself famous by taking such things upon the stage, after doses of pretended poisons. Though some say, its inventor was one H. F. Orvietanus, and that it is named after him.

OSCHEON, *οσχεον*. The scrotum. Galen gives the name to the *os uteri*.

OSTAGRA, (from *οστειον*, a bone, and *αγγρα*, a laying hold of). A forceps to take out bones with.

OSTEOGENICA. Medicines which promote the generation of a callus.

OSTIURUS. The pylorus.

OTENCHYTES, (*οτεγχυτης*, from *ωτος*, the genitive of *ους*, an ear, and *εγχυνω*, to pour in). A syringe for the ears.

OVA ZEPHYRIA. Eggs which are not impregnated by the cock's tread.

OVUM PHILOSOPHICUM, or *Chy-cum*, is a glass body round like an egg.

OXALME, *οξυλμη*. A mixture of vinegar and salt.

OXYCEDRUS. Spanish juniper, a species of *Juniperus*.

OXYCRATUM, *οξυκρατον*. Oxycrates. It is vinegar mixed with such a portion of water as is required, and rendered still milder by the addition of a little honey.

OXYCROCEUM, (from the same as the foregoing, and *κροκος*, *crocus*, saffron). Is a plaster in which there is much saffron, but no vinegar necessary, unless in dissolving some gums.

OXYGALA, *οξυγαλα*. Sour milk.

OXYGARUM, *οξυγαρον*. A composition of garum and vinegar.

OXYPHLEGMASIA, *οξυπλεγμασια*. An acute inflammation.

OXYPHÆNICIA, or *Oxyphænicon*. Tamarinds.

OXYPHONIA, *οξυφωνια*. The same as *Paraphonia Clangens*. It is a howling

OXYREGMIA, (*οξυρεγμις*, from *οξυς*, acid, and *ερεγγω*, to break wind). An acid eructation.

OXYRRHODINON, *οξυρροδιον*. A composition of the oil of roses and vinegar.

OXYSACCHARUM, *οξυσαχαρον*. A composition of vinegar and sugar.

OXSAL DIAPHORETICUM. It is a preparation of Angelus Sala. It is a fixed salt loaded with more acid than is necessary to saturate it. The salt of juniper is of this kind.

OXYTOCA, (from *οξυς*, quick, and *τιτω*, to bring forth). Medicines which promote delivery.

OZE, *οζη*. Is sometimes used to signify a stench in the mouth.

P.

P A

P. P. is sometimes used in prescription, for *pulvis patrum*, Jesuit's powder, so called, because they first brought it into Europe.

PACHYS, *παχυς*. Thick, the name of a disorder described by Hippocrates, but not known by us.

PACÆIRA. The musa, or plantain-tree.

PÆDANCHONE, (from *παις*, a child, and *αγχω*, to strangulate). A species of quinsy common among children.

PÆDARTHROCAE, (from *παις*, a boy, *αρθρον*, a joint, and *κακον*, an evil). The joint-evil. Severinus calls the *Spina Ventosa* by this name, as also doth Dr. Cullen. By some this name is used to express a sort of anasarca.

P A

PAGANICA. A ball used by the Latins to exercise with. It was so called because used only in villages.

PAIDION, *παιδιον*. So Hippocrates calls the child in the womb when perfected there.

PAIDOPOETIC. Of the foetus.

PALEA DE MECHA. The *Juncus Odoratus*.

PALIMPISSA, (*παλιμπισσα*, from *πυλιν*, repetition, and *πισσα*, pitch). Dioscorides says, that dry pitch is thus named, because it is prepared of pitch twice boiled.

PALINDROMIA, (*παλινδρομις*, from *παλινδρομα*, *recurro*, *regurgito*). Is used by Hippocrates for any recurgitation of humours to the more noble parts: and sometimes for the return of a distemper.

PALMOS, παλμος, (from παλλα, to beat). A palpitation of the heart.

PALUDAPIUM. Smallage.

PANACEA DUC. HOLSATIÆ. Tartar vitriolated.

PANACEA DUPLICATA. *Arca-num Duplicatum*.

PANACEA VEGETABILIS. A name given to saffron.

PANCHRESTOS, or *Panchreston*, παγχρηστος. Is of the same signification as *Panacea*, but little used.

PANCHYMAGOGA, (παγχυμαγωγον, from παν, omne, all, χυμος, succus, humour, and αγω, duco, to lead or draw). Is ascribed to such medicines as are supposed to purge all humours equally alike: but this is a conceit now not minded.

PANCREATICA. Inflammation of the pancreas.

PANDALITUM. A whitlow.

PANIS CUCULI, *Acetofella*.

PANIS PORCINUS. *Cyclamen*.

PANOCHIÆ. Buboës in the groin.

PANTOPHOBIA. The same as *Hydrophobia*.

PAPAS. Potatoes.

PAPILLÆ MEDULLARES. Small eminences on the medulla oblongata.

PAPPOS. The downy hairs upon the chin.

PAPPUS. Potatoes.

PARCUCULLARE. So Casserius calls the *Musculus Crico-Arytenoideus*.

PARACMASTICOS, and *Paracme*, παρακμαστικός, παρακμη. Expresses the declension of any distemper; as also, according to Galen, that part of life, where a person is said to grow old, and which he reckons from 35 to 49, when he is said to be old.

PARACOE, παρακοη. Difficult hearing; dulness of hearing.

PARACOPE, παρακοπη. In Hippocrates it is a slight delirium.

PARACYNANCHE, (παρακυναγχη, from παρα, κυων, a dog, and αγχω, to strangle). A species of *Quinsy*: it

being a distemper to which dogs are subject.

PARAGOGE, παραγωγή, signifies that fitness of the bones to one another, as is discernible in their articulation; and bones which are thereby easier of reduction, when dislocated, are by Hippocrates, called παραγωγότερα.

PARALAMPSIS, παραλαμψις. Some writers use this word to express a cicatrix in the transparent part of the cornea of the eye.

PARALLELA. A sort of scurf or leprosy, affecting only the palms of the hands; it happens sometimes in the venereal disease.

PARALOPHIA, παραλοφια. Thus some anatomical writers, as Keil, &c. express the lower and lateral part of the neck, from παρα, near, and λοφος, the eminence of the back.

PARANOIE. The same as *Vesania*.

PARAPHORA. A slight kind of delirium, or light-headedness in a fever: some use this word for a delirium in general.

PARAPHRENESIS. A delirium; also the paraphrenitis.

PARAPHROSYNE. The same as *Mania*.

PARAPOPLEXIA. A slight apoplexy.

PARARHTHREMA, παραρθρημα. A slight luxation; a tumour from protrusion, as an hernia.

PARARTHREMATA. Plural of *pararthrema*, and synonymous with *ectopia*.

PARARRYTHMOS, παραρρυθμος. Is a species of the *Arythmos*, and expresses a pulse not suitable to the age of the person.

PARASPHAGIS, παρασφαγισ. The part of the neck contiguous to the clavicles.

PARASTATA. It signifies any thing situated near another.

P A

PARASTATÆ, (παρυστάττι, from παρυστήμι, to stand near). In Hippocrates it signifies the *Epididymis*. Herophilus and Galen called these the *Varicose Parastatæ*, to distinguish them from the *Glandulose Parastatæ*, now called *Prostatæ*. Rufus Ephesus called the tubæ Fallopianæ by the name of *Parastatæ Varicose*.

PARASTEMMA, (παραστρέμμα, from παραστρέφω, to distort, or pervert). A perversion, or convulsive distortion, of the mouth, or any part of the face.

PARASYNANCHE, παρασυναγχη. A species of *Quinsy*.

PARENCEPHALIS, (from παρα, near, εγκεφαλος, the brain). The cerebellum.

PARISTHMIÆ, (παρισθμια, from παρα, and ισθμιον). A part of the throat so called; the tonsils, or disorders of the tonsils.

PARISTHMIOTOMUS. An instrument with which the tonsils were formerly scarified.

PAROPIÆ, παρωπιαί. The external angles of the eyes.

PAROPTESIS, (from οπταω, to roast). A provocation of sweat, by making a patient approach the fire, or by placing him in a bagnio.

PARORASIS, παρορασις. An imbecility of sight.

PASMA, πασμα. *Catapasma*.

PASSA. In Paracelsus it is a whitloe.

PASSULATUM. Is a term given by Dispensatory writers to some medicines, where raisins are the chief ingredient, as the electarium passulatum, &c.

PASSUM. Raisin-wine.

PASTA REGIA. A lozenge.

PASTILLUM, or *Pastillus*. A little lump of paste, or ball, made to take like a lozenge, a troch, or pastil.

PATOR NARIUM. The sinus, cavity, or chasm of the nose.

PATRUM CORTEX. *Cortex Peru-*

P E

vianus. So called from the Jesuits, (called fathers in the church of Rome), who first spread its use in Europe.

PATURSA. The venereal disease.

PAULINA, CONFECTIO. It is a warm opiate. The London College have called it *Confectio Opiata* in their Dispensatory. It is the *Paulina* of Aristarchus, which is the same with the *Confectio Archigenis*.

PECHEDION, πεχηδεον. The perinæum.

PECHYAGRA. The gout in the elbow.

PECHYS, πεχυς. The elbow.

PECHYTYRBE. An epithet for the scurvy.

PECTEN. The pubes, or share-bone.

PECTUSCULUM. The metatarsus.

PEDECULATIO. Pediculation, *Morbus Pedicularis*, by the Greeks, φθειρισις. Is a particular foulness of the skin, very apt to breed lice: and is said to be the distemper of the Egyptians, which we read of among the plagues with which God punished that people.

PEDICUS. *Extensor digitorum brevis*.

PEDION, πεδιον. The sole of the foot.

PEDORA. The fordes of the eyes, ears, and feet.

PEGE, πηγη, a fountain. The internal angles of the eyes are called *Pega*.

PELADA. A species of baldness, a shedding of the hair from a venereal cause.

PELIOMA, πελιωμα. An ecchymosis when liver-coloured.

PELMA, πελμα. The sole of the foot, or a sock adapted to the sole of the foot.

PELTALIS CARTILAGO, (from *pelta*, a buckler.) The scutiform cartilage of the larynx.

PELVIS AURIUM. The cochlea in the ear.

PELVIS CEREBRI. The infundibulum in the brain.

PEMPHIS. A species of *Lythrum*.

Pemptæus, πεμπταιος. An ague, the paroxysm of which returns every fifth day.

PENÆA. A species of *Polygala*.

PENIDIUM. A kind of clarified sugar, with a mixture of starch, made up into small rolls. The confectioners call it barley sugar.

PENIDIUM SACCHARATUM. *Penidium*.

PENIS CEREBRI. The pineal gland.

PENIS MULIEBRIS. *Clitoris*.

PENTADACTYLON. A name for the *Palma Christi*.

PENTAPHARMACON, (from *πεντ*, *quinque*, five, and *φάρμακον*, *remedium*, remedy). Is any medicine consisting of five ingredients.

PENTAPHYLLOIDES. Barren strawberry.

PEPASMOS, πεπασμος. The same as concoction or maturation.

PEPASTICA. Digestive medicines.

PEPITA NUX. Ignatius's bean.

PEPLION, or *Peplos*. They were purging medicines, for evacuating bile and phlegm.

PEPTICOS, πεπτικός. Peptic. Such a thing as promotes digestion, or is digestive.

PERACUTE. Very sharp. Diseases are thus called, when greatly inflamed, or aggravated beyond measure.

PERCEPIER. Parsley-piert, or parsley-breakstone.

PERCOLATION. Straining through (from *per*, through, and *colo*, to strain). It is generally applied to animal secretion, from the office of the glands resembling that of a strainer, in transmitting the liquors that pass through them.

PERDETUM. In Paracelsus it is the root of skirret.

PERETERION, (περιτηριον, from

περαω, to dig through). The perforating part of the trepan.

PERIAPTA, περιαιπτα. People on whom amulets were fixed for the removal of a disease.

PERIBOLE, (περιβολη, from περιβαλλω, to surround). Sometimes it signifies the dress of a person; at others, a translation of the morbid humours to the surface of the body.

PERICARPIA, (περικαρπια, from περι, circum, about, and carpus, the wrist). Are medicines that are applied to the wrist.

PERICHRISIS, περιχρησις. A liniment.

PERICHRISTA, περιχρηστοι. Any medicines with which the eyelids are anointed, in an ophthalmia.

PERICLASIS, περικλασις, (from περι, about, and κλαω, to break). It is a term used by Galen for such a fracture of the bone as quite divides it, and forces it through the flesh into sight. Or a fracture with a great wound, wherein the bone is laid bare.

PERIDESMICA, (Ischuria). A suppression of urine from stricture in the urethra.

PERIDROMOS, περιδρομος. The extreme circumference of the hairs of the head.

PERIERGIA, περιεργια. Is any needless caution or trouble in an operation, as *περιεργος* is one who dispatches it with any unnecessary circumstances: both the terms are met with in Hippocrates, and others of the Greek writers.

PERIESTECOS, (περιστηκος, from περιστημι, to surround, or to guard). An epithet for diseases, signs, or symptoms, importing their being salutary, and that they prognosticate the recovery of the patient.

PERIGRAPHE, περιγραφη. An inaccurate description or delineation. In Vesalius, *perigraphæ* signifies certain white lines and impressions, ob-

servable in the musculus rectus of the abdomen.

PERIN, *περιν*. A testicle. Some explain it the *Perinæum*; others say it is the *Anus*.

PERINÆOCELE. A rupture in the perinæum.

PERINYCTIDES, *περινυκτιδες*. Little swellings like nipples; or, as others relate, pustules or pimples, which break out in the night.

PERIPHIMOSIS, *περιφιμωσις*. See *Phimosis*.

PERIPLEUMONIA. *Peripneumonia*.

PERIPYEMA, *περιπυημα*. Is a collection of matter about any part, as round a tooth in the gums: and,

PERIRRHŒA, *περιρριζα*. Is a reflux of humours from the habit of the body into any of the larger emunctories for its excretion, as in an hydrophical case, of water upon the bowels or kidneys, where it passes away by urine or stool.

PERIRRHEXIS, *περιρριξις*. A breaking off, or a separation round about, either of corrupted bones, or of dead flesh.

PERISCYPHISMUS, *περισκυφισμος*. An incision made across the forehead, or from one temple to another, over the upper part of the os frontis, over the coronary suture. It was formerly used when a considerable inflammation or defluxion in the eyes attended.

PERISTERMA, (from *περι*, *circum*, about, and *sternum*, the breast-bone), expresses all on both sides that part.

PERISTOMA, or rather *Peristroma*, *περιστρωμα*, properly signifies any covering, but is applied by Pecquet to the mucous or villous coat or lining of the intestines, the same which Bilsius calls *Muscum Villosum*; Bartholine, *Crusta Membranosa*; and De Graaf, *Crusta Vermicularis*.

PERISYSTOLE, *περισυστολη*. A pause or intermission between the systole and diastole, which is by most

denied to be perceived in healthy persons, but when dying it is very sensibly felt.

PERITERION, *περιτηριον*. The perforating part of the trepan.

PERITONA ORIXIS. A bursting of the peritonæum, and consequent hernia.

PERIZOMA, *περιζωμα*, strictly signifies a girdle; but by Hildanus, and some other surgical writers, it is applied to such instruments for supporting ruptures, which we commonly call trusses. Some also express by it the diaphragm.

PERSICUS IGNIS. A carbuncle. Avicenna says, it is that species of carbuncle which is attended with pustules and vesications.

PERSISTENS FEBRIS. A regular intermitting fever, the paroxysms of which return at constant and stated hours.

PES CAPRÆ. Goat's foot, a species of *Oxalis*; also a species of *Convulvulus*.

PES TIGRIDIS. Tiger's foot, a species of *Ipomœa*.

PETALODES, *πεταλωδες*, is by Hippocrates applied to an urine which hath in it flaky substances resembling leaves.

PEUCE, *πευκη*. The pine-tree.

PEZA, *πεζα*. The sole of the foot or the ankle. According to some, it is all under the tibia.

PHACODES, *φακωδες*, is used by Hippocrates for hypochondriacal persons, whose complexions are of a lentil colour, as *upophacodes* is also applied by him to such as are approaching to such a complexion: and,

PHACOIDES, *φακωιδης*. Any thing in the shape of a lentil, as applied by Vesalius to the crystalline humour of the eye. Galen also makes mention of

PHACOPTISANA, *φακοπιισανη*. A liquor, or decoction of lentils, like what is now the common practice in

the country of boiling tares in drinks for raising the small-pox, and the like uses.

PHACOSIS, φακωσις. A black spot in the eye resembling a lentil.

PHALACROSIS, φαλακρωσις. A decay of the hair.

PHALANGIUM. A name for several species of *Ephemerum*.

PHALANGOSIS, φαλαγγωσις. A double or a triple row of the eye-lashes.

PHARYNGÆUM SAL. It is a salt formed with a solution of cream of tartar, nitre, and alum, in distilled vinegar. It is used for gargarisms in quinries.

PHARYNGETHRON, φαρυγγιον. The fauces or pharynx.

PHASEOLUS ZURRATENSIS. Cowage, stinking beans, or cow-itch, the *Dolichos Pruriens*.

PHAUSINGES, φαυσινγες. Red circles in the legs, excited by fire. It sometimes is used to signify other kinds of spots, as well as red ones caused by the fire.

PHELLODRYS. The laurel-oak.

PHELLOS. A species of *Quercus*.

PHELYPÆA. A species of *Lathraea*.

PHENGITES, φηνγιτις. A luminous stone, capable of acquiring light, and dispensing it again.

PHYLADYNAMOS, φιλανδυναμος. An epithet of water, expressing the property of it, by which it diminishes the strength.

PHILEMOT. It is the brown species of *Zinc Flos*; it is of a russet-colour, of a scaly texture; it is mineralized by sulphur, and often contains iron.

PHILIATROS, φιλιατρος. A student in medicine.

PHILONIUM. The name of an anodyne electary, described in most Dispensatories, from Philo, its author.

PHILTRON, (φιλτρων, from φιλειν,

to kill). A love potion, or medicine to excite love. It signifies also the cavity or depression of the upper-lip, which is situated under the septum of the nose.

PHIMOSICA, ISCHURIA. A suppression of urine from a phimosis.

PHLASMA, φλασμα. A contusion, or collision.

PHLEBOPALIE, φλεβοπαλις. The pulsation of an artery.

PHLEBORRHAGIA, (φλεβορραγια, from φλεψ, a vein, and ρηγνιμ, to break). A rupture of a vein.

PHLEGM, φλεγμα. In a human body, is the same as *Pituita*, which see; but among the chemists is much the same as Water, and is the common vehicle and diluter of all solid bodies; and, in proportion to its quantity in mixture, are the other more languid or disabled in their attractive influences. It is much to be questioned, whether this can be drawn by distillation without some mixture: that which was the least, must come nearest to the nature of a principle, and, upon that account, rain-water is like to afford it most. In the former acceptation of this term,

PHLEGM OF ALUM. When alum is calcined, if the vapour arising from it is caught in a close vessel, it condenses at first into an insipid liquor, which becomes slightly acid towards the end.

PHLEGMAGOGUE, (φλεγμαγωγος, from *phlegma*, phlegm, and αγω, *duco*, to draw). Such a medicine as is supposed to purge phlegm.

PHLEGMATIAS, φλεγματιας. A beginning anasarca.

PHLEGMATORRHAGIA. The name of a disorder in which a flux of thin phlegm was discharged from the nostrils.

PHŒNICIUS MORBUS, φωνικινος. The elephantiasis.

PHŒNIGMUS, φωνιγμος. Red marks

or stains in the skin, as if red wine had been used to stain it.

PHOS, φως. Light; also the black circle about the pupil of the eye.

PHOSPHORUS. The name of a collyrium in Galen.

PHOXOS, φοξος. The sugar-loaf shaped head.

PHRENISMUS. *Phrenitis*, or inflammation of the brain.

PHRENITIS APYREA. The same as *Mania*.

PHRENITIS INANITORUM. Madness from a faulty bodily state.

PHRENITIS VOGELII. *Synochus*.

PHRICASMUS. Shivering.

PHRICODES, φρικωδης. A sort of semitertian fever. According to the ancients, it was a sort of fever, in which the patients trembled at the least breath of air.

PHRYCTE, φρυκτη, in Latin *frida*, simply, without its proper substantive, is *Resina Colophonia*, black resin, so called in distinction from the liquid sort called *Hygra*.

PHRYGIUS LAPIS. The Phrygian stone. It is so called, because the dyers in Phrygia used it much. It is produced in Cappadocia. Its uses are the same as those of the lapis calaminaris.

PHTHARTICOS, (φθαρτικος, from φθειρ, to corrupt). Deleterious, deadly.

PHTHERIASIS, φθειριασις. See *Phthiriasis*.

PHTHEIROCTONON. A name for the staves-acre: it is so called from φθειρ, a louse, and κτεινω, to kill, because it destroys lice.

PHYLACTERIOS, φυλακτηριος. A sort of amulets or charms, to be worn externally for the cure of many diseases; but these seem to have had their rise when physic was ingrossed by the monks and such like holy cheats; but are now put out of countenance by the increase of true learning, and the extirpation of those pious jugglers.

PHYLLITIDIS. A species of *Ofmunda*.

PHYLLYREA. A species of *Cassine*.

PHYMOSICA ISCHURIA. A suppression of urine, from a phymosis.

PHYSOCELE. A windy tumour from φυσα, a flatus, and κηλη, a tumour, a wind-rupture, or windy tumour.

PHYSOCEPHALUS. An emphysematous tumour of the head.

PICROCHOLOS, (πικροχολος, from πικρος, bitter, and χολη, bile). A person abounding with bitter bile, or a person subject to anger.

PILA HYSTRICIS. The bezoar of the porcupine.

PILEUS. The *Cucupha*. In anatomy, it is the coil with which some children are born; it is called *Pileus*, *Pileolus*, *Galea*, and *Vitta*.

PILMICTIO. A discharge of substances resembling hairs with the urine.

PIPER CHIAPÆ. Jamaica pepper.

PIPER TAVASCI. *Cassia Caryophyllata*.

PIPERINE. Things are thus called, which partake of the chief qualities of pepper, whether simples or compounds. Hildanus likewise applies *piperina* to baths in Helvetia, which he makes mention of in his works.

PIRCAL. So the Malabarians call an ulcerous swelling of the tibia, to which they are subject.

PISSACUM INDICUM. Barbadoes tar.

PISSELEUM, (πισσελαιον, from πισσα, pitch, and ελαιον, oil). Oil of pitch. Wool is said to be spread over boiling pitch, and when it is soaked with the rising vapour, it is wrung into a vessel; and this is repeated as long as the pitch is boiling.

PITYROIDES. An epithet for a sort of sediment in the urine, which resembles bran.

PLADAROTES, *πλαδαροτης*. A fungous tubercle in the inside of the eye-lid.

PLAGA, *πληγη*, in a lax sense is taken for any disease: but more strictly is used to signify those which are external, and proceed from blows or accidents.

PLATÆ, *πλαται*. The scapulæ.

PLATANOIDE. The Norway maple, with plane-tree leaves; a species of *Acer*.

PLICTRUM, *πληκτρον*. Thus some call the sharp part of the os petrosum; and others apply it to other parts, as the uvula, the tongue, &c. but their authority is not much followed.

PLEROTICS, (from *πληρωω*, impleo, to fill), are such medicines as *Incrassantes*.

PLEURORTHOPNŒA. According to Blanchard, it is a pleurisy in which the patient cannot breathe without keeping his neck erect.

PLEUROSTHOTONOS, *vel Tetanus Lateralis*. A sort of tetany. It is when the body is bent to one side by the tetany.

PNEUMA, *πνευμα*. Spirit, air, vapour, or the breath. Hippocrates often uses the word *pneuma*, to signify a difficult or short breath.

PNEUMATOCELE, (*πνευματοκηλη*, from *πνευμα*, wind, and *κηλη*, a tumour). A flatulent hernia, or windy rupture. It is when wind is contained in the scrotum, when a descent of the intestines there is apprehended to have happened.

PNEUMATOMPHALOS, (*πνευματομφαλος*, from *πνευμα*, wind, and *ομφαλος*, the navel). An umbilical flatulent rupture.

PNIGMOS, *πνιγμας*, *Pnigma*, *πνιγμα*. The *Catarrhus Suffocativus* of aumors.

PODAGRA DENTII, is sometimes used for the tooth-ach.

PODAGRICA. The gout with fever.

POLYCHRESTON, *πολυχρηστος*, *ad*

multa utilis. The same as *Polypharmacum*. A medicine of many virtues, or that will cure many diseases. It hath therefore been conceitedly given to many preparations and compositions, which have been far from deserving such encomium, and some of which yet remain in the common dispensaries.

POLYCHRESTRUM BALSAMUM. A balsam of guaiacum.

POLYMERISMA. Supernumerary limbs or parts.

POLYMORPHOS. Multiform, an epithet for the *Os Sphenoides*.

POLYURICA ISCHURIA. A suppression of urine, from a neglect to discharge it.

POPULARIS. Endemical, or epidemical.

POPULEON. The name of an officinal ointment from the poplar-leaves, which are its chief ingredient. Paracelsus will have it, that this mixed with any purging electary, and applied to the feet, will operate like a cathartic taken in the common way.

PORRUS. The same as *Sarcoma*.

PORTORARIUM. The duodenum, or the pylorus.

POSCA. Vinegar and water mixed.

POSTBRACHIALE. The metacarpus.

POSTHIA, *ποσθια*, of Galen. It is the *Ophthalmia Tuberculosa* of Sauvages. It does not appear to be any other than that species of hordeolum which Sauvages calls the *Hordeolum Siro*, which is an inflammatory scirrhous tumour on the edge of the eyelid. Some say it is the *Hordeolum Grando* of Sauvages.

PREHENSIO. The catalepsy.

PREMNON, *πρεμνον*. The extremity of the white of the eye.

PRESSURA. Inflammation of the finger-end, from the effect of cold.

It is an instance of *Phlogosis Erythema* of Cullen.

PROCARDION. The pit of the stomach.

PROCTOLEUCORRHŒA. The same as *Proctorrhæa*, but so named from the discharge resembling that of the whites.

PRODROMUS, προδρομος, is used in various senses, but chiefly by physicians for any one distemper that is often the forerunner of another, as a vertigo is frequently the prodromus of an apoplexy.

PROGERMINUS, is applied by M. A. Severinus, to such abscesses, as arise rather from a redundancy of humours, than putrid matter, as mushrooms spring out of the earth.

PROGLOSSIS, προγλωσσις. The tip of the tongue.

PROJECTURA. An apophysis.

PROLABIUM, (*pro*, before, and *labium*, the lip). The red part of the lips.

PROPHASIS, προφασις. *Procatartetic*.

PRORA. The occiput.

PRORÆ SUTURA. The lambdoidal suture.

PROSARTHROSIS. *Adarticulatio*.

PROSTATA. A suppository.

PROSTHESIS, προσθεσις. In surgery, it signifies the substitution of artificial parts.

PROTHESIS. Adding artificial parts, as the applying a wooden leg, &c.

PROTRACTOR, is an instrument used by surgeons to draw out any foreign or disagreeable bodies from a wound or ulcer, in the manner as the forceps.

PSELLOTTIS. *Psellismus*.

PSEUCROLUSION. Bathing in salt water.

PSEUDO-ASTHMA. An asthma excited by an abscess, or a vomica in the lungs.

PSIDA, or *Psidium*. Pomegranate-peel.

PSILOTHRUM, ψιλοθεον, is an external form of remedy, used to take away hair from the body; signifying

the same with *Depilatory*.

PSILOTHRUM. *Byronia Alba*.

PSOPHOS, ψοφος. Crackling, or rattling of the bones.

PSYCHAGOGICA. So Schneider calls those medicines which suddenly raise the spirits, in faintings, and the like.

PSYCHROLUTRON, ψυχολετρον, is the cold bath, or washing in cold water; much used by the ancients to restore the tone of the parts after warm bathing, and to give a firmness to the body.

PTERNA. The *Os Calcaneum*.

PTYSMAGOGUE, from πτυω, *spuo*, to spit, and therefore expresses every such discharge, whether it amounts quite to a salivation or not.

PUDENDAGRA. So some have called the venereal disease; *pudenda*, from *pudor*, shame. Others define it to be, pain or uneasiness in the genital parts of men or women, somewhat resembling a diarrhœa, but without a dysuria. Dr. Berdoe asserts, in his Essay on the Pudendagra, that it is distinct from the venereal disease, and also, that it is proper to women, but that a woman labouring under it, can communicate some inflammatory symptoms to the penis of a man who cohabits with her.

PUERILIS MORBUS. The epilepsy.

PULVINARIA. Cushions made with chaff, in which is mixed some medical ingredients coarsely powdered.

PUNCTUM AUREUM. It is when a hernia of the intestines is reduced, an incision is made through the skin and membrana adiposa, quite down to the upper part of the spermatic vessels; then a golden wire is to be fixed and twisted, so as to prevent the descent of any thing down the tunica vaginalis.

PURPURA ALBA. A species of eruption to which men with a phlegmatic plethora are inclined.

PYCNOTICA. Incrassating medicines.

PYRENOIDES PROCESSUS. The odontoid process of the second vertebra.

PYRÆNUS, (from *πυρ*, *ignis*, fire, and *οινος*, *vinum*, wine), is rectified spirit of wine, thus called, because it is made by fire, or rather rendered of a fiery nature, so as to be totally inflammable.

PYROTECHNY, (from *πυρ*, *ignis*, fire, and *τεχνη*, *ars*, art). The art

of chemistry, because fire is the chief instrument the chemists make use of. Some also have used it to signify the art of fireworks.

PYROTICS. Medicines that are actually or potentially hot; such as will burn the flesh, and raise an *eschar*, from *πυρ*, *ignis*, fire.

PYULCON, (*πυελκων*, from *πυρ*, pus, and *ελκω*, to draw). An instrument to fetch out the matter from the cavity of the breast, or any sinous ulcer.

Q.

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QUADRAGESIMUS DIES. The fortieth day. The ancients fixed on this day as the last to which acute distempers could extend, calling all those chronical which continued longer. But Dr. James observes that he hath seen an acute disease which continued sixty days.

QUADRIGA, Cataphraxis. A bandage for the sternum and ribs. It is twenty-four feet long, three or four fingers broad, with two heads: it binds upon the thorax and sternum more firmly when the ribs are fractured: the middle is placed on one side of the body, the two heads are carried so as to intersect on the opposite shoulder: they are brought back to where they began, and then pass circularly round the body.

QUARTARIUS. A measure which contains about four ounces.

QUARTATIO. Quartation: it is an operation in chemistry by which the quantity of one thing is made equal to a fourth part of the quantity of another thing. Thus when gold alloyed with silver, is to be parted, we are obliged to facilitate the action of the aqua fortis, by reducing the quantity of the former

QU

of these metals to one fourth part of the whole mass, which is done by sufficiently increasing the quantity of the silver, if it be necessary. Some extend this name to the operation of parting.

QUATRIO. The astralagus.

QUERCERA. *Epialos*.

QUIETALES. Diseases in which the voluntary and involuntary motions, and the senses, are diminished.

QUINA QUINA. The Peruvian bark.

QUINCUNX. A five-ounce measure.

QUINTA ESSENTIA. Quintessences; they are made by adding to any essential oil twelve times its quantity of pure alcohol of wine, and shaking them together so that the oil may not appear. If these are distilled in a close vessel, with a fire of 90 degrees by Fahrenheit's thermometer, the alcohol will rise with only the presiding spirit of the oil; and if with care the thinner part is several times separated from the thicker, by repeated gentle cohobation, the alcohol will at length be so impregnated with those oily spirits as

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to appear to be almost pure spirit itself, leaving a gross exhausted oil behind. Dry quintescences are made by dissolving an aromatic oil in alcohol of wine, then adding to them ten times their weight of sugar, finely powdered, then placing them in a proper place and vessel for exhaling

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the spirit from the sugar, but preserving it from being lost. Thus the sugar will remain dry, but with the virtues of the aromatic oil in it. *Qj.* in a glass of wine, is a good cordial.

QUISQUILIUM. A grain of cheremes.

R.

RE

RACHITÆ. The semispinal muscles are thus called by some.

RADICAL MOISTURE. A term that some have had strange notions about; but if it be limited to any intelligible signification we can understand by it nothing else but the mass of blood, which is the promptuary from whence all other fluids in a human body are derived.

RADULA. A wooden spatula or a scraper.

RAMEX. An hernia.

RAMEX VARICOSUS. A varicose hernia.

RECEPTARIUM MEDICI. So Langius calls those who set up for physicians upon the stock only of a great many receipts, without being able to reason about their properties or efficacies.

RECIPROCATION. When two diseases or symptoms alternately succeed one another.

RECREMENT, sometimes signifies any superfluous matter mixed with another that is useful; and sometimes such secreted juices in the body as are afterwards of use to the œconomy.

RECRUDESCENT. When any distemper returns that was gone off; as the paroxysms of intermittents.

RECURSUS, is used by Bellini for

RE

the repetition of paroxysms in an intermittent.

REDINTEGRATION: Chemists thus call the restoring any mixed body or matter, whose form has been destroyed, to its former nature and constitution.

REGIUS MORBUS. The king's disease. The jaundice is thus called, but for what reason does not well appear.

RENUENTES, (from *renuo*, to nod backwards), are the same muscles as the *Rectus Major capitis* and *Minor*, thus called from their office.

RESUMPTIVA. Restoratives; they differ not much from agglutinant corroboratives, and their manner of operating in the same way, may be accounted for, only that restoratives are more adhesive and subtle, whereby they enter into the nourishment of the remotest parts.

REVULSION; (from *revello*, to pull back), is the calling back any humour by evacuation.

REVULSORIA. Means which procure revulsion.

REVIVIFICATION. Fetching again to life. Chemists use this term to express the procuring again some metals in their natural state from the mixtures they may have been blended with by some preparations, as

quicksilver is revived from cinnabar, &c.

RHABDOIDES, (ραβδοειδης, from ραβδος, a strait twig, and ειδης, form). A name for the sagittal future.

RHACHISAGRA, (from ραχις, the spine of the back, and αγρα, a prey). A species of gout, fixed in the spine of the back.

RHACHIAEI, ραχιαιοι, or *Rachite*, ραχίται. The muscles belonging to the spine of the back.

RHICNOSIS, ρικνωσις. Lean and wrinkled.

RHOCAS. The watery eye.

RHOCHMOS. Snoring or snorting through the fauces.

RHODON, (from ροδον, *rosa*, a rose). Some compositions wherein this is the chief ingredient, have their names from hence, as *Diarrhodon*, &c.

RHODOSACCHARUM, (from the former, and *saccharum*, sugar), is sugar of roses.

RHŒAS, ροιας. The watery eye.

RHOPALOSIS, ροπαλωσις. The same as *Plica*.

RHYTHM, ρυθμος, is used to express a certain number of pulses in any given time.

RIGATION. The same as *Irrigation*. The sprinkling or moistening any thing or part.

RIGOR NERVOSUM. Tetanus.

RONCHUS, ρονχος. Snorting or snoring through the fauces.

ROSA SINENSIS. A species of *Hibiscus*.

ROSACEA, or *Rosata*. A name given to many compounds, where roses are the principal ingredients.

ROSALIA. A distemper taken notice of by Martian, in his notes upon Hippocrates, very common to children, not much unlike the measles; and wherein broke out small red pimples of the bigness of millet-seed; probably the same as our *Fe-*

bris Miliaris, unless in the colour at the eruption.

ROSTRIFORMIS PROCESSUS, (from *rostrum*, a beak, and *forma*, shape). The same as *Coracoides*.

ROSTRUM, is used to express the pipe which conveys the distilling liquor into its receiver, in the common alembics; also for crooked scissars, which the surgeons in some cases make use of for the dilatation of wounds.

ROSTRUM LEPORINUM. The piece of flesh which hangs betwixt the division of the hare-lip, the hare-lip is also thus named.

ROTATOR MINOR, The lesser trochanter.

ROTATOR MAJOR. The greater trochanter.

ROTATOR NATIS. The great trochanter.

ROTRON'S SOLVENT. Crude antimony mixed with three parts of nitre, and exposed to the fire in a crucible, loses all its phlogiston by the action of the nitre. The mixture enters into a paste-like fusion; it is then poured on a marble, pulverised and kept in a bottle.

RUSMA. An ingredient of a composition used to take off hair, without the trouble of shaving. For being mixed up into a thin paste with an equal quantity of quicklime, and a sufficient proportion of water, and rubbed over any hairy part of the body, it will, in the space of a minute or two, so loosen the hair by the roots, that it may be gently stroked off with the hand. This method of taking off hair is much practised among the Turks, the Italians, and the French. The *Rusma Tartarorum* is said to be a preparation of honey, boiled to a high consistence, and applied in the manner of a plaster; but the genuine *Rusma* is a species of earth found in Turkey, and otherwise called by the

name of *Sufma*. There is mention made of it in the Philosophical Transactions for the month of December, in 1666.

RYTHMUS, ῥυθμός, measure. A

term used by musicians with respect to time in music; but since Herophilus applied it to the pulse: it is used to express the time, motion, or modulation of the pulse.

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SABAUDA. Savoy cabbage; a species of *Brassica*.

SABDARIFFA. A species of *Hibiscus*.

SACER. Some give this name to part of the *Transversalis Dorsi*.

SACER IGNIS. The holy fire. Some have fancied to give this name to a *Herpes exedens*, but it does not appear from what reason; as also is,

SACER MORBUS, given to the epilepsy, upon the apprehensions of somewhat supernatural being concerned in its production or cure.

SACCULUS CHYLIFERUS. The same as *Receptaculum Chyli*; and,

SACCULUS CORDIS. The *Pericardium*.

SACCULUS LACRYMALIS. The lacrymal sac.

SACCUS. The *Intestinum cecum*.

SACCULI MEDICINALES. Bags of ingredients to be suspended in liquors in making diet-drinks.

SACRA HERBA. *Verbena*.

SACRA VENA. It sometimes proceeds from the bifurcation of the *Vena Cava*, at others from the origin of the left *Iliaca*, and accompanies the artery of that name.

SALITURA. A pickle made with salt; the same as *Muria* or brine.

SALSUGO. Any salt pickles, or brines.

SALUTATORES. Saluters. There were a set of enthusiasts or impostors

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in Spain, of the order of St. Catherine, who pretended to the cure of many diseases, by touching or breathing only upon the patient, in their ordinary intercourses with them.

SAMPSYCHINON, σαμψυχινόν. A name which hath been given to an oil, and an ointment wherein *margoram* was the chief ingredient; from *Sampsuchus*, a synonymous term for that plant.

SAMYEL. A wind that blows in some parts of Arabia. It is quickly destructive, and soon after death, the putrefaction is so great that the limbs of a man may easily be separated from the trunk. It is similar to the *hermattan* in its effects.

SANCTUS. Holy. This hath been applied to many things, both simple and compound, as whimsical persons have conceited of their virtues; as the *Guaiacum* is called *Lignum Sanctum*, and even our own dispensaries retain a purging powder under the title of *Pulvis Sanctus*.

SANDYX. Ceruse burned till it resembles the red arsenic in colour; or is a red earth, the same probably as the red orpiment.

SANOIDES, σανίδης. Where the breast is straitened or flattened, like *σανίς*, a table; flat-chested.

SAPA. The name of an old form of medicine like rob, which is a juice boiled up to some consistence; strictly that of grapes, though used

also for others ordered after the same manner.

SAPIENTIE OLEUM. Oil of bricks.

SARCOMPHALON, (σαρκομφαλον, from σαρξ, flesh, and ομφαλος, the navel.) A fleshy excrecence at the navel.

SARCOMPHALUS. A species of *Rhamnus*.

SARCOPHYIA, σαρκοφυια. A farcoma.

SARCOTICS, σαρκωτικά. From the same derivation, are medicines that fill up ulcers with new flesh, the same as *Incarnatives*. Many other words are also compounded at pleasure, from the same foundation.

SARDIASIS. Involuntary convulsive laughing, or rather the cynic spasm.

SCHÆNOPRASUM. Chives, a species of onion.

SCAPELLATUM. Is by some authors used in the same sense as the Greeks applied *phimosi*, φειμοσι, for a denudation of the glands of the penis, when the prepuce could not be drawn over it.

SCELOTYRBE, (σκελοτυρβη, from σκελος, crus, the leg, and τυρβη, tumultus, uproar). Signifies those pains in the legs that generally attend scorbutic habits; whence it is also frequently used for the scurvy itself, and applied to some medicines contrived against such disorders.

SCELOTYRBE FESTINANS. A variety of idiopathic convulsion.

SCELOTYRBE VERMINOSA. A variety of symptomatic convulsion.

SCHESIS, σχησις. Is a disposition of the body accidentally contracted, not yet so fully confirmed, but that it may easily again be altered; in distinction from εσις, which is a confirmed habit. Hence also *Schetica Febris*, is one that will soon give way to remedies, contrary to the *hectica*, which is so confirmed in the habit

as not to be removed but by long time and great difficulty.

SCHLOT. The brine from which table salt is obtained, is evaporated in large iron pans. At the beginning of the evaporation, the detached earth and the selenities separate and precipitate; and the selenites carries with it a great quantity of Glauber's salt. This precipitate forms a matter which has an earthy appearance, and is called *Schlot*, or *Scratch*, by the workmen.

SCIRRHOSIS, (σκερρωσις, from σκληροω, *induro*, to harden). An induration of the glands, as happens frequently to the liver in a jaundice, and the like.

SCLEROPHTHALMIA, σκληροφθαλμια. Is a lippitudo dura, wherein the eye-lids turn out red, hard, and dry, and very difficult to cure.

SCLEROTICS. Medicines which harden and consolidate the parts they are applied upon.

SCOLIOSIS, σκολιωσις. A species of *Gibber*.

SCOPUS, σκοπος, scope. It is by some used in the same acceptation as *Intention*, or *Indication*; but others have very critically distinguished between them.

SCOTODINE, σκοτοδινη, or *Scotodinos*. A vertigo attended with dimness of sight.

SCOTOMIA, σκοτωμα. The same as *Amaurosis*; a transitory blindness.

SCOTOS, σκοτος. Darkness or dimness of sight.

SCRÖTUM CORDIS. The *Pericardium*.

SECESSION. The going off by secretion, as the excrements are particularly said to be formed by the secession of those parts whereof they consist, from the animal fluids through their proper outlets.

SEDANTARIA OSSA. So Daven-ter calls the protuberances of the os coxendicis upon which we sit.

SEMISSPECULUM. An instrument described by Hildanus for dilating the neck of the womb.

SEPARATORIUM. A separator; the name of an instrument for separating the pericranium from the cranium; also a chemical vessel for separating liquors.

SEPHIROS. A word used by Benicrus about 1448, being a corruption of *scirrhus*.

SICYEDON, σικυηδον. A transverse fracture.

SIDERATION, is either such a sudden mortification, as the common people call a blast, or is a sudden deprivation of sense, as in an apoplexy.

SIEF. The name of an ancient form in medicine, amongst the Arabians, but now out of use.

SIMPLEX OCULUS. A single-headed roller, used as a bandage for one eye; when used for both eyes, it is rolled up into two heads.

SIPHAC. An Arabian name for the *Peritonæum*.

SIRIASIS, σιριασις. Inflammation of the brain.

SITIOLOGICE, (from *σιλος*, aliment, and *λεγω*, to speak). That part of medicine which treats of aliments.

SOLEN, σωλην, a cradle for a broken limb. Any tube or channel.

SOLITARIII. Diseases affecting any one part of the body.

SPAGYRIC MEDICINE, or *Spagyric Art*, is the same as chemistry, the word importing to extract, or collect, or gather together; because it teaches how to extract and separate the purer parts of substances from mixed bodies.

SPAGYRIST. The same as a chemist.

SPANOPOGON, σπανοπωγων. Thinly bearded.

SPARADRAP. An ancient name for what we now call a cere cloth.

SPARGANOSIS, σπαργανωσις. A

milk abscess.

SPECILLUM. A probe.

SPECILLUM. An instrument with which surgeons search wounds, in the manner of a probe.

SPECULUM MATRICIS. An instrument to do the same office with respect to matter obstructed in the womb, or to assist in any manual operation relating thereto.

SPHAGELISMUS, σφακελισμος. Inflammation of the brain.

SPHERISTICOS, σφαιριστικος. One so called by Galen, who exercises at that game by balls, which we commonly call *Racket*, for their health; and hence the place so made use of, was called the *Sphæristerium*.

SPHINX, σφιγξ. The name of a fictitious being said to puzzle Oedipus the Theban with riddles; whence some have justly enough called the strange notions of the chemists *Sphingis Enigmata*.

SPLANCHNICS. Such medicines as are supposed to cleanse the bowels and viscera.

SPODIUM, σποδιον. The *spodium* of Dioscorides and of Galen, are now not known in the shops. It is said to have been produced by burning cadmia alone in the furnaces; for having thrown it in small pieces into the fire, near the nozzle of the bellows, they blow the most fine and subtle parts against the roof of the furnace; and what was reflected from thence was called *spodium*. It differed from the pompholyx in not being so pure, and in being more heavy. Pliny distinguishes several kinds of it, as that of copper, silver, gold, and lead.

SPONDYLUS, σπονδυλος. Some have thought fit to call the spine, or back bone thus, from the shape and fitness of the vertebræ, to move every way upon one another.

SPONGOIDES, (σπογγωειδης, from σπογγος, a sponge, and ειδος, forma, shape). Is the same as *Os Cribri-*

forme, because it is hollow and porous like a sponge or sieve.

STACTE, *στακτη*. Signifies that kind of myrrh which distils or falls in drops from the tree. It is also used by some writers for a more liquid kind of amber than what is commonly met with in the shops; whence in Scribonius Largus, *Ægineta*, and some others, we meet with a collyrium, and several other forms, wherein this was the chief ingredient, distinguished by the name of *Stactica*.

STAPHIS, *σταφις*, is strictly a grape, or a bunch of grapes; whence from their likeness thereunto it is applied to many other things, especially the glandulous parts of the body, whether natural or distempered.

STAPHYLE, *σταφυλη*. The *Uvula*.

STATIONARIA FEBRIS. A stationary fever. So Sydenham called those fevers which happen when there are certain general constitutions of the years, which owe their origin neither to heat, cold, dryness, nor moisture, but rather depend on a certain secret and inexplicable alteration in the bowels of the earth, whence the air becomes impregnated with such kinds of effluvia, as subject the body to particular distempers, so long as that kind of constitution prevails, which, after a certain course of years, declines and gives way to another.

STEATOCELE, *στεατοκηλη*. A species of *Hernia* caused by a collection of suetty matter in the scrotum, derived from *στας*, suet, and *κηλη*, an hernia.

STEGNOSIS, (*στεγνωσις*, from *στεγω constipo*, to fix, or harden), is an obstruction of the pores.

STENOTHORACES, *στενοθώρακες*, are those who have narrow chests, and on that account are liable to phthical affections; and so of many others, from the same foundation.

STOMACHICA PASSIO. A disorder in which there is an aversion to food, even the thought of it begets a nausea, anxiety, cardilagia, an effusion of saliva, and often a vomiting. Fasting is more tolerable than eating: if obliged to eat, a pain follows that is worse than hunger itself.

STREMA, (*στρεμμα*, from *στρεφω*, to turn). A strain, or sprain, of the parts about a joint.

STRIGIL, or *Strigilis*. An instrument to scrape off the sweat during the gymnastic exercises of the ancients, and in their baths: *strigils* were made of metals, horn, ivory, and were curved: some were made of linen.

STRIGMENTUM. The strigment, filth, or fordes, scraped from the skin, in baths and places of exercises.

STRYCHNOMANIA. So the ancients called the disorder produced by eating the deadly nightshade.

STUPHA. A stupe; the same as Fomentation.

STYGIA. Is ascribed to a water made from sublimate, and directed in most dispensatories, on a supposition of its poisonous qualities, from *Styx*, a name given by the poets to one of the rivers in hell: the *Aqua Regia* is also thus sometimes called from its corrosive qualities.

STYMATOSIS. Bloody discharges from the pelvis.

SUBOCCIPITALES, NERVI. So the tenth pair of nerves are called, which proceed from the head.

SUBTILIZATION. Making any thing smaller, so as to rise in vapour.

SUBUBERES. Hath been used by some writers for those infants who yet suck, in distinction from those who are weaned, and then are called *Exuberes*, from the two opposite prepositions *sub* and *ex*, and *ubera*, the breasts.

SUCCAGO. The rob of any fruit.

SUCCENGENS MEMBRANA. The *Diaphragm*.

SUCCUBUS. The same as *Incubus*, only that this is supposed of the female as that is an evil spirit of the male kind; but such figments are now in derision.

SUCCUSSATION, and *Succussion*, is such a shaking of the nervous parts as is procured by strong stimuli, like sternutatories, friction, and the like, which are commonly used in apoplectic affections.

SUPPEDANEA. The same as

SUPPLANTALIA, (from *sub*, under, and *planta*, the sole of the foot), are any things applied for medicinal purposes to that part.

SYCOSIS, συκωσις. So the *Ophthalmia*

Trachoma of Sauvages is called, when its pustules are thick or scabrous.

SYCOSIS, συκωσις. A fungous sort of ulcer: also the tumour on the anus called by the Latins *Marisca*.

SYMBOLE, συμβολη, and *Symbolism*, is said either of the fitness of parts with one another, or of the consent between them by the intermediation of nerves, and the like.

SYMBOLICÆ. That part of pathology which treats of the signs and symptoms of diseases.

SYNASTOMOSIS. Is used much in the same sense as *Anastomosis*.

SYNCYSIS, συγχυσις. It is when from the violence of an ophthalmia the cornea is left opaque or corroded, and there is the appearance of confusion in the humours of the eye.

T.

T A

TABELLA. A morsel, is used for the same form of medicine as lozenge.

TABUM, is used by some authors to express a kind of matter arising from a decay of natural heat, or due circulation; very different from what is commonly understood by *pus*, which is a salutary maturation, and wanting only vent, whereas the other is also most commonly attended with a gangrene.

TALPÆ, and *Nates*, are tumours generally confined to the head, and appearing as the consequence of the venereal disease. The *Talpæ* elevate the skin from the pericranium, and generally denote a foulness of the bone beneath: but the *nates* are usually seated in the neck.

T E

TARAXIS, (from *ταρασσω*, to disturb). A disorder of the eye, such as when it is offended by smoke, or too hard rubbing.

TEMPERANTIA, **TEMPERATA.** Signify often the same as sweeteners or correctors, and such things as bring the body to a due temperature.

TENONTAGRA. A species of arthritis seated in the larger tendons, from *τενον*, a tendon, and *αγρα*, a seizure.

TEPEDARIUM. A room belonging to the ancient bathing-places, where persons gradually prepared themselves for entrance or going out.

TEREBRA, τρεπαν, is often used for the trepan, but sometimes also for any instrument to perforate the

bones with, of other parts as well as the head.

TEREDUM. Signifies the same with *Caries*.

TERNARY. Consisting of the number three, which some chemical and mystical writers have made strange work with; but the most remarkable distinction of this kind, and the only one worth notice, is that of Hippocrates, who divides the parts of a human body into continentes, contentas, and impetum facientes, though the latter is resolvable into the mechanism of the two former, rather than any thing distinct in itself.

TERRA CARIOSA. Rotten bone, a species of non-effervescent chalk, of a brown colour.

TERRA DAMNATA. Condemned earth, is the remainder after some distillations, where all that will rise is drawn off; the same as *Caput Mortuum*.

TERRA MORTUA. The same as *Terra Damna*.

TERTHRA. The middle and lateral parts of the neck.

TERTIUM SAL. A neutral salt.

TESSERÆ. The os cuboides.

TETARTOPHYA. Some reckon this fever amongst the remittents. It is a continued quartan fever.

THEOPHRASTICI. The disciples of Theophrastus Paracelsus were by some thus called.

THERIACA, (probably from *θηρ*, *fera*, a beast, and *αιεμα*, *sano*, to cure). Because it is applied to such things as are chiefly calculated for curing the bites of poisonous animals; and for the same reason good in all malignities. It was first given to the celebrated composition of Andromachus, which is one of our officinal capitals; but many writers since have also ascribed it to many other medicines of like form and virtue.

THERIOMA, (*θηριωμα*, from *θηρ*, *fera*, a wild beast). Malignant ulcers.

THESSALICI. The disciples of Theffalus were by some thus called, who was the first of the sect of the methodists.

THLASIS, *θλασις*. A depression of a bone in the skull.

THYMION, *θυμιον*. A small wart rising upon the skin of the body; being somewhat slender, but flat; is hard and rough at the top. The worst kind of them are those which are apt to bleed.

TOPINARIA. The same as *Talpa*, a species of tumour in the skin of the head.

TORTICOLLIS. A kind of contracture, by which the neck is bent to one side.

TORTIO. A strain in a joint.

TORTURA. A wry mouth.

TORTURA ORIS. The locked-jaw.

TOXITESIA. Mug-wort.

TRACHELOPHYMA. A bronchocele.

TRIORCHIS. A person with three testicles; also a name for a species of *Orchis*.

TRIPASTRUM APPELLIDIS. A machine for restoring fractures and dislocations, so named because it resembled a machine invented by Apellides and Archimedes, and because it was worked with three cords.

TRITÆOPHYA, (*τριταιοφυα*, from *τριταιος*, tertian, and *φυα*, of a like nature, or original). It is an epithet of a fever much of a nature with a tertian, and taking its rise from it. Some call it a Continued Tertian. It is remittent or intermittent.

TRITÆOPHYA CAUSUS. The *Causus* of Hippocrates.

TRITÆUS, *τριταιος*. The same as *Tritæophya*.

TROCHLOIDES. A particular

T Y

kind of articulation, and most remarkable in the first and second vertebræ of the neck. See *Trochoides*.

TUBA ARISTOTELICA. The Eustachian tube.

TUMIDI. Diseases that enlarge the body or parts thereof.

TURBINATUM. The pineal gland.

TURUNDULA. Signify a tent for a wound, or any thing to be thrust into an orifice or capacity.

TYPHODES, τυφῶδες. A kind of ardent fever, such as is usually attend-

T Y

ant on erysipelas of any of the viscera.

TYPHOMANIA, τυφμανία. In Galen's Exegeſis, it is ſaid to be a diſorder complicated of a pleuriſy and lethargy. Though the patient is delirious, he yet labours under a ſleepy coma. Dr. Cullen thinks it is a ſymptomatic kind of apoplexy.

TYROSIS, (from τυρός, cheeſe). A coagulating or curding of milk in the ſtomach, after the manner of cheeſe.

U.

U R

Unguentaria. The nutmeg.

URETEROTHROMBOIDES. Suppreſſion of urine, from clotted blood in the ureters.

URETEROPHLEGMATICA. Suppreſſion of urine from mucus in the ureters.

URETEROPYICA. Suppreſſion of urine from pus in the ureters.

URETEROSTOMATICA. Suppreſſion of urine from obſtruction in the lower orifice of the ureter.

URETHROPHYMENYDES. A ſuppreſſion of urine from a membrane rendering the urethra imperforate.

URETHROLITHICA. A ſuppreſſion of urine from a ſtone obſtructing the urethra.

U T

URETHROPHLEGMATICA. A ſuppreſſion of urine from mucus obſtructing the urine.

URETHROTHROMBOIDES. A ſuppreſſion of urin from cogulated blood in the urethra.

URETHROPYICA. A ſuppreſſion of urine from pus obſtructing the urethra.

URETHRELMINTICA. A ſuppreſſion of urine from worms in the urethra.

URETHRITICA. A ſuppreſſion of urine from inflammation in the urethra.

URORRHŒAS. The urine paſſing from the urethra through ſome eroſion in the perinæum.

UTRICULUS. The uterus.

V.

V A

Vaccaria. The *Uva uſſi*.

VALLUM. The eye brow; alſo a ſpecies of bandage.

V E

VELAMENTUM BOMBYCINUM. The interior ſoft membrane of the inteſtines, from *bombyx*, a ſilk-worm.

VESICULÆ DIVÆ BARBARÆ. The confluent small-pox.

VETERNUM. The anasarca.

VETERNUS. A lethargy.

VIRGA. Sometimes used for the *Penis*.

VISITATION. Epidemical and æstidential diseases are by some thus called, from a supposition of their being sent immediately from heaven as a token of divine wrath.

X.

X E

XERODES, *ξηρωδες*, expresses any tumour attended with the property of dryness.

X Y

XYLON. The same as *Gossypium*.

Y.

YPSILOGLOSSI. The muscles called *Basio-Glossi*.

Z.

Z I

ZAARA. A name for the mor-
bous watching.

ZACCHARUM, and according to some *Zuccharum*, was the ancient name of what we now write *Saccharum*, sugar.

ZERNA. An ulcerated impetigo; some express by it *Lepra*.

ZIBACH. Quicksilver

ZIMOTECHNICS. The art of making bread and the different wines.

Z Y

ZYTOHGALA, *ζεθογαλα*. Beer and milk, which together make what we commonly call *Posset-Drink*; a term often to be met with in *Sydenham*.

ZZ. The ancients signify *Myrrh* by these two letters, from *μυρρην*, a name for it common amongst them; but the late writers use them only for the *Zinziber*, ginger.

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